



**9th ADVANCES IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM
MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT
CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS**

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Yuksel Ekinci, Liz Sharples, Giampalo Viglia & Dogan Gursoy

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PREFACE

On behalf of the organising committee, we are pleased to welcome you to the 9th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference co-hosted by University of Portsmouth, United Kingdom and Washington State University, United States. Following the success of the 8th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference in Thailand, the 9th conference is held in Portsmouth, United Kingdom.

The goal of this scientific meeting is to provide an interactive forum for attendees from academia and industry to actively exchange, share, and challenge state-of-the-art research and case studies on hospitality and tourism marketing and management. The range of proposed topics of this conference reflects a number of major themes in hospitality and tourism marketing and management in the UK and internationally. You will see presentations and papers that examine a wide range of topics such as marketing, management, consumer behaviour, planning and development issues related to sustainability and the use of information technology. We strongly believe that contents of the presentations will significantly contribute to knowledge creation and dissemination pertaining to hospitality and tourism marketing and management among conference attendees.

The organising committee has spent countless hours to put this conference together. We would like to express our sincere gratitude and thanks to everyone who graciously volunteered their time and effort to organise this conference. We would like to extend our appreciation and sincere gratitude to the international scientific committee members who worked to ensure the quality of the papers and our keynote speaker Helen Bonser-Wilton, Chief Executive of Mary Rose. Without the organising committee members, volunteers and the help of international scientific committee, we would not have this conference.

On behalf of the organising committee, we would like to welcome you again to the 9th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference. We hope that you will enjoy British hospitality while attending the conference and have a pleasant stay in the historical city of Portsmouth.

The conference organising committee

Yuksel Ekinici, Liz Sharples, Giampaolo Viglia, Dogan Gursoy

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Full Papers

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Abstract

This study is aimed to provide an insight into the level of knowledge and mental schemes on Halal tourism from a new generation (Gen Z) in a Muslim majority country such as United Arab Emirates (UAE). For this purpose, a questionnaire was developed for primary data collection. Univariate, bivariate and multivariate techniques were applied for data processing, including a SEM model. As the main empirical results indicate, the collective mental scheme about this tourist segment is articulated around four factors: its attractiveness, its difficulties to be managed, its religious profile and its similarities (in the context of UAE).

Keywords: Halal tourism. Halal destination. Halal service quality. Generation Z, United Arab Emirates.

Introduction

When investigating this topic, the first problem a researcher faces is the confusion provoked by a series of terms intended to designate the same concept (Islamic tourism, Sharia-compliant tourism, Halal tourism...). In addition to the lack of a single accepted term, it is not clear what Islam requires with regard to tourism services. As stated by Maznui (1997, p. 118), "Islam is not just a religion and certainly not just a fundamentalist political movement. It is a culture or civilization, a way of life that varies from one Muslim country to another but it is spirited by a common core".

Halal is an Arabic term that Muslims regularly use and that means lawful or permitted. During the last years, with the economic development of Islamic countries, Halal market has grown significantly (Izberk-Bilgin & Nakata, 2016). Nevertheless, maybe non-Muslims know about Halal meat/food, but they have very little information, if any, about a new type of tourism entitled also as Halal. But for Muslims this is the option for those who want to avoid conventional tourism due to religious constraints and, therefore, search for tourism services that comply with Shariah requirements, although the inadequate or even lack of information is still remarkable (Ramli, 2011).

Thus, this type of tourism is mainly focused on Muslim tourists who follow the rules of Islam. For instance, although these rules are subject to different interpretations, hotels and restaurants related to Halal tourism serve neither alcohol nor pork, and they have different areas, such as pools, for males and females. Another example is Yas Waterworld, a theme park in Abu Dhabi (UAE) that offers a ladies-only event named "Ladies Day", where only female can enter the park, no pictures are allowed, all staff members are females, and mobile phones and similar devices are strictly forbidden. "Ladies Night" is another product in offer.

Bearing this in mind, this paper is divided into two main parts, reflecting its dual aim: concerning the first one, a synthesis of the state of the art on scientific research on Halal tourism is presented, which

seems the most appropriate term and in recent times has gained momentum among the experts; the second, of an empirical nature, aims to provide an insight into the level of knowledge and mental schemes of the new generation of university students in a Muslim majority country such as UAE, based on a survey carried out among business students in a higher education institution (Zayed University).

The relevance of this new generation born in the mid-1990s, usually termed as Gen Z, is that there are around 2 billion Gen Zers worldwide; specifically in UAE 1.21 million (12.7% of total population) is between 15-24 years old (GMI, 2018); from this amount, 0.81 million is male (67%). Therefore, a deep understanding of their expectations, and the corresponding effort to match them, is an essential remit for Halal tourism firms and destinations for their future growth. In this respect, a number of practical implications are gathered as a result of this study. It should be noted that in Islam the concept of Halal is intended, among other meanings, “to protect future generations” (Jaelani, 2017).

Theoretical Framework

In order to build a theoretical framework, a literature review was compiled. According to Fink (1998), this “is a systematic, explicit, and reproducible design for identifying, evaluating, and interpreting the existing body of recorded documents”. Usually, a literature review summarizes the existing research by identifying patterns, themes and issues, as well as helps to identify the conceptual content of the field under study (Meredith, 1993) and contributes to theory development. In this case, two subsections will be presented. The first synthesizes the state of the art in the field of Halal tourism. The second informs on the so-called generation Z and its profile.

Halal tourism

The first evidence on “Halal tourism” as a relatively new and under-researched area is supported by the limited number of outputs supplied by Web of Science when this topic is searched in this scientific database (this search was done in mid-2017): only 13 papers (including one editorial) and dated in the period 2014-2016, 10 of them in the year 2016. The vast majority (9) have been published in the journal “Tourism Management Perspectives”, 7 of them in a special volume (19 part B).

No researcher (nor institution) holds an outstanding position in terms of number of papers authored, although the most represented country of origin is Malaysia (4 authors). Only one paper has been written in a language other than English (Korean). The number of times these papers have been cited is very limited, with none of them standing out significantly. If research on “Halal tourism” is complemented with Scopus (in title, abstract and keywords), its database adds some more documents in its list of 18 supplied results, 15 articles and 3 book chapters (all of them in the English language).

The first article published on the topic was in 2010, co-authored by Battour, Ismail & Battor, who seem to be pioneers. In addition, this work is the most cited. Once again, this fact demonstrates the immaturity of the research strand labelled as “Halal tourism”. Nevertheless, others labels (such “Islamic tourism”) have been used as synonymous, quite inaccurately. As a matter of fact, the breakdown of keywords is headed by “Halal tourism” (13), followed by “Islamic tourism” (6). Authors from Malaysia are found as the most frequent.

A total of 22 papers were compiled adding the results of both databases (21 during the period 2010-2016). More than half (12) were published in 2016. Others were issued in 2015 (2), 2014 (4), 2011 (2) and 2010 (1).

The observation of the keywords used points out the prevalence of conceptual aspects within the “umbrella” of Halal tourism (often referred to as Islamic tourism), such as Halal food, Halal hospitality/lodging or Halal products in general. The references to the religious/cultural framework of this type of tourism are ubiquitous, with frequent allusions to Islam and compliance with Shariah principles. The accommodation sector has caught the attention of a significant number of papers, with

Asian (Malaysia, Singapore) and African (Morocco, Tunisia, South Africa) countries the most common geographical focus. Nevertheless, New Zealand and the Czech Republic have been analysed from a supply perspective (the latter specifically with regard to Russian tourists) and the USA from a demand perspective (Muslim travellers' behaviour in that country). Russia and South Korea have been tackled from the point of view of the development/promotion of Halal tourism in these countries, and India in the particular case of Halal medical tourism. Finally, these outputs are not particularly robust or distinctive because of their theoretical and methodological backgrounds; just the use of the theory of the Coordinated Management of Meaning, and the Content Analysis methodology, would deserve a mention. To sum up, as a field of study under construction, fundamentally this set of papers can be divided in two clusters, based on their main objectives:

- The conceptual definition of the phenomenon under study, attempting to contribute to the creation of a common understanding, terminology, scope and boundaries.
- The provision of a specific insight on the situation of this topic in certain countries, particular experiences or particular types of tourists from a marketing angle.

Generation Z

In this subsection we present some selected profiles of this generation by virtue of their connection to our field of study and, therefore, able to help in the interpretation of our results. For this reason, our search has been narrowed to its specific features in the geographical area of our research and to those attributes with a potential to shed some light on the understanding of the travel-and-tourism phenomenon by this new generation in a Muslim-majority country such as UAE.

Born after the mid-1990s, it can be considered the first truly-digital native generation and the first real generation of global citizens with global aspirations, in which online connectivity has permeated their lives and transformed how they interact. More specifically related to our research, we are facing a new cohort of Muslims described as “vigorous and adventurous”, with a more accentuated entrepreneurial spirit and boundless curiosity.

As the first generation born into a fully technological environment, that has never known life without easy Internet access and mobile technology, they are more prepared for searching information and figuring things out on their own; this has made them “more self-aware, self-reliant and driven”.

Being born from Generation X parents (people born between 1960s-1970s), Generation Z is mostly influenced by Generation Y or Millennials (people born between 1980s to mid-1990s). Thus, similar to Generation Y, Generation Z is also familiar with advanced technology, “but they have higher awareness concerning privacy”, guided by their critical thinking about politics and humanity: “They want the things they do to have impacts on the world”. This leads to the need to provide a sense of purpose for them: “This generation wants to understand why an organisation does what it does and how their role contributes to its success. They want a clear purpose”. In other words, they can be characterized as cause-and-value driven people, although realistic at the same time, yet they have grown up in a time of severe economic and geopolitical turmoil.

In the Global Muslim Travel Index 2017, “two key megatrends were identified as driving Muslim-friendly travel: the millennial and Generation Z demographic, and technology that will increase access to travel information”. Based on this report, this (post-Millennials) group is extremely connected with each other and the environment around them. As the Internet and social environments play key roles in their everyday lives, “the Muslim travel industry must evolve their offerings to ensure that their brands are reintroduced to these new segments and that their Muslim-friendly services are Authentic, Affordable and Accessible to these young segments” (p. 7).

Research by HalalTrip, an online travel platform, suggests that Gen Z (together with Gen Y) represents an important youth travel segment in the Muslim Travel Market. The global Muslim population is

projected to rapidly grow largely because of its standing as the youngest population of all major religious groups, with an average age of 23.7 years younger than the global average (Lipka, 2016). As it is, global youth travel constitutes 25% of the annual travel visitor arrivals with the figure amounting to 1.1 billion (UNWTO & WYSE Travel Confederation, 2016).

With regard to UAE particularly, its society has changed rapidly during the last 30 years and the development of 'Sharia-compliant' hotels has been amazing in that country (Eid & El-Gohary, 2015). As 2016 Social Media Survey mentions, the usage of media is really high among 18 to 21-years-old people in UAE. Facebook and WhatsApp have the highest usage followed by YouTube. Snapchat and LinkedIn are not so popular so far (The National, 2017). UAE is a multi-cultural environment and although Emirati generation Z is experiencing a plethora of influences, they are still following their traditions and they frequent hotels or restaurants who are related to Halal principles of not serving neither alcohol nor pork, together with the availability of different areas, such as pools, for males and females.

Empirical Work: Methodology

Population and sample

Our target population was formed by the undergraduate students on Business and Communication and Media Sciences enrolled in Zayed University Abu Dhabi campus (UAE) during the 2017-2018 academic year. Zayed University offers courses, mainly for Emirati students, in two campuses, located in Abu Dhabi and Dubai. Abu Dhabi campus offers undergraduate courses where classes are separated by gender. In this regard, two relevant annotations should be taken into account:

- UAE is a Muslim-majority country, with a population that exceeds 9 million inhabitants, where 76% is estimated as Muslims.
- Zayed University is a bilingual English/Arabic-speaking higher education institution in UAE, which has facilitated the primary data collection in both languages.

488 questionnaires (practically the whole target population) were collected between January and March 2018, from which 135 declared a level of familiarity with Halal tourism of at least 5 (out of 7). This set was taken as our sample (28.3% of total). This lack of familiarity, stated by most of these youngsters in UAE, cannot be considered as exceptional. For instance, in Malaysia, a country with cultural similarities, a broad lack of awareness was also found among members of generation Z towards Halal food, and the whole Halal concept (Selvarajah et al., 2017). In general, Halal tourism is a term more spread in Western countries, which is another contextual factor to be considered when trying to understand this fact.

It has to be noted that the cohort of age of the elements in our population and sample mostly belongs to the post-millennials generation, also known as generation Z.

Instrument of measurement

The questionnaire was structured in six sections:

1. The first investigates the level of familiarity with the concept of Halal tourism. This is important because only the answers coming from informants who have been rated by themselves with a level of at least 5 (out of 7) have been considered.
2. The second informs on whether some specific training (course, seminar, workshop or similar) has been attended by the respondents.
3. The third asks for a personal definition of Halal tourism.
4. The fourth ascertains the informant's opinions on whether UAE should bet decisively to position itself as a Halal tourism destination.
5. Section 5 is the most complex, with eighteen items. Their corresponding theoretical foundations are summarized in table 1.

Table 1. Theoretical foundations of items in the questionnaire.

5.01.-Spiritual dimension.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2010); Carboni & Janati (2016); El-Gohary (2016); Jafari & Scott (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); Samori <i>et al.</i> (2016); Zamani-Farahani and Henderson (2010).
5.02.-Ecological dimension.	Jafari & Scott (2014); Stephenson (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016).
5.03.-Health dimension.	Henderson (2010); Jafari & Scott (2014); Stephenson (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.04.-Size and growth.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2011); Carboni & Janati (2016); El-Gohary (2016); Hamza <i>et al.</i> (2012); Henderson (2010); Jafari & Scott (2014); Mohsin <i>et al.</i> (2016); Samori <i>et al.</i> (2016); Stephenson (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); WTM (2007); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.05.-Level of expenditure.	Battour & Ismail (2016); El-Gohary (2016); Stephenson (2014); WTM (2007).
5.06.-Religious and cultural similarities.	Henderson (2010); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); Sandikci (2011); Stephenson (2014); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.07.-Diversity of origins and needs.	Henderson (2010); Jafari & Scott (2014); Mukhtar & Butt (2012); Sandikci (2011); Stephenson (2014); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010); Zamani-Farahani & Musa (2012).
5.08.-Adaptations of the offer and certifications.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2010); Battour & Ismail (2016); El-Gohary (2016); Henderson (2010); Henderson (2016); Moshin <i>et al.</i> (2016); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016).
5.09.-Level of knowledge.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2011); Battour & Ismail (2016); El-Gohary (2016); Henderson (2010); Henderson (2016); Jafari & Scott (2014); Razzaq <i>et al.</i> (2016); Stephenson (2014).
5.10.-Suitability of the experience for any type of public.	Jafari & Scott (2014); Stephenson (2014),
5.11.-Muslims as target population.	Henderson (2010); Scott & Jafari (2010).
5.12.-Religious motivations.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2011); El-Gohary (2016); Jafari & Scott (2014).
5.13.-Particular food and catering services.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2011); Battour & Ismail (2016); Carboni & Janati (2016); El-

	Gohary (2016); Henderson (2010); Razzaq <i>et al.</i> (2016); Stephenson (2014).
5.14.-Welcoming character of the resident population.	Carboni <i>et al.</i> (2014); Jafari & Scott (2014); Shakona <i>et al.</i> (2015); Stephenson (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016).
5.15.-Seasonality mitigation.	Stephenson (2014); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.16.-Impact of the global geopolitical situation.	Battour & Ismail (2016); Jafari & Scott (2014); Stephenson (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.17.-Capacity of integration in the host community.	Carboni <i>et al.</i> (2014); Carboni & Janati (2016); Hamza <i>et al.</i> (2012); Jafari & Scott (2014); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016); Zamani-Farahani & Henderson (2010).
5.18.-Potential for promoting mutual understanding.	Battour <i>et al.</i> (2010); Carboni & Janati (2016); Stephenson (2014); Moshin <i>et al.</i> (2016); Oktadiana <i>et al.</i> (2016).

Source: own elaboration.

The three first items reflect Halal tourism as a three-dimensional construct, formed of spiritual, ecological and healthy dimensions, respectively. The remaining fifteen are intended to sketch its profile, with a number of factors that can be organized in three theoretical blocks:

- Factors of economic character, influencing its level of attractiveness directly: size and growth; level of expenditure; adaptations of the offer and certifications; level of knowledge; seasonality mitigation; impact of the global geopolitical situation.
- Factors of social character derived from its religious background: religious and cultural peculiarities; diversity of origins and needs; Muslims as target population; religious motivations; food and catering services.
- Factors of social character that can promote cultural integration to some extent: suitability of the experience for any type of public; welcoming character of the resident population; capacity of integration in the host community; potential for promoting mutual understanding.

6. The last section describes the socio-demographic profile of the sample, with three items (gender, age and nationality), which can also be useful (particularly gender and nationality, due to the homogeneity in age) to identifying potential significant statistical differences in the responses collected.

Techniques applied

Univariate, bivariate and multivariate techniques were applied for data processing, as detailed in the next section. SPSS 20.0 was used, as well as WarpPLS.

Results

Univariate analysis: descriptive statistics

They have been calculated on the abovementioned 135 observations.

- Gender: 74.8% female; 25.2% male.
- Nationality: 89.6% Emiratis; 9.6% foreigners (mainly Yemenis, Filipinos and Jordanian); 0.8% unknown.

- Age (years): mode 23; median 25; mean 26.2, standard deviation 5.5 (slightly above the usual age span of generation Z).
- Specific training on Halal tourism: 20.0%.
- UAE as a Halal tourism destination: 26.7% no; 53.3% maybe/not sure; 20.0% yes.

Two of these sample characteristics deserve a particular mention, since they act as limitations of this study: there is an overrepresentation of females and Emiratis with respect to real gender and ethnicity distribution in this country, which is explained by the students' profile of the higher education institution involved in this study.

Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the items included in section 5 of the questionnaire.
Table 2. Descriptive statistics.

Item (in a 7-points Likert scale)	Median	Mode	Mean (St. Dev.)
5.01.-Spiritual dimension.	5	7	5,06 (1,761)
5.02.-Ecological dimension.	5	5	4,76 (2,001)
5.03.-Healthy dimension.	6	7	5,00 (2,011)
5.04.-Size and growth.	6	6	4,83 (2,156)
5.05.-Level of expenditure.	5	6	4,61 (2,158)
5.06.-Religious and cultural similarities.	6	6	4,91 (2,075)
5.07.-Diversity of origins and needs.	5	6	4,32 (2,174)
5.08.-Adaptations of the offer and certifications.	5	6	4,26 (2,272)
5.09.-Level of knowledge.	5	6	4,42 (2,267)
5.10.-Suitability of the experience for any type of public.	5	6	4,52 (2,330)
5.11.-Muslims as target population.	5	6	4,60 (2,270)
5.12.-Religious motivations.	5	5	4,76 (2,204)
5.13.-Particular food and catering services.	6	7	5,08 (2,015)
5.14.-Welcoming character of the resident population.	6	6	4,97 (2,147)
5.15.-Seasonality mitigation.	5	5	4,46 (2,212)
5.16.-Impact of the global geopolitical situation.	5	6	4,17 (2,377)
5.17.-Capacity of integration in the host community.	5	6	4,13 (2,212)

5.18.-Potential for promoting mutual understanding.	6	6	5,12 (2,091)
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Source: own elaboration.

Bivariate analysis: statistically significant differences

About the specific training on Halal tourism, its lack is significantly more acute in the group of female students, according to the corresponding contingency table and Chi-square test. Concerning the question on whether UAE should bet decisively to position itself as a Halal tourism destination, the responses are not significantly influenced by informant's gender and nationality. Additionally, the Mann-Whitney U test was administered to the 18 items in section 5, in relation to the socio-demographic variables nationality (Emiratis and others) and gender, but no statistically significant differences were found at a level of 0.05. Nonetheless, with regard to the variable related to training, responses to variable 5.03 show a different behavior: those who have received a specific training on Halal tourism are less inclined to emphasize its healthy dimension, which seems paradoxical.

Multivariate analysis: factor and cluster analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was carried out on the data matrix composed of the 15 items in section 5 to draw the profile of this market segment (5.04 to 5.18), once checked its suitability with tests such as correlation matrix determinant, Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KMO (Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin) index. Their outputs follow:

- Correlation matrix determinant = 0.008.
- Bartlett's test of sphericity Sig = 0.000 Approx.
- KMO index = 0.804.

As a data reduction technique, a Principal Component Analysis was performed, using the Kaiser method for component extraction and Varimax method for their rotation. The rotated components matrix obtained as a result (with a proportion of variance explained of 59.5%) is displayed in table 3.

Table 3. Rotated components matrix.

Item	Components			
	F1	F2	F3	F4
5.04.-Size and growth.	0,701	0,124	0,267	-0,115
5.05.-Level of expenditure.	0,737	0,040	0,156	-0,013
5.06.-Religious and cultural similarities.	0,125	0,032	0,150	0,801
5.07.-Diversity of origins and needs.	0,294	0,156	0,647	-0,429
5.08.-Adaptations of the offer and certifications.	0,247	0,468	0,302	-0,219
5.09.-Level of knowledge.	0,085	0,689	0,259	0,152
5.10.-Suitability of the experience for any type of public.	0,739	0,010	0,110	0,346
5.11.-Muslims as target population.	0,088	0,101	0,757	0,213
5.12.-Religious motivations.	0,102	0,269	0,544	0,381
5.13.-Particular food and catering services.	0,165	0,205	0,742	0,043
5.14.-Welcoming character of the resident population.	0,542	0,258	0,239	0,054
5.15.-Seasonality mitigation.	0,586	0,492	-0,153	-0,094
5.16.-Impact of the global geopolitical situation.	0,185	0,798	0,051	0,059
5.17.-Capacity of integration in the host community.	0,083	0,683	0,368	-0,061
5.18.-Potential for promoting mutual understanding.	0,600	0,448	-0,025	0,163

Source: own elaboration.

According to this output, the collective mental scheme about Halal tourism for this batch of higher education students can be built around four factors, which have been termed as follow:

F1: Attractiveness (because of its size and growth expectations, level of expenditure, suitability for any type of public, acceptance by the resident population, effect on seasonality mitigation, and potential for promoting cultural understanding).

F2: Difficulties (because of the need of offering adaptations and certifications, low level of awareness, the impact of the global geopolitical situation, and possible integration problems in the host communities).

F3: Religious profile (tourism for Muslims, with diverse origins and needs, with religious motivations, and particular food requirements).

F4: Similarities (because of tourists' religion and culture).

This exploratory factor analysis was complemented by a confirmatory factor analysis, reaffirming our results. The latter was performed using WarpPLS 6.0.

The rationale has been associated with various clusters of informants. To do so, a hierarchical cluster analysis has been also completed, using the Ward method and the squared Euclidean distance. As a result, and based on the dendrogram, six clusters were identified, with their characteristics summarized in table 4.

Table 4. Cluster analysis

CL	% of cases	Profile	Fami- liarity (% yes)	Training (% yes)	UAE Halal (% yes)	Mal e (%)	Age (mean)	Emirati s (%)
1	12.6	The factors of attractiveness of Halal tourism are highly valued (F1), to the detriment of its religious profile (F3). This is the cluster with the lowest proportion of Emiratis.	6.2	5.9	29.4	23.5	25.0	76.5
2	20.0	It favours the religious profile of this market segment (F3), playing down its difficulties (F2).	5.8	22.2	11.1	14.8	25.9	92.3
3	15.6	Characterized by emphasizing its difficulties (F2) and understating its attractiveness (F1). Interesting to note that this is the group with the highest declared level of familiarity with Halal tourism, more in favour of promoting UAE as a Halal destination and with the highest percentage of males.	6.4	23.8	33.3	42.9	25.0	90.5
4	34.1	It shows a balanced appreciation of the four factors, with the highest score in F2 (difficulties).	5.7	17.4	23.9	21.7	26.2	91.3
5	12.6	The factors of attractiveness of Halal tourism are highly valued (F1), to the detriment of its similarities (F4). Relevant to observe that this is the cluster with the highest percentage of	5.9	41.2	5.9	41.2	26.5	94.1

		informants who have received specific training.						
6	5.2	It displays a low level of inclination towards the four factors. The peculiarities of this cluster have to be noted: the highest average age, all of them Emiratis females, with no specific training in this area, and none of its members supporting the idea of positioning UAE as a Halal destination.	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.6	100

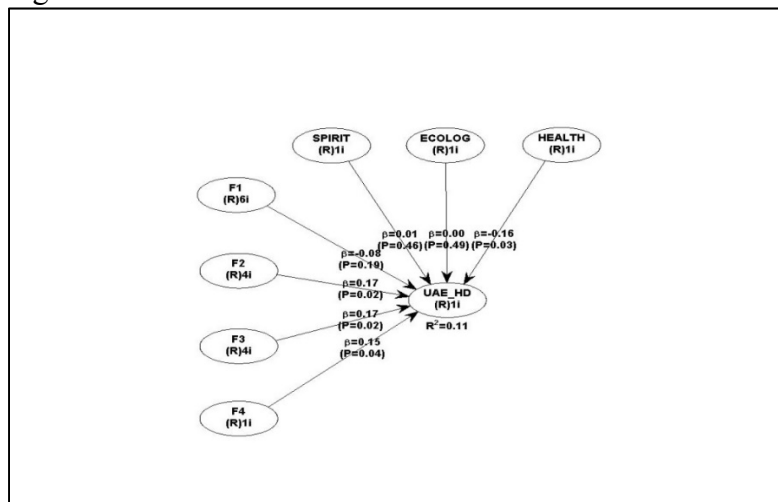
Source: own elaboration.

As a final methodological step, a discriminant analysis was executed in order to confirm this clustering, resulting that 93.3% of the original clustered cases were correctly classified.

Structural Equation Models (SEM) models

The insight into how informants' opinion on whether UAE should bet decisively to position itself as a Halal tourism destination has been formed is, undoubtedly, relevant. With this aim, a model has been tested, taking this variable (UAE_HD) as the dependent one and using PLS technique (WarpPLS 6.0). The model integrates, as explanatory variables, the four abovementioned factors, under which attributes describing the profile of Halal tourism have been grouped, and the three identified theoretical dimensions (spiritual, ecological and healthy) of Halal tourism. The result is displayed in figure 1.

Figure 1. SEM Model.



Source: own elaboration.

With regard to constructs' reliability and validity (all of them reflective), their Composite Reliabilities (CR), Cronbach's alpha (CA) and Average Variances Extracted (AVE) are next.

CR: F1, 0.855; F2, 0.833; F3, 0.826.

CA: F1, 0.796; F2, 0.732; F3, 0.718.

With these results, we can conclude that the condition of reliability is fulfilled.

AVE: F1, 0.495; F2, 0.556; F3, 0.544.

Concerning convergent validity, the AVE of F1 is slightly below the threshold of 0.5, but very close to it. With reference to discriminant validity, all the correlations among latent variables are lower than the corresponding square root of AVE.

The model fit and quality indices have reached the following values, which can be considered acceptable according to the thresholds established by Kock (2017): Average path coefficient (APC) = 0.105, P = 0.050; Average R-squared (ARS) = 0.115, P = 0.043; Average block VIF (AVIF) = 1.671; Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF) = 1.338; Tenenhaus GoF (GoF) = 0.308; R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) = 0.910; Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) = 0.857.

Once checked the appropriateness of the model, its results show that the influence of the factor of attractiveness (F1) on the dependent variable is not significant; as neither is the impact of spiritual and ecological dimensions of Halal tourism. Nevertheless, F2 (difficulties) and F3 (religious profile) have the same positive influence, and also F4 (cultural similarities, including religion), although slightly lower. Finally, the healthy dimension has a significant impact, but of negative sign. Therefore, the higher the level of awareness of the potential difficulties of this type of tourism, its religious profile and cultural similarities, the more favorable is the opinion to position UAE as a Halal destination. By the contrary, the identification of Halal as a healthy lifestyle has an unfavorable impact on that tourism positioning.

Conclusion, Recommendations, Limitations and Future Research

As stated, our first aim was of theoretical nature. Thus, the review of the related literature reflects that the study of Halal tourism is quite recent, with Battour, Ismail and Battor being those 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 Islamic law (El-Gohary, 2016). In the literature, concepts such as Halal, Muslim or Islamic tourism are characterized by a certain degree of ambiguity, although El-Gohary (2016, p. 127, p. 130) defends that “it is preferable to use the term “Halal tourism” as the main and only term to brand and describe tourism products and/or activities that fully comply with the rules and guidance of the Halal concept and Islamic Shariah”. In this sense, Halal tourism can be understood as offering services designed to meet the needs of Muslim tourists, who want to travel and visit other places but respecting their basic religious obligations and practices. In this respect, it is imperative for tourism destinations to offer Halal, or at least Muslim friendly services, to attract this segment. However, it is relevant to observe that there are no formal and unique criteria for the tourism sector. The diversity of interpretations of Islamic practices has led to different levels of demand in the world, which brings as a consequence the existence of several Halal certification organizations, which are important for providing confidence and attracting this market niche.

Moving to our empirical research and second aim, among the three referred dimensions of Halal tourism, the spiritual and healthy ones are those recognized with higher intensity, with its ecological vector lying behind. Therefore, if the Halal concept in this field is broadly perceived as linked to the search of the inner well-being of the tourist attached to a healthy lifestyle when touring, but its connection to ecological awareness and conservation of the natural environment is less recognized, the promotion of this last dimension rises as a recommendation to convey to our target population a more comprehensive image of what this type of tourism is intended to be.

Going deeper into the perceived profile, it is interesting to note the most highly valued attributes by our informants, which are, firstly, the potential of Halal tourism for promoting mutual understanding and integration of different groups and cultures (in line with the last-two ranked attributes, those relative to the difficulties for its integration in the host communities and its limitations as a result of the global geopolitical situation) and, secondly, its particular character in terms of food and catering services

requirements. The necessity of certifications and adaptations of the offer, together with the management of difficulties due to the diversity of tourists' origins and needs, are also attributes relatively low valued. All the remaining items are quite balanced in the characterization of Halal tourism. In sum, this overall perspective is not surprising in a country where locals (Emiratis) are a minority and, therefore, the population is used to the influences of other cultures and their coexistence; besides, as a Muslim-majority country, they don't appreciate special difficulties related to the integration of Halal tourists.

The fifteen attributes used for describing the profile of Halal tourism have been grouped in four underlying factors, emphasizing, respectively, the attractiveness of this market segment (F1), the difficulties to manage it (F2), its religious profile (F3) and its similarities (F4). It is noteworthy that the largest cluster (with the 34.1% of the observations) shows a balanced appreciation of these four factors; however, the second largest (20.0%) favors the religious profile of this market segment, at the same time that plays down its difficulties.

To contextualize these findings, it is relevant to observe that, even in a Muslim-majority country, only a minority (28.3%) of the participating university students (the vast majority of them Emiratis) has declared enough familiarity (at least 5 in a scale of 7 points) with the concept of Halal tourism, which is consistent with the also low percentage who affirm to have received specific training on this topic (20.0%). As a final note, the collective opinion about the potential bet of UAE as a Halal tourism destination is unclear: only 20.0% has answered positively, and a similar proportion (26.7%) negatively; the majority (53.3%) is, therefore, in an undefined position to this respect. Perhaps, this ambiguity can be explained by a lack of knowledge about the official policy of the Emirati government in this field.

To understand their opinion about if UAE should bet decisively to position itself as a Halal tourism destination, an explanatory model has been tested, in which the three dimensions and the four factors abovementioned play the role of independent variables. As a result, the healthy dimension of Halal tourism is the only one with a significant influence, but, surprisingly, negative (the less intense the perception of this dimension, the more favorable the position on Halal tourism in UAE). Concerning the factors, only F1 is discarded (there is no significant influence exerted by the attributes of attractiveness), being the other three significant with quite similar (and positive) loadings. Therefore, the higher the level of perception of the difficulties to manage this market segment (F2), its religious profile (F3) and its similarities (F4), the more favorable the opinion to position UAE as a Halal tourism destination. Clearly, further research is needed, particularly to understand why the factor of attractiveness has no significant impact in this decision and why the impact of the healthy dimension is against what theoretically was expected.

Three main limitations of this research have to be recognized: the first and most important one is the sample size and composition. The second, particularly related to the factor analysis, is the proportion of variance explained which is relatively low for this kind of technique. And the third the low explanatory power of the proposed SEM model (R² only reaches the level of 0.11). Nevertheless, the exploratory nature of this study allows us to present it as a first step forward in this direction, leading to further research avenues in line with overcoming these shortcomings and with the enlargement of its geographical scope. It is our conviction that this last proposal will open a fruitful field of comparative studies and the discovery of diverse cultural approaches to Halal tourism worldwide within this cohort of new travelers.

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VISITING FRIENDS AND RELATIVES' TOURISM: THE CASE OF URUGUAY

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Abstract

We estimate the Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourism demand in Uruguay, and compare it with Argentinian tourist demand, applying Johansen methodology. We found at least one Vector error-correction model (VEC) equation for each model considered. In the first two models, the elasticities were smaller for VFR tourists compared with Argentinian tourists. But in the case of tourists' expenditure, the result was the opposite. Impulse response functions show a greater reaction of Argentinian tourists to changes in relative prices, but similar in the case of an income shock. Finally, forecasts show a good adjust of the forecast to actual data.

Keywords: VFR tourism, real exchange rate, Uruguay, cointegration.

JEL: Z32, C22, F41

Introduction

Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) tourism or "Nostalgic tourism" is defined as the periodic return of migrants to their community of origin, to take part in family, cultural and social activities that take place during the year, particularly during festivities and important dates. Another definition, according to Backer, (2009) VFR tourism is "a way of travel that implies a visit that, for the purpose of the trip, the type of accommodation, one or both, visits friends and family".

The denomination "Tourism of roots" is based on the sentimental bonds of the migrants with the places of origin, for feeding the idea of return to the native country, although it is during the vacations or in certain dates. This behavior of migrants generates greater displacement of people in national and international travel, stimulated by improvements in communications and transportation routes.

Tourism activity has acquired great importance as an engine of international development, due to its impact on the promotion of employment and the generation of foreign exchange receipts. Due to the spillovers of these activities to other sectors of the economy, tourism is qualified as a growth driver.

According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2018) with information about the growth of tourist arrivals in 2016, while in the world the increase was 3.9% and in South America 7%, in Uruguay the increase was of 12.3%.

Tourism in Uruguay is a very important economic activity in terms of foreign exchange receipts, added value and employment. According to estimations of the Ministry of Tourism of Uruguay (2017), through the Tourism Satellite Account, since 2005 the sector's contribution to Uruguay's GDP has been between 5% and 8%, reaching 7.3% in 2016. In terms of foreign currency earnings, tourism represented 20% of total exports in 2016 (Central Bank of Uruguay, 2018). Its contribution to employment was significant, implying 6.3% of the job positions in the country, according to the Continuous Household Survey of the Statistical National Institute of Uruguay (INE, 2018).

Beyond the relevance of tourism in Uruguay, it is important to know about the migration phenomenon of the country, in order to identify the potential segment for the inbound tourism. According to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Uruguay, in 2016 Uruguayans living abroad were 529,620 people, 15% of the country's population, 40% living in Argentina, 15% in Spain, 13% in the United States and 10% in Brazil. Adding the children of migrants born abroad, total Uruguayans living abroad is estimated in about one million, approximately one third of Uruguayan population. Several studies point Uruguay as one of the South American countries with the highest proportion of the population living abroad. So, the potential market for VFR tourism in Uruguay is really important.

According to Dwyer et al. (2014), "Nostalgic tourism" is defined as the periodic return of migrants to their community of origin, to take part in family, cultural and social activities that take place during the year, particularly during festivities and important dates. This kind of visitors generally travels with other people and usually stays at relatives or friends' homes.

VFR tourism arises recently as a topic of study; UNWTO statistics started to take them into account in the late 90's, quantifying them together with travel for health reasons and religion, implying about 20% of total tourism, a figure that increases to 27% in 2014, between holidays and leisure trips (52%) and professional and business trips (14%). Despite being identified as of increasing importance, not all countries have enough statistics for VFR. In the case of Uruguay, although the data is available, as has been indicated above, there is not enough analysis on this subject, what is the main motivation of this study.

In some countries VFR tourism expenditures competes with remittances from relatives, because the month of traveling they substitute the remittance for the tourism expenditure. But in the case of Uruguay, remittances from relatives is not relevant at all.

Uruguayan and Argentinians in Uruguayan inbound tourism

In the last twenty years Uruguay has experienced significant changes in the number of visitors arriving to the country, with a growing trend from 1985 to 1997. Then, following the regional economic crisis, began a decrease in the number of visitors, with its lowest point in 2002. From that moment, the number of visitors' recovery began. In addition to the Argentinians, tourists from other origins also increased, reaching a total of 3.9 million visitors in 2017 (Figure 1).

From 1996 to 2017, the arrival of Uruguayan residents abroad (VFR tourists) was in average 14.5% of total visitors to Uruguay, and in 2016 about 64% were living in Argentina (Ministry of tourism data).

In 2016 the destination mainly visited by the VFR tourists was Montevideo, while the others (Argentinians and other tourists) mainly visited Punta del Este. As expected, 72% of Uruguayans living abroad have as main reason for their trip to visit family and friends, staying 92% in their homes. In contrast, non-Uruguayan tourists travel by leisure and holidays and stay at hotels or rented houses.

In terms of the composition of the expenditure, VFR tourists spend much less on accommodation than non-Uruguayans, but more on food and shopping, compared with the rest of the tourists. Both groups have a similar expenditure in transportation, culture and tours.

Background and analysis framework

The economic approach of the tourist activity can already be found in 1983 in the work of Wanhill, S. (1983); more recently, Dwyer et al. (2004), Vanhove (2011), Hara (2008) can be mentioned, among others.

As pointed by Backer and Yousuf (2015), visiting friends and relatives is an important way of tourism worldwide. But they found that academic research of this type of tourism started recently, with the first works in 1990. Analyzing the published works in tourism papers from 1990 to 2010 they found only 39, and the appearance of this subject in text books has been in recent years.

Moscardo et al. (2000) developed a typology for studying VFR tourism, and related it to commercial tourism. They try to find marketing implications of VFR tourism, as they studied their main characteristics and differences from tourism in general.

Although tourism is an important economic activity in Uruguay, there is not much research in this field. There are works such as Brida et al. (2008) Alonsopérez et al. (2010); or Altmark et al. (2013).

However, the first work on VFR tourism is more recent, (Altmark and Larruina, 2016), where they analyze similarities and differences of VFR tourists with the rest of the visitors.

VFR tourism as a segment of inbound tourism, has a potential growth in the future, so the present work tries to analyze the demand determinants of VFR tourism and compare it with tourism coming from Argentina, the main origin of inbound tourism in Uruguay.

López Gallero (2006) states that besides the affective motivation of the “emigrant-tourists”, they do not frequent hotels, but they consume other tourism services and also souvenirs.

Reyes Morales et al. (2006) studied the nostalgic tourism in Zapoteca, Mexico, regarding the direct and indirect economic impact of nostalgic tourism.

Sosa et al. (2015), studied the social impact of the VFR tourism to Cancun, analyzing from the perspective of the local population, in order to define its importance. The work indicates the lack of attention of policies to VFR tourism and the positive perception of the local population regarding the visits of their relatives and friends.

López Salinas et al. (2016) found that Mexican migrants in their regular visits to their home as nostalgic tourists in southern Mexico, create a cash injection that invigorates the economy of their communities of origin.

Argentiniens are the main source of tourists visiting Uruguay, and Uruguayans living abroad (tourists visiting friends and relatives, VFR) were previously the second most numerous, although they are currently surpassed by Brazilian tourists.

VFR tourists visiting Uruguay mainly live in Argentina, so our interest in this paper is to compare their behaviour with Argentinian tourists, and analyze similarities and differences between them.

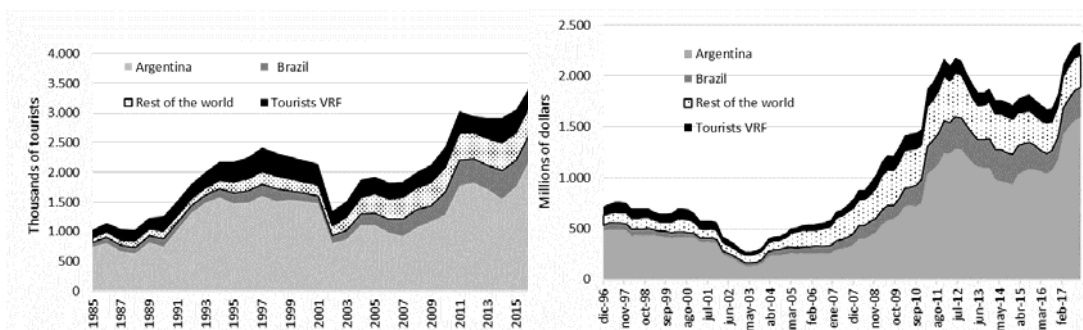
Tourism demand has been widely studied, as we can see in meta-analyses such as Crouch (1995) or more recently Peng et al. (2015), while many different variables can enter a demand function for tourism, prices and income are always important. These variables are also found in works such as Altmark et al. (2013) for Uruguay, Brida et al. (2008) for Mexico or Dritsakis (2004) for Greece.

Data and Methodology

Data

Figures 1 and 2

Uruguayan Tourism Demand by Nationality and Tourism Revenues by Country



Source:
Ministry of
tourism of
Uruguay

Argentines are the main source of tourists visiting Uruguay, and Uruguayans living abroad (tourists visiting friends and relatives– VFR) were previously the second most numerous, although they are currently surpassed by Brazilian tourists (Figure 1).

It is also important to consider the revenues from tourism, where also Argentina is the most important. In this case, the expenditure of VFR tourists represents a smaller proportion of total, than when we consider number of tourists (Figure 2). In 2016 Argentinian tourists represented 64.4% and VFR represented 9.1% of total tourists. But considering revenues, Argentines represented 64.3% and VFR tourists 6.9% of total tourists' expenditures.

It is important to notice that VFR tourists mainly live in Argentina (63.7% in 2016), so our interest in this paper is to compare the two types of tourist behaviour and analyze similarities and differences between them.

Following the literature, we consider two approaches to estimate tourist demand from Uruguayans living abroad. First, we considered two models, one taking into account the number of Uruguayans living abroad visiting Uruguay each month (TOUR_VRF), relative prices through the bilateral real exchange rate with Argentina (RER_ARG) as most often that is the country they live in, the monthly economic activity index of Argentina as an income proxy (Y_ARG) and as a monthly proxy of Uruguayan income the Uruguayan industrial production index (Y_URU). We also considered the global real exchange rate (RER) to include Uruguay's competitiveness with its major trading partners. The second model was built considering Argentinian tourists visiting Uruguay, where we use the number of Argentinians visiting Uruguay per month (TOUR_ARG), the bilateral RER as in the first model and the same proxy for Argentinians' income. We then compare the results of the two models. The period considered was from January 2002 to June 2017.

Secondly, we analyzed the foreign exchange revenues from tourism. As these data are only available on a quarterly basis, we tested two models, one that considers the expenditure of Uruguayans living abroad and visiting Uruguay (VFR), in addition to quarterly GDP for Uruguay (GDP_U) and Argentina (GDP_A) as well as the quarterly bilateral RER with Argentina (RER_AR). In the second model, we considered Argentinian tourists' expenditure in Uruguay (SP_AR) Argentine's GDP (GDP_A) and the bilateral real exchange rate (RER_AR).

To analyze the series, we must study their stationarity through unit root tests; in this case we performed the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF). We show the results in Table 1. All the variables are considered in logarithmic form, so all the variable names are preceded by an L. In this case we considered the period from the first quarter of 1996 up to the second quarter of 2017.

Table 1
Unit Root Tests

Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF)				
H ₀ = there is a unit root				
	t-statistic (series in levels)	Reject H ₀ at 95% level	t-statistic (series in first differences)	Reject H ₀ at 95% level
LTOUR_VRF	0.505222	No	-5.919655	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 14 lags)		(no constant, 12 lags)	
LRER_ARG	-0.595350	No	-6.910374	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 7 lags)		(no constant, 6 lags)	
LRER	-1.822545	No	-9.906932	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 6 lags)		(no constant, 5 lags)	
LY_ARG	1.311981	No	-4.035917	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 15 lags)		(no constant, 14 lags)	
LY_URU	0.689742	No	-5.019900	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 12 lags)		(no constant, 11 lags)	
LTOUR_ARG	0.692576	No	-4.061406	Yes
(monthly data)	(no constant, 15 lags)		(no constant, 14 lags)	
LVRF	0.083287	No	-2.451351	Yes
(quarterly data)	(no constant, 12 lags)		(no constant, 7 lags)	
LGDP_U	1.099642	No	-2.446647	Yes
(quarterly data)	(no constant, 5 lags)		(no constant, 4 lags)	
LGDP_A	1.196657	No	-3.852482	Yes
(quarterly data)	(no constant, 5 lags)		(no constant, 4 lags)	
LRER_AR	-0.239750	No	-5.630691	Yes
(quarterly data)	(no constant, 4 lags)		(no constant, 3 lags)	
LSP_AR	0.818056	No	-2.593911	Yes
(quarterly data)	(no constant, 8 lags)		(no constant, 7 lags)	
Lags are calculated due to Akaike criteria				

Source: Author's calculations

All the variables, as they have a unit root, were I(1), non-stationary, so we will apply Johansen's (1988, 1992) methodology to test for the existence of long-term equilibrium relationships between the variables by analyzing the existence of Vector Error-Correction Models (VEC). This methodology also allows us to analyze the effects of a shock through the Impulse Response Function (IRF) and to forecast the variables of interest.

As VFR tourists (Uruguayans living abroad) visiting Uruguay mainly live in Argentina, we compare their behaviour with Argentinian tourists also visiting Uruguay. As monthly Argentinian tourists visiting Uruguay have a high seasonality, we include seasonal dummies.

In the models with quarterly data all the series were also considered in logarithmic form. The period considered in this case runs from 1996.Q1 to 2017.Q2 (the last one available when we started this study). The series seasonality was treated using seasonal dummies, as in the other case.

Methodology and Model

As explained earlier, in this study we use Johansen's (1988, 1992) methodology. This model allows us to simultaneously capture the short-run dynamic properties as well as the long-run equilibrium behavior of many non-stationary time series. We tried to find a long-run relationship representing the tourism demand of two kinds of tourists coming from Argentina: tourists VFR and Argentinian tourists, considering both the monthly number of tourists and the revenues generated from these two kinds of tourists visiting Uruguay. First, we estimated a model considering the number of tourists on a monthly basis from January 2002 to June 2017. Then, we considered the tourists' expenditure with quarterly data (the only data available) from 1996 up to June 2017.

Summary of estimated models:

	Name	Variables		Frequency
Model 1	Uruguayan VFR tourists	TOUR_VRF, RER_ARG	Y_URU,	Monthly
Model 2	Argentinians tourists	TOUR_ARG, RER_ARG	Y_ARG	Monthly
Model 3	VFR tourists' expenditure	VRF, GDP_A, GDP_U, RER		Quarterly
Model 4	Argentinian tourists' expenditure	SP_ARG, GDP_A, RER_A		Quarterly

Main results¹

Cointegration

To verify the existence of cointegration between the variables, we applied the Johansen test, analyzing the results of the Trace and the Eigenvalue of the matrix Π (Tables 2 to 5). The existence of a cointegration vector was not rejected, and the signs of the coefficients were as expected. Furthermore, we performed the exclusion tests for β coefficients and the weak exogeneity test for α coefficients. Some of the variables were not significant, so they were excluded from the model. In addition, the test on residuals found them to be well behaved. In all the models we added some dummy variables to correct for seasonality, outliers and special events in the different series.

Table 2

Cointegration Test for Model 1

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.190961	74.41436	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1*	0.162965	35.42337	29.79707	0.0101
At most 2	0.012724	2.691780	15.49471	0.9791
At most 3	0.001822	0.335493	3.841466	0.5624

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

¹ The econometric estimations were made using E-views 9. The details of the econometric estimations are available from the authors upon request.

* indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.190961	38.99099	27.58434	0.0011
At most 1*	0.162965	32.73159	21.13162	0.0008
At most 2	0.012724	2.356287	14.26460	0.9801
At most 3	0.001822	0.335493	3.841466	0.5624

Max-eigenvalue test specifies 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level -**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Source: Authors' calculations

The test shows that there are at most 2 long-run vectors between the variables, but we are interested in the first one, so the long-run cointegration vector estimated for Model 1 is:

$$LTOUR_{VRF} = 1.442 LY_URU_t + 1.340LRER_{ARG_t} + 2.391 \quad (1)$$

(6.229) (2.955)

As the variables are in log form for the estimation, the coefficients represent the elasticities. Below each coefficient we have the t value.

For Model 1 we obtained a long-run vector where the number of VFR tourists visiting Uruguay, Uruguay's income proxy and the bilateral RER between Uruguay and Argentina were all significant. The elasticities of both variables were significantly greater than 1. It is important to point out that Argentina's GDP was not significant in the model, even though the VFR tourists live mainly in Argentina. The significant variable was Uruguayan GDP, so they decide visiting Uruguay or not, taking into account their friends and relatives economic situation, not their own.

Table 3

Cointegration Test for Model 2

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.340037	86.36232	29.79707	0.0000
At most 1	0.040292	9.066084	15.49471	0.3593
At most 2	0.007587	1.416635	3.841466	0.2340

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.340037	77.29623	21.13162	0.0000
At most 1	0.040292	7.649449	14.26460	0.4155
At most 2	0.007587	1.416635	3.841466	0.2340

Max-eigenvalue test specifies 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
 *indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Source: Authors' calculations

The long-run cointegration vector estimated for Model 2 is:

$$LTOUR_{ARG_t} = 2.64LY_ARG_t + 2.039LRER_{ARG_t} - 10.216 \quad (2)$$

(16.258) (8.802)

For Model 2 we found a long-run vector where the number of Argentinian tourists visiting Uruguay, Argentina's income proxy and the bilateral RER between Uruguay and Argentina are all significant. In this case, the elasticities of both variables were greater than 2.

These results show a difference between the two kinds of tourists. For tourists VFR the elasticity shows that tourism is a "normal" consumption good and depends on the income of the visiting country, not the visitors'. On the contrary, for Argentinian tourists, tourism is a luxury consumption, as it is for many tourists visiting different countries, income elasticity greater than 2.

Table 4

Cointegration Test for Model 3

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.307328	61.99580	47.85613	0.0014
At most 1 *	0.236800	32.61994	29.79707	0.0230
At most 2	0.128474	11.00110	15.49471	0.2114
At most 3	3.73E-06	0.000298	3.841466	0.9883

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level -**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.307328	29.37586	27.58434	0.0291
At most 1 *	0.236800	21.61883	21.13162	0.0427
At most 2	0.128474	11.00081	14.26460	0.1542
At most 3	3.73E-06	0.000298	3.841466	0.9883

Max-eigenvalue test specifies 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

*indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Source: Authors' calculations

The long-run cointegration vector estimated for Model 3 is:

$$LVRF_t = 2.658LGDP_{A_t} - 2.4758 \quad (3)$$

(7.935)

The tourists VFR expenditure model shows different results compared with the model for the number of tourists. First, in Model 3 the relevant income is Argentinian GDP, where the tourists live and earn their living. Also, the elasticity is near 3, indicating a very different reaction of tourists in terms of their decision to travel to Uruguay or what they spend. The bilateral RER it is not relevant in this model. In this case, analyzing VFR tourists' expenditure, Uruguayan GDP does not enter the long-run model, but it enters the short-run adjustment.

Table 5
Cointegration Test for Model 4

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.246790	31.98574	29.79707	0.0275
At most 1	0.087959	8.179243	15.49471	0.4464
At most 2	0.005287	0.445292	3.841466	0.5046
Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level * indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				
Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)				
Hypothesized no. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen statistic	0.05 critical value	Prob.**
None *	0.246790	23.80649	21.13162	0.0205
At most 1	0.087959	7.733951	14.26460	0.4064
At most 2	0.005287	0.445292	3.841466	0.5046
Max-eigenvalue test specifies 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level *indicates rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level - **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				

Source: Authors' calculations

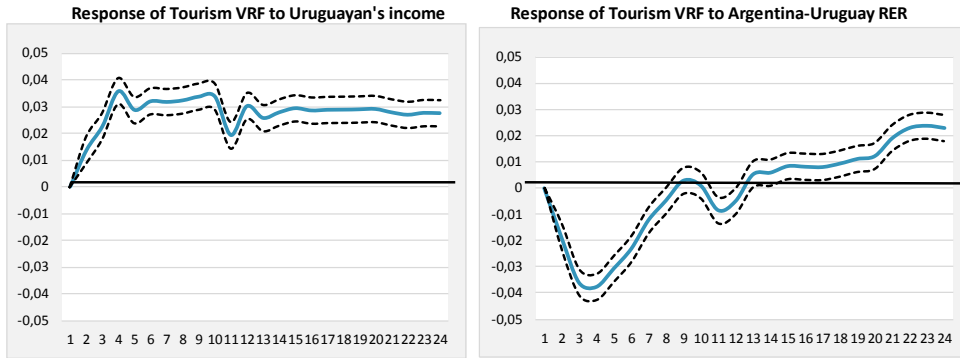
The long-run cointegration vector estimated for Model 4 is:

$$LSP_{ARG_t} = 5.283LGDPA_t + 1.386LRER_t - 26.266 \quad (4)$$

(12.312) (2.527)

Impulse response functions

Figure 3 – Tourism VFR Impulse Response Functions for Model 1

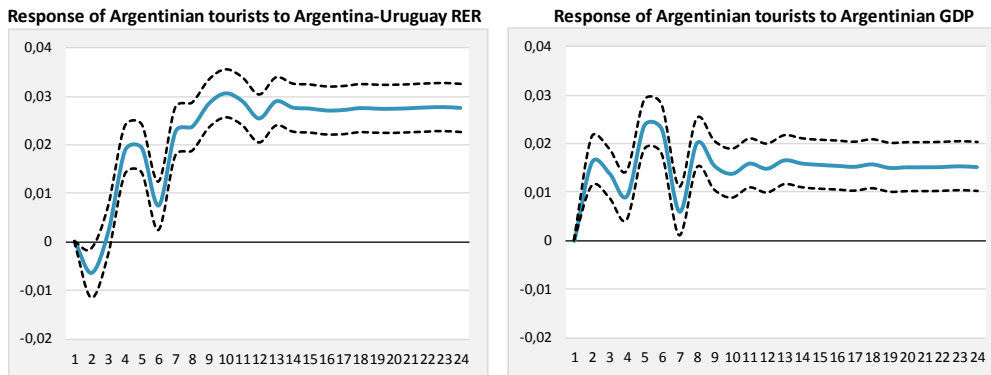


Response to Cholesky one SD innovations

Source: Authors' calculations

In Figure 3 we show impulse response functions (IRF) of Uruguayan GDP and RER on the number of VFR tourists. A positive shock of Uruguayan GDP has a positive impact on tourism VFR that stabilizes in 3%. A shock over RER between Uruguay and Argentina surprisingly shows a negative impact on tourism VFR in the first months, but over a year it turns in a positive impact near 2%.

Figure 4 – Argentinian Tourists Impulse Response Functions for Model 2



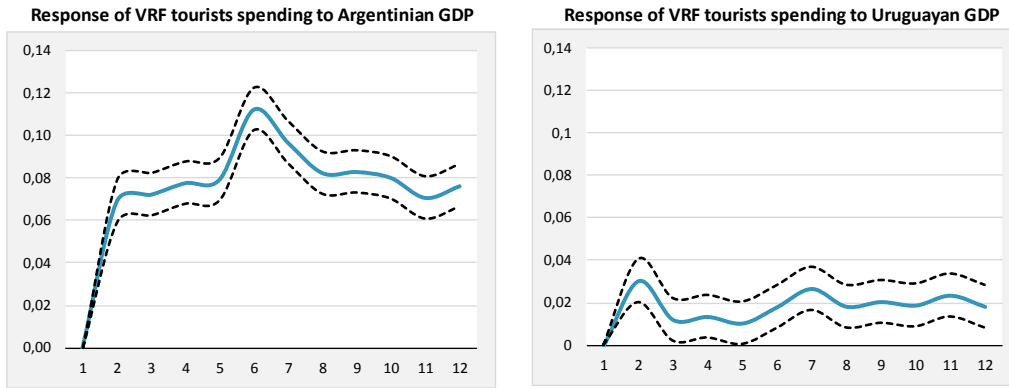
Response to Cholesky one SD innovations

Source: Authors' calculations

In Figure 4 the IRF shows positive responses of Argentinian tourists to both shocks. The RER shock has an impact of near 3% and the shock on Argentinian GDP resulted 1,5%.

These results show that VFR tourists and Argentinian tourists have differences in their behavior, despite the fact that both groups of tourists live mainly in Argentina. VFR tourists react basically to changes in Uruguayan GDP, derived from the well-being of their family and friends in Uruguay. On the other hand, Argentinian tourists react to changes in their income and, to a lesser extent, to the relative prices represented here by the RER.

Figure 5 – VFR Tourists' Expenditure Impulse Response Functions for Model 3

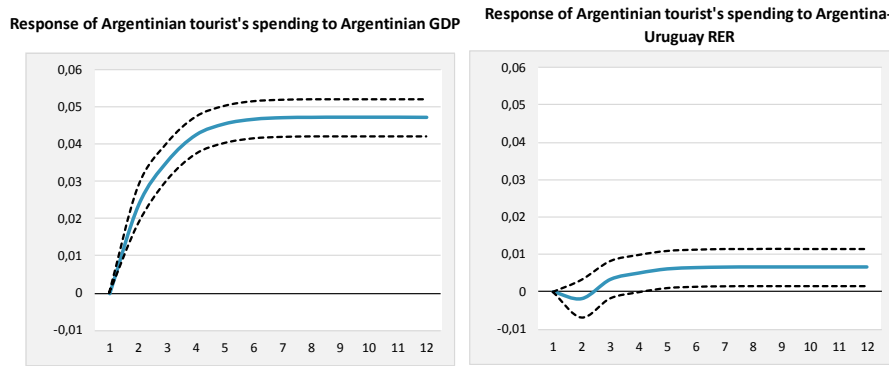


Response to Cholesky one SD innovations

Source: Authors' calculations

Considering tourists' expenditure, impulse response functions show that VFR tourists' expenditure reacts positively to Argentinian GDP shocks that stabilizes in around 8%. It also reacts to Uruguayan GDP after a positive shock, and the impact is less important, reaching 2%.

Figure 6 – Argentinian Tourists' Expenditure Impulse Response Functions for Model 4

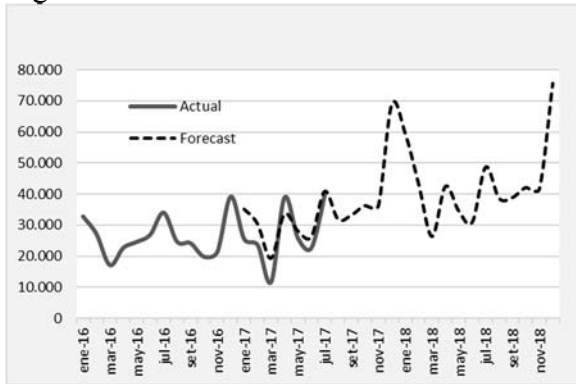


Response to Cholesky one SD innovations. Source: Authors' calculations

In the case of Argentinian tourists' expenditure, the reaction after a shock is similar but smaller than VFR tourists. Argentinians' expenditure increases 5% after a GDP shock, and VFR tourists' expenditure increases 14% after a similar shock. After a RER shock, Argentinians' expenditure increases less than 1%, and VFR tourists' expenditure about 6%.

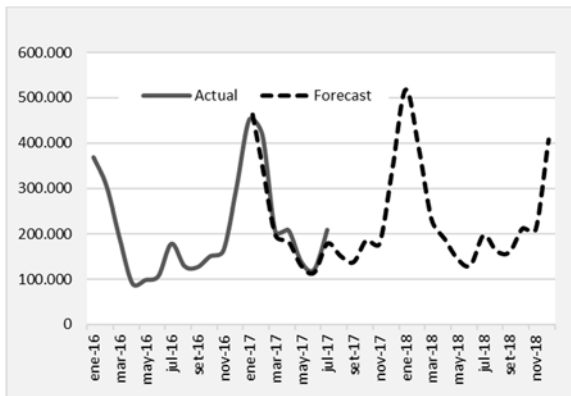
Forecasts

Figure 7 - VFR Tourists Forecast



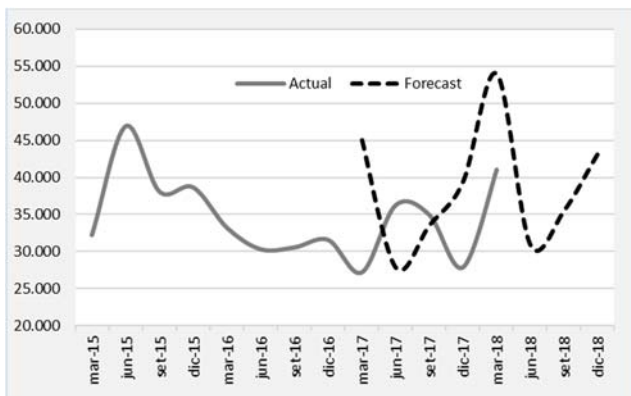
Source: Authors' calculations

Figure 8
Argentinian Tourists Forecast



Source: Authors' calculations

Figure 9
VFR Tourists' Expenditure Forecast

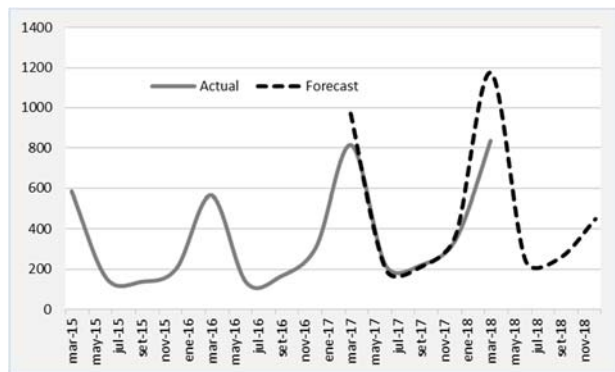


Source: Authors' calculations

Forecast for VFR tourists in 2017 (Figure 7) is very similar to actual data, and for 2018 it predicts a significant increase in these tourists (24%).

Forecasts for Argentinian tourists (Figure 8) show an increase of 11,5% for 2018, but the future data will depend of the new circumstances of the Argentinian economy and its impact on tourism to Uruguay. In Figure 9 there is the graph of actual and forecasted VFR tourists' expenditure. There is a significant difference between actual and forecasted data for 2017, that is mainly consequence of the seasonal change of real data, showing a great increase in the second and third quarter, that the model could not predict. In 2018 the expenditure growth appears with the right seasonality, but smaller than the forecast. There must have impacted other events, not considered in the model.

Figure 10
Argentinian Tourists' Expenditure Forecast



Source: Authors' calculations

The forecast for Argentinians expenditure (Figure 10) was greater than real data for the first quarter of 2018, because these data showed an unexpected low increase.

Final Remarks

Tourism in Uruguay is a very important economic activity and Argentinians are the main visitors in the Uruguayan inbound tourism.

Uruguay is one of the South American countries with the highest proportion of the population living abroad. Uruguayans living abroad visit Uruguay for their holidays, being the third segment in number of inbound tourists (after those coming from Argentina and Brazil), what is called Nostalgic tourism or Visiting friends and relatives and (VFR) tourism. Nostalgic or VFR tourism in Uruguay was near 16% during the first decade of this century and even higher in the XXth. century. In 2017 it represented 8% of total tourism, since Argentinian and Brazilian tourists had a great increase this year.

In this paper, we analyze the VFR tourism demand in Uruguay. After characterizing VFR tourists, we apply Johansen methodology and compare VFR tourism demand with Argentinian tourism demand. We built four models, two comparing the number of tourists, the other two analyzing the tourists' expenditure.

Applying Johansen methodology, we found at least one VEC equation for each model considered: two models considering the number of tourists, with monthly data (from January 2002 to June 2017), and two models taking into account tourists expenditure, with quarterly data (from January 1996 to June 2017).

In the first two models, the elasticities (income and prices) were smaller for VFR tourists compared with Argentinian tourists, implying that the number of VFR tourists react less to changes in income or relative prices than Argentinians', so their fidelity is higher than Argentinians'. But in the case of tourists'

expenditure, the result was the opposite, with VFR tourists responding more to changes in prices or income than Argentinians'. Impulse response functions show a greater reaction of Argentinian tourists to changes in relative prices, but similar impact in the case of an income shock. Finally, forecasts show a good adjust of the forecast to actual data.

It is important to point out that VFR tourists decide their visits to Uruguay taking into account Uruguayan GDP and relative prices between both countries, bilateral RER, as Argentina's GDP was not significant in the model. What was significant was Uruguayan GDP, so they decide visiting Uruguay or not, taking into account their friends and relatives economic situation, not their own.

On the other hand, their expenditure decision, depends only of Argentina's GDP, and with an elasticity greater than 2.5, so for VFR tourists, their expenditure reacts considering it a luxury expenditure (income elasticity greater than 1), as it is generally considered tourism.

Besides, Argentinian tourists decide their visiting and their expenditure taking into account their own GDP and relative prices. The income elasticity of Argentinians' expenditure indicates that tourism is a luxury expenditure for these tourists too.

Since the decision of both groups of tourists depend on different variables, public policies attending tourism demand and the decisions of private sector agents should take these results into account.

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CHAOS TOWARDS ORDER: RETHINKING *RELATIONAL EXCHANGE* IN HOTEL B2B SALES AND MARKETING

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Abstract

This paper examines *relational exchange* by focusing on the meaning of the concept *collaboration*, with specific reference to hotel B2B relational exchange. *Collaboration* is an instructive gateway concept and balance point along a relational exchange continuum. An intensive literature review is employed to find order in theoretical chaos. Chaos results from poor conceptualization and measurement difficulties. We recommend attention to (re)conceptualization of *relational exchange*, specifically focusing on hotels. Attention to this topic is warranted considering the significant percentage which B2B sales contributes to total hotel business revenue. However, few papers are published on this topic.

Keywords: Hotel B2B relational exchange, collaboration, cooperation, coordination, theoretical paper

Introduction

Medieval peasants winnowing wheat. Churning chaff and raining grain. An opaque chaotic cloud, yet with discreet elements that will be ordered into nurturing bread. Envision this metaphor for today's academic variable conceptualizations of the words, *relationship* or *relational exchange*. Deeply carved primordial social evolution and resulting intuition inform humans that these concepts are an essential predicate underlying successful sales and marketing. Should not conceptual clarity prevail? Yet, the academic literature presents confusion.

B2B (business-to-business) relational exchange² is an evolving and economically focused collaborative process where multiple entities, each possessing differing and overlapping interests, purposefully and voluntarily interact with each other. Exchange partners have varying relationship strengths and degrees of integration and aim to co-create value and to exchange value over their relationship lifecycle. These partners pursue both their individual and mutual goals (Gray, 1985; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018b; Teece, in Fernandez, Chiambaretto, Le Roy, & Czakon 2019; Williamson, 1979; Zimmerman, 2018). Marketers/sellers are generally proactive supplier companies – they initiate processes to facilitate economic exchange. Potential customers (buyers) in B2B markets are initially segmented by variables to determine their relative *fit* with the initiating supplier (marketer/seller). The resulting initial customer segment can further be categorized into target sub-segments. Further, each of these sub-segments has varying degrees of attractiveness: an ability to become long-term repeat customers, a willingness to

² Some authors maintain that relational exchange is practices as strategic or key account management – see McNeill and Nienaber (2018a)

partner with the supplier company, a compatibility of both seller and buyer company, etc. (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b). Generally, the *Pareto Principle* informs that 20% of the initial *fit* buyer companies has the potential to drive 80% of the seller company's B2B marketing/sales top-line revenue (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018b). Historically, hotel B2B marketing/sales has often indiscriminately addressed 100% of these initial fit potential customers. In other words, the marketers/sellers aggressively chased the 100%. This is a transactional approach (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018b).

Today and in response to rising costs of the transactional approach, hotel B2B marketing/selling is beginning to focus and invest its resources in *relational exchange* strategies aimed at the 20% of *fit* potential customers (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Wang, 2012). Simultaneously, the remaining 80%, which drive 20% of top-line revenue, is addressed by low-cost digital marketing assets; if not simply benignly ignored (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b). This phenomenon is congruent with generic B2B marketing/sales trends (Kaufmann & Dant, 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Rackham, 2012; Sheth, 2017; Storbacka, Ryals, Davies, & Nenonen, 2009; Viio & Grönroos, 2016; Wilkinson, Young, & Freytag, 2005; Williamson, 1979). Essentially, relational exchange is a form of *cooperative corporate strategy*; specifically, cooptation, strategic alliance, and/or networks (Arndt, 1979; Chou & Zolkiewski, 2018; Dyer, 2000; Fernandez, Chiambaretto, Le Roy, & Czakon, 2019; Gray, 1985; Gulati & Singh, 1998; Gulati, Wohlgezogen, & Zhelyazkov, 2012; Jap, 1999; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Zimmerman, 2018). Thus, the unit of analysis is *relational exchange* practiced among partner organizations.

B2B relational exchange is a practice dating back thousands of years (LaPlaca, 2014; Wilson, 1995). Though theory development only began at the end of the 1800s (Hadjikhani & LaPlaca, 2013), and gained traction from about 1970 (Bagozzi, 1978; LaPlaca, 2014). This new approach to sales/marketing was prompted by the fact that sellers realized that all buyers/customers are not the same (LaPlaca, 2014); while others challenged the assumption that industrial buyer behavior relies on single discreet transactions (Håkansson, 1982; Gray, 1985; Macneil, 1978; Williamson, 1979); and others (Bagozzi, 1978) deemed marketing behavior as essentially a social activity, and the results of exchanges are subject to bargaining, negotiation and conflict handling skills, as well as the use of power and meanings and that exist between exchange partners. Moreover, these relationships are complex, and present as, among others, networks. Regardless, it is argued that B2B relational exchange still does not have a systematic body of knowledge (Achrol, Reve, & Stern, 1983; Bagozzi, 1978; Fernandez et al., 2019; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Rackham, 2012; Sheth, 2017). It draws upon multiple disciplines (Arndt, 1979; Fernandez et al., 2019; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a; Williamson, 1979) which present challenges in developing a common theoretical framework (Bagozzi, 1978; Fernandez et al., 2019; Håkansson, 1982). Thus, to explain this phenomenon, it is not surprising that different authors use different theories, which have yet to be fully explained and integrated (McNeill & Nienaber 2018a, b). Sheth (2017) confirmed this when he observed that relational exchange diverged rather than converged into a coherent discipline. Several reasons contribute to divergence. One possible reason is that few researchers replicate and/or extend studies to test for generalization across contexts, which is an important step in knowledge generation (Padin, Ferro, & Svensson, 2017; Rosen, 2019). Moreover, knowledge generation in social science, specifically applied sciences, is incremental (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). A second reason for divergence is that scholars do not consistently use - explicitly stated or implied - the unit of analysis, *relational exchange*. A third reason for the divergence is that relational exchange draws upon multiple disciplines, as previously mentioned. Hence, authors also use a variety of theories to explain this phenomenon (e.g. economics, sociology, strategic management, marketing, personal selling, contract law). These include Bagozzi's (1978) theory of exchange; Frazier's (1983) framework for inter-

organizational exchange; Macneil's (1978) contracting norms from relational exchange theory; Scanzoni's (1979) social exchange and behavioral interdependence theory (see Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987); Thibaut and Kelley's (1959) social psychology of groups (see Dwyer et al., 1987; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Skinner, Gassenheimer, & Kelly, 1992); Weitz's (1981) contingency model of selling; Williamson's (1979) transaction cost economics governing contractual relations; power and conflict of French and Raven (1959) or Emerson (1962) (see Skinner et al., 1992); the resource-based view (Barney, 1991); interfirm network theory, game theory, paradox theory (see Fernandez et al., 2019); or derivatives or a combination thereof (Brennan, Turnbull, & Wilson, 2003; Dwyer et al., 1987; Håkansson, 1982; Heide & John, 1990, 1992; Kaufmann & Dant, 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Spekman, Kamauff, & Myhr, 1998; Wilson & Nielson, 2001). Some works classify these theories broadly as economic and/or behavioral theories (Hadjikhani & LaPlaca, 2013; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a). Troublesome, however, is the general absence of collaboration theory of Gray (1985). A fourth reason for the divergence is that some authors maintain that the relationship aspect of exchange, particularly antecedent conditions, processes, and outcomes, generates complexity and pose challenges to both the conceptualization and empirical measurement (Bagozzi, 1978; Dwyer et al., 1987; Heide & John, 1990, 1992; Padin et al., 2017; Wilson & Nielson, 2001). A final reason for divergence is that authors use terms pertinent to relational exchange differently, especially *cooperation*, *coordination*, and *collaboration*. This results in conflicting conclusions and ultimate confusion. Consequently, scholars have suggested that the structure of economic exchange relationships needs theoretical attention (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Rackham, 2012; Sheth, 2017).

The plethora of scholarly inconsistencies and differences result in ineffective efforts to theoretically contribute to the promise of practical *relational exchange* improvement. This begs the question: *Order* - Symmetrical theoretical evolution and ascent assisting industry practice or *Chaos* - asymmetrical theoretical devolution and descent impeding industry practice? Accordingly, this paper examines *relational exchange* by focusing on the meaning of the concept of *collaboration* with specific reference to hotel B2B relational exchange, which, to the authors' knowledge, has not been systematically examined in the past. Few papers are published on hotel B2B relational exchange, while its importance is evidenced by its significant contribution to topline revenue (McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b). Thus, attention to this topic is warranted. To provide a comprehensive review, this paper incorporates generic relational exchange literature. The research question is, "What is the meaning of *collaboration* in the context of (hotel) B2B relational exchange." This study contributes to both hotel and generic industry practices by clarifying relational exchange concepts and suggests direction for future research.

An extensive literature review of both conceptual and empirical outputs answers the research question. This paper specifically compares the description of key relational exchange terms: *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate*. The next section examines the literature and the paper closes with conclusions and recommendations.

Literature Review

Databases *Ebsco* and *Proquest* were searched using key terms, *B2B (hotel) relational exchange*. These databases cover relevant sources widely as they collectively feature peer reviewed business journals, covering all disciplines, as well as industry journals. This search returned 40 articles. References in these articles were used to expand the search for additional applicable literature (see Rosen, 2019).

The first step in clarifying meaning is to create a shared understanding. This is achieved by defining terms. Language shapes and partly constructs social phenomena aligned with a specific context (Hindriks, 2011; Rosen, 2019; Williamson, 1979). Relational exchange is a form of corporate strategy, specifically, cooperative corporate strategy, as mentioned. Consequently, the first concept illuminated is *corporate strategy*. Secondly, concepts pertinent to the cooperative corporate strategy of strategic alliance, i.e., *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate* are clarified from an etymology and business meaning followed by descriptions from the literature pertaining to *B2B (hotel) relational exchange*.

Corporate strategy

In essence, *corporate strategy* provides direction, guides action, and delineates the scope of business. It reflects the investment decision, in terms of money, management attention, and resource allocation aimed to ensure survival and growth of the organization (Fernandez et al., 2019; Okumus, Altinay, & Chathoth, 2013). Corporate strategy takes several forms. One of these forms is *cooperative strategies*. Cooperative strategies also take many forms, like joint ventures, networks, collaboration, management contracts, franchising, licensing, and strategic alliance and cooptition (a neologism of cooperation and competition). These cooperative strategies may or may not involve equity exchange (Fernandez et al., 2019; Okumus et al., 2013). Our focus is on *strategic alliances* and *cooptition* that *do not* involve equity exchange. Strategic alliance and cooptition generally refer to a voluntary agreement between two or more partners, in this instance, organizations. These formal or tacit cooperation agreements (Arndt, 1979; Teece in Fernandez et al., 2019) share complementary resources such as knowledge and personnel (Fernandez et al., 2019; Lui & Ngo, 2005) that create and exchange economic, functional, psychological and/or meta value, benefiting all agreement partners (Chou & Zolkiewski, 2018; Fernandez et al., 2019; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Okumus et al., 2013; Wilson, 1995). These cooperative agreements benefit participating organizations in mutual and individual goal achievement (Chou & Zolkiewski, 2018; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Padin et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 1992). Cooperative agreements can be an important source of competitive advantage for all participants (Chou & Zolkiewski, 2018; Dyer, 1996, 2000; Dyer & Singh, 1998; Ganesan, 1994; Hadjikhani & LaPlaca, 2013; Jap, 1999; Spekman et al., 1998; Wilson & Nielson, 2001). Competitive advantage is something the organization does differently or better than competition in attracting customers and a characteristic of a sound strategy (Barney, 1991; Porter, 1988; Teece in Fernandez et al., 2019).

It stands to reason that relational exchange is not suitable for all situations (Fernandez et al., 2019; Dyer, 2000; Ganesan, 1994; Spekman et al., 1998; Wilson, 1995). It best lends itself to complex situations, products and services (Dyer, 2000). Additionally, this strategy is not unproblematic and often results in a high failure rate. Thus, organizations should choose partners as well as team members carefully (Fernandez et al., 2019; Dyer, 2000; Gray, 1985; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a; Wilkinson et al., 2005).

The above description of *cooperative corporate strategy* (specifically focused on strategic alliances and cooptition) necessitates attention to the term, *collaborate* and its variants. Thus, as a starting point, the linguistic meaning of collaborate and variants, both from an etymology and business perspective, is presented first. Then, the meaning of these terms is illuminated by the literature pertaining to relational exchange.

Etymological and business meaning of collaborate, cooperate and coordinate

Etymologically (<https://www.etymonline.com/>) these terms are distinctive, yet related. First, *collaborate* is an umbrella term requiring the inclusion of both other terms, *cooperate* and *coordinate*. Manifestation

of collaboration is impossible without the definitional elements of these two terms. Directly, from Late Latin, *collaboratus*, means “to work collectively or jointly toward a mutual goal” – emphasis, *mutual* goal. Second, *cooperate*, from Late Latin, *cooperari*, means “I work together with another to achieve individual goals - emphasis, *individual* goals. Finally, the term, *coordinate*, from Late Latin, *coordinatus*, past participle of *coordinare*, means “to set in order, arrange”. This derives from the assimilated form of Latin *com*, “with, together” + *ordination*, “arrangement,” from *ordo* “row, rank, series, arrangement.” *Coordination* is *implementation* as guided by both mutual and individual goals as previously defined in collaborative and cooperative efforts.

Business definitions (<http://www.businessdictionary.com/>) of collaborate, cooperate, and coordinate are similar to etymological definitions and exhibit relatedness, yet distinctiveness. First, *collaborate* has three meanings: “(i) general: cooperative arrangement in which two or more parties (which may or may not have any previous relationship) work jointly towards a common goal; (ii) knowledge management (KM): effective method of transferring 'know how' among individuals, therefore critical to creating and sustaining a competitive advantage. Collaboration is a key tenet of KM; (iii) negotiations: conflict resolution strategy that uses both assertiveness and cooperation to seek solutions advantageous to all parties. It succeeds usually where the participants' goals are compatible, and the interaction among them is important in attaining those goals.” Second, *cooperation* means the “voluntarily arrangement in which two or more entities engage in a mutually beneficial exchange [each party to the exchange values the win/win satisfaction of their individual goals] instead of competing.” Cooperation can happen where resources adequate for both parties exist or are created by the synergy of their interaction. Third, *coordination* refers to the “synchronization and integration of activities, responsibilities, and command and control structures to ensure that the resources of an organization are used most efficiently in pursuit of the specified objectives [mutual or individual goals].” Moreover, coordination is one of the key functions of management; specifically, it is the implementation of planning by binding together and harmonizing activities (Fayol, 1916).

The authors' definitions reflect both the etymological and business definitions. They conjointly comprise the term *relational exchange*. First, *collaboration* means the collective working together to co-create value to achieve a mutual goal which is something new and in which all parties, in varying degrees, share. Second, *cooperation* means working together in support of each other's individual goals. Third, *coordination* means the implementation of value exchanges, guided by rules or norms, in pursuit of goals – mutual or individual. It is important to recognize that the three terms are interrelated and interdependent. *Collaboration* is the pinnacle of *relational exchange* (how interdependent organizations interact) and encompasses the two facilitating terms: *cooperation* and *coordination*. For example, if intensity levels of relational exchange ranged on a scale, 1 to 100, then the intensity range of the pinnacle portion of the *collaboration* range might be 80 to 100. *Coordination* is always present and its norms applied in both *cooperation* and *collaboration*. Along with cooperation, coordination's highest intensity is reached in *collaboration*. For example, in *relational exchange* and before the state of *collaboration* is reached (range 1 to 79), coordination, along with cooperation, intensifies. However, crossing the boundary into a state of *collaboration* (intensity range 80 to 100), coordination along with cooperation continues to rise.

In summary, the etymology, business and authors' definitions of collaborate, cooperate and coordinate are compatible, and coincide with the meaning of cooperative corporate strategy, i.e., strategic alliance and coepetition. The next section addresses collaboration, cooperation and coordination from the relational exchange scholarly literature.

Meanings of collaboration, cooperation and coordination from the relational exchange scholarly literature

In examining the relational exchange scholarly literature, it reveals that authors most often use the term *cooperate* as a proxy for *relational exchange* and they often define *cooperation* differently. Some indicate that cooperation's intensity level varies among different relationship partnerships as well as over the relational exchange life cycle, e.g., awareness, exploration, expansion, commitment and termination (Dwyer et al., 1987; Gray, 1985; Lui & Ngo, 2005; McNeill and Nienaber, 2018a, b). Dwyer et al. (1987) first add the concept of *coordination* to the *cooperation* process. They maintain that coordination occurs early in the process, specifically at the end of phase 1 (awareness). Coordination continues and intensifies, along with cooperation, throughout the process.

Definitions of *cooperation* are wide-ranging. Some are associated with expectations (Alderson 1965 in Skinner et al., 1992). Some are seen as successful exchange episodes (Wilson & Nielson, 2001). Others look to, "joint striving towards individual and mutual goal achievement" (Skinner et al., 1991:176). Adaptation by at least one partner to meet another partner's needs is another view (Brennan et al., 2003; Håkansson, 1982; Viio & Grönroos, 2016; Wilson, 1995).

Adaptation requires further elaboration. It is seen as a function of the social exchange process, which is linked with one partner's dependence on another partner. Adaptation can take various forms that can occur at the product or service level, management processes, information exchange, or organization (re)structure to form long-lasting ties between partners (Brennan, et al., 2003; Viio & Grönroos, 2016; Wilson, 1995). Consequently, adaptation is defined at the domain level (i.e., set of actors individual, group or corporate joined by common problem or interest) as behavioral or organizational adjustments. These adjustments are deliberately made, most often by one organization, usually the supplier organization, to satisfy the stated demands/requirements of another partner to nurture the relationship (Brennan, et al., 2003; Gray, 1985; Viio & Grönroos, 2016; Wilson, 1995).

Cooperate, coordinate and collaborate represent a relational exchange continuum. Spekman et al. (1998) maintain that *cooperation* is the minimum threshold level of interaction between partners, involving information exchange. As the relationship intensifies, so does cooperation. *Coordination* follows cooperation where a range of mechanisms are employed to unify conventional connections among relational organizations. Finally, as trust and commitment per Morgan and Hunt (1994) increases between partners, they move to *collaborate* – i.e. where partners integrate (*adapt*) at least some of their activities or operations. Collaboration reflects a true partnership where partners mutually co-create value and solutions at higher intensities than previous levels. Moreover, this continuum suggests that cooperation, coordination, and collaboration are at the core of *relational exchange*.

Coordination is present in or required by cooperation and collaboration, but these concepts are distinct. Some authors maintain that *coordination* is present, or required, in *cooperation*, however, coordination and cooperation are distinct (Frazier, 1983; Håkansson, 1982; Jap, 1999). Authors maintain that *coordination* of partners' *cooperation* efforts is necessary to ensure successful exchange (Frazier, 1983; Håkansson, 1982). This implies that *coordination* serves as an implementation mechanism of *cooperation* efforts. However, Jap (1999) calls *coordination* a resource to achieve *cooperation*. This view is consistent with Arndt (1979) who maintains that cooperation is coordinated in advance by centralized control procedures, while consciously and directly managing information. This view coincides with Storbacka et al. (2009) and Dyer (1996) who observe that coordination of collaboration is integral to *relational exchange*; whether this exchange is inter- or intra-organizational. This view also coincides with Morgan and Hunt (1994) and Wilson (1995) who state that cooperation is the regular

pattern of similar or complementary coordinated actions taken by interdependent organizations to achieve joint or individual goals and having the expectation of future reciprocity. Coordination implies cooperation enabling the sharing of resources, opportunities, and processes, enabling the shaping of a competitive advantage. Furthermore, Morgan and Hunt (1994) maintain that these interrelationships are norm-driven (*norms* serve to guide and regulate acceptable group behavior) and coordinated by means of norms of sharing and commitment based on trust.

Similar to the above discussion, Heide (1994) opines that governance (norms, rules, etc.- in a generic form) provides the structure to initiate, continue and end contracts. Heide (1994) further distinguishes *bilateral governance* as referring to *cooperative* effort between contracting parties. *Coordination* of relational exchange partners' activities is achieved by establishing inter-organizational links aimed at ameliorating uncertainty and dependence. Heide (1994) states that uncertainty and dependence are the antecedents of inter-organizational exchange relationships.

Specifically referencing *strategic alliances*, Gulati and Singh (1998) maintain that *cooperation* requires that partners *coordinate* their activities, across organizational boundaries. Additionally, cooperation requires acknowledging and fairly distributing the costs and the co-created value which arise from these coordination efforts.

Cooperate, coordinate and collaborate are synonyms – the literature opines. Heide and John (1990) use *cooperative* and *coordinate* as synonyms referring to the mutual endeavors. Specifically, they refer to the extent to which partners simultaneously penetrate each other's boundaries.

On the other hand, Dyer and Singh (1998) use the terms *collaborate* and *cooperate* as synonyms. They maintain that organizational alliance partners collaborate in an inter-organizational value-creation process by combining, exchanging, or investing in distinctive resources and/or capabilities and/or employing structures, which may or may not reduce operational cost.

Cooperate is a dimension of relational exchange. Cannon and Perreault (1999) opine that the *cooperative* norms (rules) of Macneil (1978) are dimensions of relational exchange. This mirrors the behavioral expectation of the exchange entities about joining forces to attain mutual and/or individual goals. The said norms play an essential role in successful *coordination* in distribution channels. This view concurs with Morgan and Hunt (1994). Moreover, Cannon and Perreault (1999) maintain that cooperation is central in achieving coordination.

Similarly, Dwyer et al. (1987) state that relational exchange is multi-dimensional and reflects the norms of Macneil (1978). They assert that *collaboration* is sustained by implied or stated assumptions, trust, and planning. They maintain that *cooperate* is a contractual element referring to the mutual endeavors of partners over time. They further contend that any form of joint interaction, including tacit *coordination*, reflects the intensification level within the exchange relationship. In addition, trust expected to facilitate *cooperation* in a relational contract.

Heide and John (1992) maintain that buy/sell relationships vary by the dimensions they label *joint action*, *expected continuity*, and *verification efforts*. *Joint action* refers to the degree of inter-organizational penetration, which allow partners to carry out the agreed upon activities (such as product development, strategic planning, etc.) in a cooperative or coordinated manner. As the scope of activities increases, *relationship partners* transform and are renamed, *alliance partners*. *Expected continuity* refers to the mutual anticipation of the future collaboration. *Verification efforts* refer to the scope of efforts undertaken by the buyer prior to the relationship forming to verify the supplier's ability to perform as expected.

Collaborate combining of resources. Gray (1985) maintains that *collaboration* means the combining of obligations and/or concrete resources/capabilities by two or more relational exchange partners to solve problems that neither can solve individually. Collaboration cuts across traditional organizational boundaries. Similarly, Lui and Ngo (2005) maintain that *cooperation* is a continual series of interactions among exchange partners which allows sufficient time for the inter-organizational arrangements to utilize resources and/or governance structures of the sovereign partners to attain mutual or separate goals. The level/intensity of collaboration varies in different cooperative relationships and impacts the expectation about *adaptation* (cross-boundary integration) between/among the parties.

Cooperation is an outcome of relational mediators. Morgan and Hunt (1994) maintain that *cooperation* is one of five outcomes of *relational exchange* (which they define as the sharing of resources). They maintain that both *commitment* and *trust* mediate five antecedents of relational exchange. Palmatier et al. (2006) and Palmatier, Dant and Grewal (2007) define *cooperation* as the coordinated and complementary actions between exchange partners to achieve mutual goals. Their synonyms for cooperation are *coordination* and *joint actions*. They maintain that cooperation is an outcome of the relational mediators: commitment, trust, relationship satisfaction, and relationship quality.

Cooperation is a multi-dimensional construct. Lui and Ngo (2005) maintain that the *cooperative process* (which they view as a continual series of interactions) consists of three dimensions: *action acquiescence*, *action simplicity*, and *action reciprocity*. On the other hand, Wilson and Nielson (2001) maintain that *cooperation* is part of the relational exchange process. To these authors, *cooperation* reflects the capacity of two or more partners to collaborate and jointly interact in striving towards their *individual* goals. They maintain that as successful exchange episodes continue to occur, cooperation between exchange partners intensifies. Like Morgan and Hunt (1994), Wilson and Nielson (2001) maintain that cooperation is the *outcome* of successful exchange episodes. Additionally, Wilson and Nielson (2001) state that cooperation is a multi-dimensional concept comprising the dimensions: information sharing, organizational flexibility, mutual working or mutual decision making and harmony between exchange partners. These dimensions correspond with the relational norms proposed by Macneil (1978) and Kaufmann and Dant (1992).

Cooperation and coordination are facets of collaboration. Gulati et al. (2012) view *coordination* and *cooperation* as facets of *collaboration*. They also agree that *collaboration* is integral to a (successful) exchange relationship. They consider cooperation and coordination to be distinct and complementary to collaboration. Regarding *coordination*, they maintain that it is integral to collaboration and expedites the contributions of partners working toward individual and joint activities and across organizational boundaries. Coordination is achieved by creating structures, institutions, and relationships to work across organizational boundaries. The authors further indicate that the roles of coordination and cooperation differ during the life cycle of the relationship. Regarding *cooperation*, they view this term as a joint pursuit of agreed goal(s) according to their shared understanding of contributions and payoffs resulting from this cooperation. Moreover, they maintain that cooperation is a behavioral manifestation of harmony between partners. Additionally, they observe that coordination varies with the extent of cooperation.

Payan et al. (2016) follow the work of Gulati et al. (2012) and mention that *collaboration* is an antecedent to relational exchange. Payan et al. (2016) are of the view that *cooperation* and *coordination* are underspecified aspects of collaboration. They define collaboration as a spirit of willingness of an organization to work with another organization. They define coordination as the joint activities that take

place between organizations. They differentiate between cooperation and coordination. They see *cooperation* as an **intent** and *coordination* as the **actual collaboration** between partners. They further maintain that cooperation and coordination are distinct concepts and are antecedents (existed before) to trust and commitment. The understanding of Payan et al. (2016) reverses the antecedent order found by other studies. These studies found that trust and commitment are antecedents to cooperation and coordination (Dwyer et al., 1987; Lui & Ngo, 2005; Spekman et al., 1998; Wilson & Nielson, 2001). Previously researching with Payan et al. (2016), Padin, Ferro and Svensson (2017) in a subsequent study found that satisfaction mediates *trust* and *commitment* and *cooperation* (spirit of willingness of one organization to collaborate with partners), *coordination* (reflecting the specific structure or process, joining activities between organizations) and *continuity* expectation.

Close scrutiny of the literature review reveals some confusion. Different authors use the terms, *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate*, differently:

- Authors seldom use the terms in the context of cooperative corporate strategy of strategic alliance and competition (Arndt, 1979; Dyer, 2000; Fernandez et al., 2019; Gulati & Singh, 1998; McNeill & Nienaber, 2018a, b; Wilson & Nielson, 2001; Zimmerman, 2018);
- Few authors use these terms according to the etymology and business definitions (Arndt, 1979; Dyer, 2000; Dwyer et al., 1987; Fernandez et al., 2019; Gray, 1985; Gulati & Singh, 1998; Heide, 1994; Skinner et al., 1992; Spekman et al., 1998; Wilson, 1995; Wilson & Nielson, 2001; Zimmerman, 2018);
- The terms, *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate*, are complex;
- Data does not necessarily make or *proof* theory owing to limitations such as human *failings* which can prevent accurate observations; and, different theories use different assumptions which may lead to different results;
- Finally, there is not much literature on hotel B2B relational exchange.

In summary, these observations indicate that there is confusion in the literature about the meaning of these concepts. This confirms the observation of McNeill and Nienaber (2018a, b), Rackham (2012), and Sheth (2017) that an integrated theory of relational exchange is lacking. The information shows that the confusion seems to have appeared in the mid-2000s and thus, Sheth's (2017) observation of divergence seems to be supported.

Conclusions

This paper examined *relational exchange* by focusing on the meaning of the concept *collaboration*, with specific reference to hotel B2B relational exchange. *Collaboration* is an instructive gateway concept and balance point along a relational exchange continuum. However, authors are not unanimous about the meaning of these terms, resulting in confusion. Hence, an intensive literature review was employed to find order in theoretical chaos, resulting from poor conceptualization of this concept and measurement difficulties.

This study found that B2B relational exchange is an evolving and economically focused collaborative process where multiple entities, each possessing differing and overlapping interests, purposefully and voluntarily interact with each other in varying relationship strengths and degrees of integration. The aim of relational exchange is to co-create value through the process of exchange in pursuit of mutual and individual goals. Relational exchange is a form of a *cooperative corporate strategy* and suitable for complex value exchanges.

Based on the definitions of cooperative corporate strategy and along with the etymological and business definitions, the authors constructed a definition of B2B relational exchange. In terms of this definition, the terms *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate*, conjointly comprise the term *relational exchange*. These terms are related, but distinct. *Collaboration* is the pinnacle of relational exchange intensity. This term refers to exchanging partners jointly working together to co-create value in pursuit of *mutual* goals. Thus, collaborate encompasses both cooperate and coordinate. *Cooperate* refers to working together in support of each other's *individual* goals. *Coordinate* refers to the implementation of value exchanges in pursuit of both mutual and individual goals. It is important to recognize that the three terms, *cooperate*, *coordinate*, and *collaborate*, are interrelated and interdependent. It should be noted that coordination is present in both cooperation and collaboration. Cooperation along with coordination increases in intensity as the state of collaboration is approached. Along with cooperation, coordination's highest intensity is reached in collaboration.

The literature uses different descriptions of relational exchange that do not entirely reflect the clarified definition put forward by the authors. These different descriptions indicate the complexity of this concept, resulting in poor conceptualization and ultimately in measurement difficulties. This observation suggests a devolution and descent impeding industry practice, including hampering the shaping of a competitive advantage. Given that (proper) conceptualization precedes measurement, attention should be devoted to the (re-) conceptualization of relational exchange, to be meaningful in explanation, which is the recommendation of this study. Reconceptualization should include standardized terminology to facilitate shared meaning and thus progress. In this way both academics and practitioners can benefit. This paper has answered the research question.

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MEASURING THE IMPACT OF EVENTS' IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT IN FOREIGN DESTINATIONS, WHICH STIMULATE BEHAVIOR INTENTIONS

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Abstract

This study measured the impact of events' impression management, which stimulates positive behavior intentions towards a country. The research objectives of this study was: to recognize the impression management factors; to measure the impact of events impression on stimulating tourism behavior intentions; and to identify the significant impression management factors in the event tourism industry. Prior studies indicated that impression management is made up of several factors: (1) self-promotion (2) ingratiation (3) exemplification (4) intimidation (5) supplication. Thus, the researchers hypothesized that each factor impacts visitors' tourism behavior intentions (re/visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event). This research used the quantitative approach, with a positivist perspective. Data was collected through administrated questionnaires. 700 questionnaires were distributed during September 2018, but only 384 were returned complete, creating a 55% response rate. Results supported that events' impression management stimulate intentions. Exemplification and Intimidation were the significant impression factors that impact visitors' intentions to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event. This study contributed academically by widening the breadth of impression management taxonomy and scale development. It enhanced the understanding of impression management in relation to tourism and events management, disclosing the various strategies needed for image building.

Keywords: Behavior Intentions, Event Tourism, Management, Impression Management

Introduction

People travel not only for leisure purposes or for relaxation, but also for entertainment (sports, concerts, fairs, etc.), business (meetings, conventions, workshops, tradeshows, etc.), education (conferences, study exchange, fieldtrips, etc.), and personal milestones celebration (anniversaries, weddings, birthdays, etc.) (Okoli, 2012). There are almost countless types of events that encourage one to travel; some are demanded frequently, while others seldom by individuals. Events are a central part in people's lives - as leisure and disposable incomes rise (Negm and Elsamadicy, 2017). High demand for events, celebration, and entertainment has developed the significance of event tourism (Mihajlović and Vidak, 2017).

Events play a key role in building a more successful and attractive tourism destination (Okoli, 2012). Events can create a huge economic and touristic impact on the hosting destination (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). Events around the world are generating billions of revenue and changing the way businesses operate

(Getz and Page, 2016). For example: “*in the USA, they generate almost one trillion dollars in direct, indirect and induced spending. In Europe, the event industry continues to grow steadily. In Asia, it is booming*”. As a result, tourist destinations around the world are realizing that events are a vital component in attracting people (GIHE, 2018). For this reason, this study plans on focusing specifically on event tourism, even though there are many types of tourism.

Image perception and development is one of the most popular research topics in the academic literature (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). Consumers are bombarded by choices of available destinations to visit that hold several different events (Negm and Elsamadicy, 2017). The images held by event destinations are critical factors in decision-making. Destination image plays a major role in the competitiveness found in the tourism and hospitality field of events (Mihajlović and Vidak, 2017).

Research noted that impression management is key to destination tourism and image management, planning, and recovery (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). Impression management is a process in which people attempt to influence the perception of other people about a person, object, or event. They do so by regulating and controlling information in social interactions (Bolino and Turnley, 1999). Many research studied impression management of people (Aslan and Toygar, 2015). Prior studies focused on factors that allow individuals to be influential in order to gain social power and to create a sense of identity in the result (Demir, 2002). Impression management aids in the identity formation that will help an individual to develop the desired character or other techniques for the social norms and the court-accepted rules of other individuals (Chiang and Chen, 2014). Impression management can be implemented also on events and locations. However, there is a lack of research on this implementation and studied context (Kalyoncu and Yuksek, 2017). Thus, this study is academically important. This study plans to develop test impression management elements on events held in foreign destinations. It plans to develop empirical evidence that proves that each nation’s distinctiveness can act as tools of communication and a magnet to holding events, which further increase tourism flow (Negm and Elsamadicy, 2017).

Impression management is a critical topic that needs to be implemented in regions, especially areas that are perceived as unstable (whether politically, economically, sociably, etc.). Literature declared that it is significant to understand the impression management strategies used to protect images, following a predicament (Nelsen, 2005). It is also significant for nations to meet the expectations of tourists and try to create positive impressions. Events play a role in doing so. Positive impressions will let people perceive the event tourism as worthy, organized, respectable, and pleasurable (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). Event tourism organization and development use impression management techniques, either consciously or unconsciously, while serving tourists (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). Hence, this study is practically important as well. This study plans to investigate impression management impact on event tourism.

Impression management aims at controlling, directing, and sustaining the interactions that occur at the beginning and end of relationships, so that individuals' relationships with their environment can be managed (Aslan and Toygar, 2015). Event tourism creates a positive atmosphere among people. Research has shown that no matter the scope, events need to be properly planned, organized, and executed for it to be successful (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). The image of the host is at stake and therefore, cannot afford to fail in terms of poor turnout of the invitees and unsatisfactory entertainment of guests (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). The quality of events has to be high enough to attract the desired attendance (Getz and Page, 2016).

Events tourism with strong, positive images is more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision process of potential visitors (Allen *et al.*, 2006). Events are major stimuli of tourism. Events

significantly influence the development of a destination (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). Event tourism impression can have: *“a significant effect on the formation of destination image and can help with promoting, positioning and branding it, which can contribute to a more favorable perception as a potential tourist destination”* (Oklobdžija, 2015, p.94). Hence, the research objectives of this study are: (1) to recognize the impression management factors; (2) to measure the impact of events impression on stimulating tourism behavior intentions; and (3) to identify the significant impression management factors in the event tourism industry.

Literature Review

Studies showed that it is necessary to incorporate strategic planning of events to realize the full potential of event tourism (Oklobdžija, 2015). Events are capable of stimulating tourism and boosting the development of a destination (Mihajlović and Vidak, 2017). According to Oklobdžija, (2015), events in a destination has the power to: *“attract more tourists (especially in the off-peak seasons); serve as a catalyst for urban renewal, and for increasing the infrastructure and tourism capacity of the destination; foster a positive destination image; contribute to general place marketing; and animate specific attractions or areas”* (p.92). Getz and Page (2016) declared that destination events create attractions, catalyst for further development, image builders, and animators of the destination.

Oklobdžija, (2012) stated that the attainment of event tourism is achieved with the support of: *“the accommodation facilities of an appropriate standard, the high level of cooperation between tourist agencies, the availability of specific information about events and follow-up activities, and most importantly, proper marketing activities”*(p.96). According to Silvers (2004), event is all about people: *“people coming together to create, operate and participate in an experience”*. Events favorably differentiate destinations from its competition, or positively position the destination in the minds of consumers. The creation and management of a distinctive and appealing perception or image of the destination is needed (Mihajlović and Vidak, 2017). Thus, impression management plays a role in handling visitors’ observations and opinions (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017).

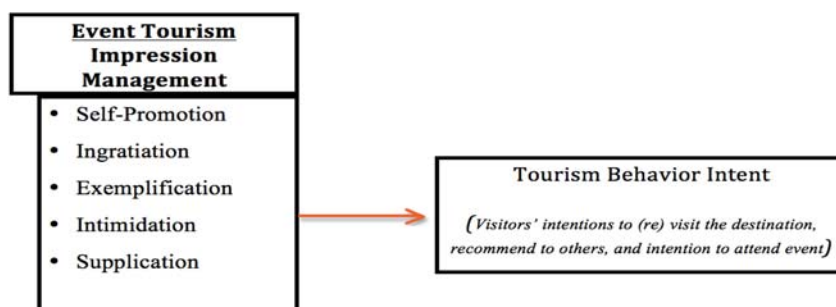
Kalyoncu, and Yuksek (2017) specified that: *“impression management aims at controlling, directing and sustaining the interactions that occur at the beginning and end of relationships so that individuals’ relationships with their environment can be managed”* (p.17). Piwinger and Ebert (2001) rationalized that impression management is a process of influencing the observations and opinions of others about something. Impression management creates a sense of identity (Demir, 2002). Schlenker (1980) outlined this practice as: *“the conscious or unconscious attempt to control an expected image in areal or imaginary social interaction”* (p.6). Impression management contains two dimensions: self-focused and other-focused (McFarland *et al.*, 2003). Self-focused dimension demonstrates the endorsed person, object, area or events’ genuine existing abilities and qualities. Other-focused dimension is the opinions of certain people’s experiences (an evaluator or current consumer) that foster expectations among others. When it comes to event tourism, impression management strategy provides a framework that will inform and support the attraction of tourists (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). Yan and Ho (2017) explained that applying impression management has the ability to: raise awareness and knowledge of key destination experiences and events; increase the number of people considering a visit the destination; convert potential visitors; and boost the network of destination advocates for the region. Accordingly, communicating a positive impression and image of the destination or event plays a major role in the competitiveness found in the tourism and hospitality field (Getz and Page, 2016).

Jones and Pittman (1982) developed a broad taxonomy that reflects several impression management behaviors identified by earlier researchers. They identified five theoretical groupings of impression management strategies that are commonly used: (1) *self-promotion*, whereby the endorsed person, object, area or events' point out their abilities or accomplishments in order to be seen as competent by observers; (2) *ingratiation*, whereby endorsed person, object, area or events' use flattery behaviors to elicit an attribution of likability from observers; (3) *exemplification*, whereby endorsed person, object, area or events' go above and beyond the call of duty in order to gain the attribution of dedication from observers; (4) *intimidation*, where endorsed person, object, area or events' signal their dominant power; and (5) *supplication*, where endorsed person, object, area or events' illustrate their weaknesses or shortcomings in order to elicit an attribution of being needy from observers.

Prior studies indicated that there is a growing interest in impression management in various fields of operations, markets, and industries (Manzur and Jogaratnam, 2006). The concept of impression management has been widely used for investigating issues, such as presentation of staff, business images, or the interaction between customers and service workers (Yan and Ho, 2017). Katz (2016) illustrated that there are shortcomings though in prior studies. The prior research and literature focused primarily on just a few impression management strategies (Bolino and Turnley, 1999; Yan and Ho, 2017). There are insufficient amount of studies dedicated to study impression management in the field of tourism and hospitality, especially in event tourism (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). To enhance the understanding of impression management in relation to event tourism service, the present study intended to disclose the various factors and strategies used for image building or presentation of destinations and events.

This study redresses these academic gaps by using existing impression management theory, which assess several impression management behaviors based on the taxonomy proposed by Jones and Pittman (1982). Prior studies illustrated that visitors' impression developed towards a destination and event have an influence on intention to return and willingness to recommend the occasion (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). Chen and Tsai (2007) supported these findings by indicating that image had a direct effect on trip quality and behavioral response and intentions. Based on the review of the literature, a proposed conceptual model was developed (Figure 1). The researcher hypothesized that: *(H1) Events' impression management impact tourism behavior intentions*. Each element (strategy) under the impression management is also assessed individually in order to identify the significant impression management elements (strategy) in the event tourism industry. Thus, the additional hypotheses are: *(H1.1) self-promotion (H1.2) ingratiation (H1.3) exemplification (H1.4) intimidation (H1.5) supplication impacts tourism behavior intentions*.

Figure 1
Proposed Conceptual Framework



Research Methods and Design

This research aimed to provide deeper insights into the studies presented in the literature. This section describes the methodology and tactics that were used to test the research hypotheses. This study used a cross sectional design and had a descriptive purpose. Furthermore, since the needed information was known beforehand, the research process was carried out using quantitative research approach, with a positivist perspective (formal and structured procedures). This study's primary objective was to examine, describe, and predict the relationships among predictor and criterion variables. The predictor variables were the sub-variables of impression management; these variables control event tourism, impacting tourists' intention to revisit the destination. A correlational research design exposed non-causal relationships among the said variables. The data collection of the study included participant selection and recruitment, instrumentation, and survey administration. The data collected would yield statistical descriptions about behavior intentions and the attributes of the elements of impression management: self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication.

POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Getz and Page (2016) argued that tourism has been in the ascendency for some time in both developed and developing nations. Research indicated that the driving force is: *"globalization, not only in terms of rising disposable incomes and the freer movement of people, but also in terms of global branding and media coverage. Movement of peoples (diaspora) acts to propel growth in event numbers and diversity"* (Getz, 2013, p.3). When it comes to Egypt, many citizens are traveling abroad. These citizens believe that the cost of traveling abroad is relatively the same as travelling to local sites in Egypt (Turner, 2018). Reports show that Egyptians like to take advantage of every single public holiday, bridging certain holidays with the weekends to make the vacation longer. This gives them the opportunity to amend their life's routine. Thus, they enjoy planning inbound or outbound trips (Negm and El-Samadicy, 2017). *Therefore, this research focused on: individuals who traveled and attended events outside their home country, Egypt.*

The research aimed to collect and analyze not less than 384 questionnaires from the studied population. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table was the reference for the sample size. They declared if a population was over one million than 384 was an adequate sample quantity. Cohen (1969) supported the statement and stated that 384 were suitable in examining a city population of 15,000,000 or 100,000. The *consumers intercept data collection method* was used to reach the respondents and to ensure the collection of large amounts of data in a relatively short period of time in order to test the hypotheses. The data collection was conducted during summer and autumn 2018. The researchers stopped random consumers on the streets (street intercepts), in shopping malls (mall intercepts), college campuses, sports clubs, and retail outlets. This distribution was conducted between the hours of 5:00 and 7:00 pm, Sundays through Thursday and on Friday and Saturday between the hours of 1:00 and 6:00 pm. The approached respondents were asked if they were willing to participate in a brief research study. Those who agreed were given a brief description of the survey process and an administrated questionnaire on the spot to fill out.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

An administrated-based survey, consisting of 4 main sections, collected usable data from the participant. The first section in the survey contained three introduction questions. The questions assessed: *the type of events that attracts the tourist; whether the tourist traveled specifically for the attendance of the event; and does the events meet their expectations.*

The second section in the survey measures the impression management factors concerning the event tourism: self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication. A five-point Likert-type interval scales are used to measure the variables in the current study, namely (1) Strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree. The scales are taken from Jones and Pittman's (1982) taxonomy. Jones and Pittman's (1982) taxonomy is particularly well suited for scale development because of its breadth. Moreover, it provides a more suitable basis for developing an impression management scale than other impression management taxonomies because it focuses on specific behaviors. Thus, by using the impression management tactics proposed by Jones and Pittman, this study contributes academically not only to developing a scale appropriate for measuring impression management in event tourism, but also validating empirically the taxonomy outlined by the authors. The third section assesses the participants' behavior intentions. A five-point Likert-type interval scales with three items measuring behavioral intentions were adopted from previous studies (Castro *et al.*, 2007; Chen and Tsai, 2007). The behavioral intentions items represent three related conceptual areas, including intention to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event. The survey's final section gathered demographics, including the gender, age, education, marital status, occupation, income, and geographic location from the participant.

The questionnaire contained words that are simple and straightforward. The survey was originally created in the English language. However, an Arabic version was also created due to the fact that the native language in Egypt is Arabic. The researcher used the back-translation process in order to ensure that the language conversion was done accurately. This procedure was vital because it helped to develop an equivalent questionnaire.

Since the scales that measured the variables in this study were taken from prior studies of different context, a pilot test was conducted before the actual distribution. The pilot study estimated the reliability of the scale items and identifies areas of improvement prior to the full study. The pilot study participants gave their feedback in areas pertaining to the considered variables in the research survey. The researcher took the comments from the pilot and adjusted the statements in each measurement to be clear and comprehensible among the target population before the actual data collection.

Results

Out of the 700 administrated questionnaires, the researcher received back 384 during September 2018, which were complete and accurate. Hence, this research received a response rate of 55%. The data used the statistical package for social science – version 20 – to conduct various analyses and test the hypotheses.

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

The scales used in this study were taken from prior studies. These studies tested impression management related to impression management in organizational settings and individuals. In this study, the scales are implemented on impression management related to event tourism. Thus, the reliability analysis aided the researcher to indicate the stability, consistency and the “goodness” of each instrument that measured the variables midst the studied topic. The Cronbach's Alpha in this analysis pointed to how well the scale's statements were positively correlated to one another. The closer the Alpha was to one, the higher the internal consistency. According to the results, the variables' scales: ingratiation ($\alpha = 0.767$), intimidation ($\alpha = 0.881$), supplication ($\alpha = 0.890$), and behavior intentions ($\alpha = 0.790$) are reliable scales as is in the field of event tourism. However, the variables, self-promotion and exemplification needed some items to be removed in order for the scale to be consistent. Once the items were removed, the scales self-

promotion ($\alpha = 0.701$) and exemplification ($\alpha = 0.754$) were reliable. Once the scales were fine-tuned, the overall questionnaire had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.78, signifying that all questions were correlated to one another.

VALIDITY ANALYSIS

The validity analysis was conducted to help distinguish whether the scale measured what it was supposed to assess. This study used the content validity and face validity tests. The content validity test was performed to ensure how well the dimensions and elements of a concept (variable) had been defined. Face validity was performed next to confirm the results of the previous validity analysis (Kidder and Judd, 1986). This analysis included a group of expert judges (professors in marketing and qualified researchers) who evaluated and confirmed the instrument and indicated that the items used to measure the variables assessed the concept correctly. Based on the results, the scales were valid, and the researchers were able to proceed in analyzing the data further.

FREQUENCY ANALYSIS

The frequency analysis was conducted on the socio-demographic questions and the introduction questions. Based on the results, the participants' were of different backgrounds (age, gender, income, education, job status, marital status, and number of children). Table (1) shows the respondents' traits.

Table 1

Frequency of the Respondents' demographic Characteristics

Demographic characteristic	N	%	Demographic characteristic	N	%	Demographic characteristic	N	%
Gender:			City of Residence:			Age:		
Female	138	35.9	Cairo	212	55.2	Under 20	3	0.8
Male	246	64.1	Alexandria	41	10.7	20 less than 35	251	65.4
			Other	131	34.1	35 less than 50	93	24.2
						50 and above	37	9.6
Level of Education:			Job Status:			Average Monthly Income:		
Elementary	11	2.9	Engineering	146	38	Less than 2,000		
School	254	66.1	Banking	61	15.9	2,000 less than 5,000	0	0
High School	83	21.6	Medical	88	22.9	5,000 less than 10,000	74	19.3
College	34	8.9	Academic	19	2.6	Over 10,000	152	39.6
Post Graduate	2	0.5	Laborer	37	9.6		158	41.1
Other			Technician	13	3.4			
			Other	29	7.5			
Marital Status:			No. of Children:					
Single	141	36.7	None	157	40.9			
Married	199	51.8	One	86	22.4			
Divorced	32	8.3	Two	80	20.8			
Widowed	12	3.1	More than two	61	15.9			

The respondents were asked three general questions regarding their personal experience with event tourism: *Have you traveled before to specifically join a particular event? In general, what events would encourage you to travel to certain destinations for attendance? When traveling, does the event tourism meet the expectations you had?* Based on the results, the majority of the respondents (82.6%) traveled to attend a precise event. The minority of the respondents (17.4%) fortuitously attended an event while they were touring a specific country, without any potential plans. The respondents attended the following events subsequently: business (27.9%), festivals (25%), religious proceedings (13.8%), concerts (13.3%), sports (12.5), academic conference (5.2%), and art exhibitions (2.3%). According to the

responses, the majority were satisfied with the event as it met their expectations (77%), while some disagreed (23%).

4.4 Correlation Coefficient Analysis

Correlation analysis studies the strength of a relationship between two numerical measured, continuous variables. In this study, the correlation analysis was conducted on the overall impression management (including all its factors) on stimulating intentions for tourism (behavior Intentions). Results show that impression management is significant and positive in the context of event tourism. Table (2) illustrates the results of the correlation analysis. Based on correlation analysis, when isolated, not all the sub-variables that make-up impression management impacted the event tourism. According to the analysis, self-promotion and ingratiation did not have a relationship with behavior intentions to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event. However, *exemplification* impacted behavior intentions in a weak but significant manner. The relationship direction is inversed. *Intimidation* impacted behavior intentions in a positive, moderate, and significant manner. *Supplication* impacted behavior intentions in a positive, weak, and significant manner. Table (3) illustrates the outcome of the correlation analysis.

Table 2
Correlation Analysis Impression Management on Behavior Intention

		Behavior Intention
Impression Management	Pearson Correlation	.155**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	384

Table 3
Correlation Analysis

		Self Promotion	Ingratiation	Exemplification	Intimidation	Supplication	Intention
Self Promotion	Pearson Correlation	1	.408**	.289**	-.145**	-.239**	-.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.004	.000	.165
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Ingratiation	Pearson Correlation	.408**	1	.250**	.104*	.079	-.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.041	.125	.897
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Exemplification	Pearson Correlation	.289**	.250**	1	.175**	.038	-.247**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001	.460	.000
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Intimidation	Pearson Correlation	-.145**	.104*	.175**	1	.456**	.316**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.041	.001		.000	.000
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Supplication	Pearson Correlation	-.239**	.079	.038	.456**	1	.166**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.125	.460	.000		.001
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Intention	Pearson Correlation	-.071	-.007	-.247**	.316**	.166**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165	.897	.000	.000	.001	
	N	384	384	384	384	384	384

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

In this study, the research used this analysis to test the hypotheses. In order to get accurate results, the research checked whether data statistics was suitable to give valid results (before further analysis) by conducting methodological assumptions: multicollinearity, scatterplots, Normal P-P Plot, and outliers. Results indicated that there were no problems with the data on hand.

The researcher examined the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), which tested whether the overall regression model was a good fit for the data. The results showed that the impression management factors when implemented on events in the model predicted the dependent variable (behavior intentions). The variables were significant with an ANOVA value of 0.000. The analysis also showed that the adjusted R squared value was 0.190. Thus, the impression management factors in the proposed model explained 19% of the variance in the consumers' (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event.

The multiple regression analysis was used next to test the hypotheses. This study contained five main hypotheses, (H1) *self-promotion* (H2) *ingratiation* (H3) *exemplification* (H4) *intimidation* (H5) *supplication* impacts visitors' behavior intentions - to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event. According to the analysis of hypothesis one, the impact of *self-promotion* on behavior intentions has a sig value of 0.108. This value is greater than the common alpha level of 0.05. The high sig. value (>0.05) indicates that this hypothesis is not supported. According to the analysis of hypothesis two, the impact of *ingratiation* on behavior intentions has a sig value of 0.988. This value is greater than the common alpha level of 0.05. The high sig. value (>0.05) indicates that this hypothesis is not supported. According to the testing of hypothesis three, the impact of *exemplification* on behavior intentions has a sig value of 0.000. This value is less than the common alpha level of 0.05. The sig. value (<0.05) indicates that this hypothesis is supported. According to the testing of hypothesis four, the impact of *intimidation* on behavior intentions has a sig value of 0.000. This value is less than the common alpha level of 0.05. The sig. value (<0.05) indicates that this hypothesis is supported. According to the testing of hypothesis five, the impact of *supplication* on behavior intentions has a sig value of 0.594. This value is greater than the common alpha level of 0.05. The high sig. value (>0.05) indicates that this hypothesis is not supported. Table (4) illustrates the sig. value analysis outcomes of the multiple regressions.

The multiple regression analysis concluded that Exemplification and Intimidation were the two factors of impression management found in events that impacts the visitors' behavior intentions (to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event). Accordingly, the variable with the strongest contribution, impacting intentions was Intimidation (.375), followed by Exemplification (-.339).

Table 4
Regression Analysis

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.127	.256		16.122	.000
Self-promotion	.096	.059	.088	1.610	.108
Ingratiation	.001	.049	.001	.015	.988
Exemplification	-.308	.045	-.339	-6.826	.000
Intimidation	.213	.030	.375	7.091	.000

Supplication	.018	.033	.028	.534	.594
a. Dependent Variable: Intention					

Discussion and Conclusions

Impression management can play a vital role in attracting an event to be held in a specific destination and/or people to attend a touristic event (Yan and Ho, 2017). Impression management is the process in which people attempt to influence the perception of other people about a person, object or event (Kalyoncu, and Yuksek, 2017). This study sought to: (1) *Recognizing the impression management factors*; (2) *Measuring the effect of events impression management on stimulating tourism behavior intentions*; (3) *Identifying significant impression management factors in the event tourism industry*.

Jones and Pittman (1982) concluded that the main factors that construct impression management are: self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication. Results in this study supported this conclusion, providing empirical evidence that event impression management stimulate tourism behavior intentions. Furthermore, this study sought to identify the significant impression management factors in the event tourism industry. Through multiple regression analysis, it was identified that: (1) Exemplification and (2) Intimidation are the needed impression factors that are significant in impacts visitors' to (re) visit the destination, recommend to others, and intention to attend event. These factors attempt to influence the perception of other people about an event in a foreign destination. Based on Bolino and Turnley (1999), they do so by regulating and controlling information in social interactions. The significance of (1) Exemplification and (2) Intimidation leads to several implications. The results imply that in order for an event in a foreign destination to influence and attract tourists, perceived images are the basis of the evaluation or selection process. The destination (practitioners, government, organization committees, media, etc.) should put great effort to endorse, support, and promote its region and event to gain the awareness, credit, and enthusiasm of dedication from travelers. They should also signal their dominant power and stimulate their competitive advantage. Perceived images influence tourist behavior. In essence, the research suggests that those elements will lead to impression management reflection of strong, positive images towards the event and region; in order to be considered in the travel decision process.

This study provided several academic contributions. The conception of impression management has been widely used for investigating issues such as presentation of staff and enterprise images, or the interaction between customers and service workers. To enhance the understanding of impression management in relation to tourism and its events, the present study was conducted to disclose the various strategies needed in impression management for image building or self-presentation. This study contributed academically by validating Jones and Pittman's (1982) taxonomy and scale development in international social setting and academic context, further widening its breadth. Moreover, this study provides a more suitable basis for developing impression management taxonomies because it focuses on specific behaviors, event tourism.

When conducting this research several limitations arose. Future research should take these restrictions into consideration to progress the study prospectively. The current study focused on events in general, neither a specific event nor a specific destination was considered. It would be advisable to other studies to focus on specific events or destinations because each event or destination holds various push and pull factors that attract visitors and impacts the impression management. The present study used convenience sampling, making the end results not truly representative. Thus, future studies should use probability-

sampling techniques to further validate this study. For upcoming research, a larger sample is needed and the data should be gathered proportionately from all regions of the country. This study focused on the Egyptian context, neglecting other countries. Thus, future research can test this research in other Arab and western countries. Future research could also develop a possible transcultural approach to the concept of impression management regarding event tourism. This would lead to a more nuanced understanding of the workings on an international level. This study uses a mono-research approach, quantitative research. Future research could use qualitative research in order to gain richer insights on people's personal experiences, stories and attitudes that would support the vitality of impression management and its implementation in the context.

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HOSPITALITY & STAKEHOLDERS' ROLE CHANGE AND CAPABILITIES IN A CULTURAL TOURISM DESTINATION

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Abstract

This study is drawn from a broader project which aims to understand stakeholder's behavior in a tourism destination when providing a guest experience. A mixed-method approach is proposed using the emic-etic-emic cycle. This paper contemplates the first emic step, a longitudinal study with in-depth interviews with local stakeholders in 2013 and 2019. This data is the basis for content analysis comparison between the two periods. Study contributions include a framework of affective experience by examining the host's roles, capabilities, and the environment. We argue that the main role necessary to provide an emotional experience is to manage how the host delivers and interact with the guests.

Keywords: meta-hospitality; experience; guests, longitudinal study.

Introduction

New perspectives of the hospitality concept go around emotional and aesthetic work (Poulston 2015). Another development is the meta-hospitality concept. Two definitions of meta-hospitality are proposed by Lugosi (2008) in the same paper. The most usual definition is "temporary states of mutuality that are different from the rational manifestations of hospitality" (Lugosi, 2008: 140). Another definition is "short-lived, emotional states of being when participants create a shared existential space in which differences are temporarily renegotiated or tempered. (Lugosi, 2008: 147). " The second definition is closer to the notion of hospitality as a temporary openness toward the other, described by the author, than the first one.

Meta-hospitality is rather an emotional transaction instead of an instrumental one. Therefore, it "is infrequent, existential in nature and emotional in essence." (Lugosi, 2008: 141). For Poulston (2015) meta-hospitality is a moral value or an ethic, which permeates hospitable relationships. Hospitality providers act out the ethic (moral value) through service (operational hospitality). In this paper, researchers understand meta-hospitality as very rare and unusual moments, based on encounters and affective experiences, meaning it depends on interrelation experiences and the emotions it arouses.

Lugosi (2008) presents the meta-hospitality concept alongside three factors that contribute to a hospitable moment: ecology, roles, and capabilities. According to Lugosi (2008), ecology refers to the relationship between the service environment and consumer experiences, once they can shape hosts and guests' actions and perceptions. Roles in hospitable encounters rely on social and cultural competences; one or more individuals can perform multiple roles, sometimes simultaneously. Capabilities are a mix of knowledge, skills, and competencies.

The interactions between the hospitality provider and customers enhance mutually created experiences which generate emotional, social and functional benefits (Teng 2011). However, according to Hemmington (2007), hospitality demand mainly sensations, instead of benefits. Sensations and emotions must stay in hospitality's focus. Moreover, customer hospitality experiences are part of management differentiation strategies, enhancing customer perceived value and loyalty (Lashley, 2008; Teng, 2011). In the other hand, researchers give less attention on the stakeholder's perspective on providing a touristic experience. Stakeholders are "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organizations' objectives" (Freeman 1984:46). Therefore, we use the hospitable moment to evaluate stakeholders' roles in a Brazilian tourism destination.

Ouro Preto is a cultural destination, considered a World Heritage Center by Unesco since 1980. It is a historic city and has been the capital of Minas Gerais State and is important for Brazilian history due to the gold's exploration period. Nowadays, according to the stakeholders' interviews, Ouro Preto is known for its architecture, history, churches, and museums. Figure 1 demonstrates the location of Ouro Preto and other cultural destinations from Minas Gerais State.



Figure 1 – Cultural Destinations in Minas Gerais State, Brazil

Source: <http://www.brasilplanet.com.br>

The research's question is: How can stakeholders from a tourism destination support meta-hospitality moments? This study aims to identify stakeholder's roles, capabilities, and the environment from a cultural tourism destination. The study contributes by proposing a framework for meta-hospitality in tourism destinations. The longitudinal approach also helps with understanding the destination development throughout the years, providing a richer analysis of the object.

Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative approach and aims using the etic-emic-etic cycle to understand stakeholder's behavior in a tourism destination when seeking to provide an experience for customers. The Emic-Etic-Emic cycle provides both breadth and depth to research (Punnett et al. 2017). Moreover, the use of mixed-methods benefits the obtaining of rich and valid results (Behnke et al. 2014).

The emic-etic-emic cycle helps on understanding management both from a local perspective and a global context. "The emic approach serves best in exploratory research, and the etic approach is best for hypothesis testing." (Punnett et al., 2017:2). For the authors, the interplay between etic and emic perspectives within the research process explains what is unique to some contexts and compare it globally to variables of interest. Studies in hospitality have not used this cycle yet, and tourism studies have used it only recently and in two papers from 2016 and 2018 (Rodrigues et al. 2018).

For the first emic approach, data were collected personally with stakeholders of Ouro Preto, Minas Gerais, Brazil, including hospitality managers and owners, students, researchers, residents and government agents (Table 1). Therefore, stakeholders developed different tourism-related activities. The

aim was to identify stakeholder's roles, capabilities, and the environment from a cultural tourism destination

One of the authors took in-depth interviews to understand stakeholder's roles in a tourism destination from June to August 2013. Snowball sampling was used to identify relevant participants of the research. The interviews were mainly conducted in the participant's office, home or in a local coffee shop, which helped the researches to have a broader understating of the participants and their environment. All interviews were recorded and lasted about an hour.

Then, six years later, in January 2019, we contacted the stakeholders by e-mail and personally for a study actualization. From the 12 stakeholders, 7 were available for a new interview. Also, some stakeholders recommended the contact with other local players and we included 5 new stakeholders in the data collection. We find this strategy crucial, once there is a lack of longitudinal studies with tourism stakeholders, and we could understand better the tourism development in the tourism destination.

Table 1 – Interviewed stakeholders

Stakeholder	Gender	2013	2019	Occupation
A/1	M	x		University Professor and Member of Tourism Council
B/2	M	x		Entrepreneur, Travel Agent
C/3	F	x	x	Hostel Manager
D/4	M	x	x	Entrepreneur, Restaurant sector
E/5	M	x	x	Photographer and Communicator
F/6	M	x		Graduation Student
G/7	M	x		Journalist
H/8	M	x		Government Agent, Entrepreneur, Restaurant Sector
I/9	F	x	x	Engineer and Tourism Researcher
J/10	F	x	x	Tourism Manager in a regional development organization
K/11	F	x		Government Agent
L/12	M	x	x	Local tourism Guide
13	F		x	Local agency & Hostel Manager
14	M		x	Government Agent, Entrepreneur, Tourism Operations, Communication and Food & Beverage Sectors
15	F		x	Public Server, Tourism Agent
16	M		x	Entrepreneur, Hotel Sector, Tourism Student
17	M		x	Tourism Guide, Musician

Source: The Authors

The interview questions in the first interview aimed to understand the relationship of the stakeholder with the destination, tourism attraction, and satisfaction, local problems, and tourism promotion. The second interview aimed at understanding the differences in tourism development from 2013 to 2019. The interviewer also took field annotations during a four-day immersion in the destination.

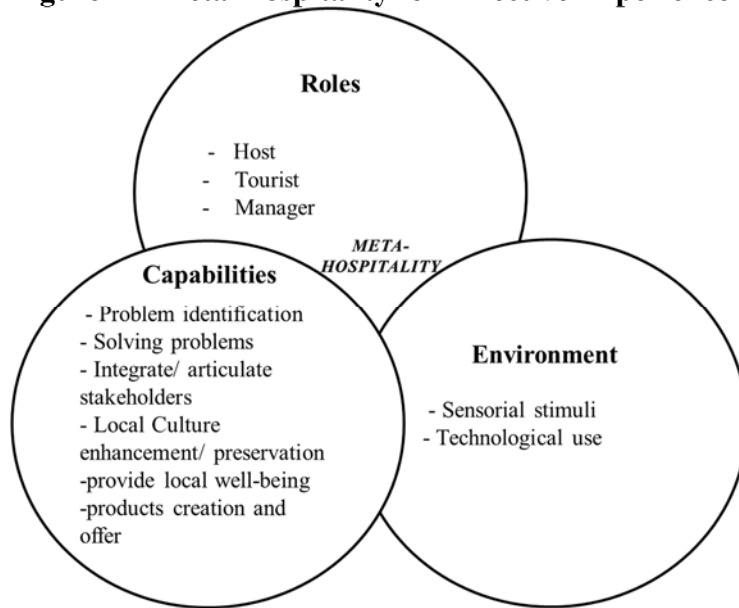
Content analysis was used for data analysis guided by Bardin (2008). After data collection, all interviews were transcribed. The categories were not predefined once few studies have studied meta-hospitality, although it followed hospitality literature and were directed by Lugosi's (2008) meta-hospitality categories: roles, capabilities, and ecology, which was renamed as 'environment'. The researchers wanted the environment to sound like a category that includes both nature and constructed physical evidence.

Quotes which were either similar or too different among the respondents were marked for categorization. The following emic and etic approach will be conducted posteriorly.

Results & Discussion

Findings include a new understanding of meta-hospitality in a tourism destination through the stakeholders' lenses. We discuss the results in 4 different categories, 1) roles, 2) capabilities, 3) environment and 4) tourism development. Figure 2 condenses the main findings of the study.

Figure 2 – Meta-Hospitality for Affective Experience in Cultural Tourism Destination



Source: The Authors

Roles

Stakeholders assume diverse roles related to their attachment to the city; these roles are multiple and interchangeable such as pointed by Lugosi (2008). Results demonstrate that these roles are mainly related to stakeholders' moment in life and profession. Figure 3 condenses some of the assumed roles when stakeholders talked about their relationship with the city, clarifying their responses at 2013 and 2019 and those who were contacted only once.

Figure 3 – Stakeholders' Roles in a Cultural Tourism Destination

Stakeholder's Role 2013	Stakeholder's Role 2019	New Stakeholders 2019
1A Ex-student Professor Researcher Council member	1A Ex-council member New role management role in the university. (E-mail contact, no agenda for an interview.)	13M Tourism Student Hostel & Tourism Operator Manager Fraternity resident
2B Student Entrepreneur Council attendant	2B (Couldn't be reached)	14N Tourism Secretary Government Manager Entrepreneur Tourism Director in a regional development organization
3C Hostel Manager	3C Hostel Employee	15O Lifetime resident

Religious Practitioner	Host	Public Server Tourism Agent
4D Lifetime Resident Entrepreneur Tourist	4D Resident Entrepreneur (have opened new restaurants) / Host	16P Entrepreneur Hotel and Loges owner Tourism Student
5E Employee Movie Theater Manager Photographer Local website founder Host	5E Photo Atelier owner Photographer Offers photo courses and experiences/ Host	17Q Tourism Guide Musician Lifetime resident
6F Student Event Organizer Ex- Fraternity resident Tourist Host	6F (Couldn't be reached)	
7G Ex-television Worker Convention & Visitor's Bureau Manager Student Honorary Citizen	7G Hostel Manager Council attendant	
8H Student Professor Government Agent Entrepreneur	8H (Couldn't be reached)	
9I Ex-Student Researcher Writer Tourist	9I Cultural Project Manager Works in a neighbor city	
10J Regional Development Agent	10J Regional Development Agent	
11K Ex-travel agent Tourism Government Agent	11K Retired from the position (Third part information, no personal contact)	
12L Local Guide	12L Local Guide	

Source: The authors

For Lugosi (2008:146) there are four roles in meta-hospitality encounters. “These include: a) instigator, who initiates the focused activity that becomes the basis of association; b) accelerator or enhancer, who intensifies the interaction and thus reinforces its significance; c) director, who shapes the patterns of the interaction and the direction in which it develops; and d) facilitator, who plays passive or active roles in the development of the encounter”

We state that, when moving from a venue to a destination perspective, the four roles could be synthesized into management roles. Every resident is capable of enhancing, facilitating, instigating and directing a hospitable moment. For example, Host E provides a photo experience at Airbnb activities platform, and Host Q plays music in touristic attractions. Thus, we argue that the main role necessary to provide an emotional experience is to manage how the hosts deliver and interact with the guests.

One role that comes to attention is the Tourist role. Ouro Preto's residents (Hosts D, F and I) mention particular moments when they act like a tourist in their city. Host N reinforces that local schools must provide cultural and tourism education for locals.

I had been about three years [living in Ouro Preto], and I have never stepped into a church. I stopped to take a tour in town. At that time I met all the churches and museums in town. And I found it so much nicer than I thought. *Host F, male.*

I think it is surprising to come to Ouro Preto. I am always here, walking through the streets and I like this. I am always walking, and I am surprised by some things, and I think the city can be better maintained. *Host D, male.*

In my childhood, my grandmother lived here, so Ouro Preto is a place of my imagination. It is a place where I always wanted to come. The dream of my life was my mother living in Ouro Preto. *Host I, female.*

Three hosts mention how residents act as a host in the destination.

I think the Ouro Pretano lives well with the tourists. *Host H, male*

But when you welcome someone into your home, you have to welcome him well. (...) There are 25 historical cities near Ouro Preto, so everyone is looking for a different service. So, I think Ouro Preto [citizens] have to wake up, and like the town, the Ouro Pretano (who was born in Ouro Preto) have to like their town to be able to receive well, to value what it has. *Host E, male*

Many people who come from outside, for example, my brother came to the city a few times, you want to welcome the person well. And you will receive well by partying. If the person stays 2, 4, 3 days, you set up a party every day that you want. *Host F, male*

Firstly, he has to find the city very straighten to make him feel good here. *Host K, male*

Host F comments about how the student houses (or fraternities) are a place where the role-change scenario is constant. Besides receiving friends and relatives for parties, the fraternities are places which receive tourists during Carnival for a package where they can sleep and drink during the stay. He states the fraternity members uses the money for house maintenance, such as roof repair, electronics' purchase, and other activities.

Every time that you are in a Fraternity, the environment is very familiar. So always there are always parents visiting. We even encourage parents to come and visit. We always have a family party in the Fraternity where we call the students and the families of the residents. And there is also the October 12th which is a party for the students, which is a meeting party. (...) During the Carnival, we promote the Carnival packages for people to come and stay in the Fraternity. Then we get the money to keep the Fraternity during the carnival. *Host F, male.*

Silva & Brusadin (2014) state that fraternity stay at Ouro Preto offers cultural trade and intention to return to the destination. In the other hand, authors also present the lack of privacy, lack of professionalism and disorganization as the weakness of fraternities accommodation (Silva & Brusadin 2014). This information highlights the importance of the environment for hospitable moments.

Environment

Hosts seem to be concerned not only about the guest's attendance, but also the many sensory stimuli the environment can evoke. According to Hemmington (2007) services are led by the customer, while the

hosts are those who lead the hospitality experience. Environment sensorial stimuli were observed such as lightning, music, food and beverage options, smells, uniforms and decoration on bars, restaurants, and accommodations. Schmitt (2011) highlights the importance of the use of sensorial stimuli for experience's managers, but more research is necessary to deepen the theme in hospitality.

The possibility of surprising guests is also an important outcome for affective experiences. For example, host E offered the researcher to take her photo using an antique camera. The host I offered a coffee in her grandmother's house after the interview. These examples can demonstrate how the environment can orchestrate an affective experience among guests and hosts. Our findings suggest that technology also supports surprise and novelty for guest's experience, either to reinforce personal ties (those who have either lived the experience with you or you will share it virtually) or to build new ones (strangers, hosts). Previous literature connect technology to personalization and co-creation processes (Neuhofer et al. 2015; Buhalis & Foerste 2015), but technology also supports decision-making, localization, communications, and entertainment. Technology suppresses guest information need and help them solve problems, share experiences, and store memories (Wang et al. 2012).

One must consider that most of the hospitality experience is created to provide social engagement, either virtually or in real time. Technology can enhance guest-host connections through social media, as new bonds and friendships. One of the hosts has asked the guest to present an ID through WhatsApp. However, afterward, she sends useful information about the city, a guide contact and a beautiful poem. However, these connections have to be sense-making; otherwise, the link might not be strong enough to behold a social engagement (even if only virtual).

Capabilities

The research findings point out the emotional entanglement of the stakeholders with the city, without closing their eyes to the destinations' problems. From all the stakeholders interviewed, only Host L was not an Ouro Preto's resident. For her, "I love Ouro Preto, but I think it is expensive." Other respondents express their feelings, but all of them were able to point out the problems the city faces, especially in 2013.

I have a sense of belonging to the city. *Host A, male*

It is a relationship of love. *Host I, female*

It is good to live here, here is interesting. *Host G, male*

For example, here everything is beautiful, wonderful, a reference destination, but the periphery there, I will tell you, needs many things. There are many places there that do not have pavement, which has no tap water, does not have a nursery for the children and not even entertainment. *Host L, male*

These results demonstrate that two central host's capabilities are to identify and solve problems. Ouro Preto traditionally holds a touristic approach but in 2013 stakeholders pointed out problems such as the government perception of tourism activity as a low contributor for the local economy, lack of nightlife, lack of employee training and qualification (Coelho et al. 2016).

These problems seem to be at least partially settled in 2019. The main difference is that due to the Brazilian economic crisis and the reduction on the tax venues from the exploitation of iron mineral, stakeholders see tourism as an economical alternative and as a natural vocation of the city. Some hosts have also demonstrated they are training staff and are particularly interested in service provision for the guests. Stakeholders M, N and P also commented about an approximation between the local university and local community.

The integration and articulation of stakeholders are present in the destination through several related institutions and committees. Stakeholders seem to be depending less on governmental support and articulating their own objectives and responsibilities.

Stakeholders are also promoters and keepers of local culture. The literature demonstrates that group activities pré and during the trip are central to learn and understand cultural variations, including meetings, homestays, and contact with local people (Fairley & Tyler 2009). In the study, hosts were keen to tell local histories and particularities.

Stakeholders developed new products during the 6 year period of the research. Host N cites new restaurants, new bars, and new tourism policies directions. Also, there are unexplored regions and attractions in Ouro Preto and districts which are more popular among tourist now. Examples are a local district called Lavras Novas, which has received paving; a city tour in antique buses provided by Host M. Product innovation refers to ideas that have been implemented and are commercialized, being managerial and collaborative elements essential acquire competencies (Hjalager 2010).

Another direction of new products is to provide experience for guests. Host E provides photo experiences, and hosts C, D and E cites new gastronomic experiences. Indeed, many researchers point out to the growth of experience economy (Pine & Gilmore 2011), including in tourism and hospitality activities (Tresidder 2015; Oh et al. 2007; Hosany & Witham 2010).

Tourism Development

Finally, the longitudinal approach helped on identifying tourism development in the destination. Hosts agree on how tourism is standing as an important destination activity for the local economy. (Figure 4).

Figure 4 - Main differences in tourism destination development

Main developments from 2013 to 2019	Problems that persist in 2019
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Network • More hosts participation • New products and experiences (in Ouro Preto and some districts) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of a Marketing Plan • Small fragmented projects • Economical crisis • Social problems (health, unemployment)

Source: The authors

Byrd (2007:12) points out some indicators for successful sustainable tourism development: stakeholder knowledge, perceived impacts of tourism development, support for tourism development, resident involvement in tourism development, local resident participation in planning, availability of resident advisory board, host community attitudes toward tourism development. Our findings are related to Byrd's directions once it reinforces the importance of stakeholders involvement in order to provide new products and enhance guests experience.

Conclusion and Implications

In order to provide affective experiences, hosts can reflect on their roles, capabilities, and environment. This research proposes a framework synthesizing the main characteristics hosts may exert to orchestrate consumers' experiences.

Not only tourists' satisfaction should be considered in cultural destinations' management. Understanding stakeholders' relation to the city itself and knowing their point of view should be the focus of managers and government agents, and maybe even, priorities in order to promote the necessary changes in the destination experience.

Finally, further investigation is still needed to understand meta-hospitality and product innovation in destination management better. We will proceed with the Etic approach in the future through a survey to understand residents' perceptions of their roles, capabilities, and environment in the destination. A final emic approach will triangulate these results.

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STRATEGY-AS-PRACTICE: PRELIMINARY EVIDENCE FROM ACCOMMODATION SMME
OWNER-MANAGERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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Abstract

Our study is one of the first in response to calls for research on strategy-as-practice in SMMEs from an emerging market perspective, specifically in Africa which is largely absent from published research. We explored the strategising practices of the owner-managers of successful accommodation SMMEs in Tshwane, South Africa, the leading tourism destination in Africa. We employed a qualitative case study, collecting data by interviewing a judgement sample which was thematically analysed and typical of strategy-as-practice research which is descriptive by nature. These accommodation establishments survived beyond the threshold period of SMMEs; and they ascribed the success to their strategising practices which were informal, deliberate and emergent, while customers were central. Thus, strategising benefits SMMEs.

Keywords: strategy-as-practice, tourism, accommodation, SMMEs, emerging economy (Africa), strategising practices

Introduction

The importance of sustainable small, micro and medium-sized enterprises (SMMEs) is widely recognised in developed and emerging economies in terms of economic growth, employment generation and social development (Herrington, Kew, & Mwanga, 2017-18; ILO, 2015). The threshold period for SMME survival in South Africa (SA), the focus of this study, is typically four years, like that in other emerging economies (Ahmad, Jabeen, & Khan, 2014; Herrington et al., 2017), but lower than in developed economies (Beaver, 2007; Herrington et al., 2017). SMMEs, dominate the tourism industry (World Tourism Organisation, 2018); and as such, they can potentially play a vital role in this industry, a growth sector which (Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report, 2017) outperformed the global economy for the 8th consecutive year in 2017 (World Travel and Tourism Council, South Africa, 2018). The tourism industry contributed 10.2% of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and generated 10% of global employment opportunities (Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report, 2018).

South Africa remains the leading tourism destination in Africa (Rogerson, 2013a; Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report, 2018) and contributed 8.9% to GDP in 2017, making it one of the largest contributors to the South African GDP; and it is on par with global averages (SEDA, 2018). It is expected that the SA tourism industry will contribute 10.1% of GDP by 2028, while employment will increase from 1,530,500 or 9.5% in 2017 to 2,082,000 jobs or 11.1% by 2028 (World Travel & Tourism Council

South Africa, 2018). The accommodation sector, an important part of the tourism industry (Kim & Oh, 2004; Rogerson, 2013a), contributed the second most to tourism's direct gross value added in SA in 2017 (Statssa, 2018, February). In terms of employment, overall, SMMEs provided 49.3% of all employment opportunities in the accommodation sector in SA, of which micro-enterprises contributed the most (35.8%) (Statssa, 2018, February). This observation is in line with the notion that SMMEs in emerging economies are a substantial provider of jobs (ILO, 2015).

Despite the importance of SMMEs to economies, research has shown that the nature of SMMEs and the hospitality/tourism industry pose challenges that lead to SMMEs failing within the first few years of operation (Ahmad & Arif, 2016; Beaver, 2007; EY, 2017; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2009; Rogerson, 2013b), as mentioned. One of the reasons for the failure of SMMEs, regardless of the industry and location, is the lack of management skills (Ahmad & Arif, 2016; Beaver, 2007), in particular, strategising skills (Ahmad et al., 2014; Barros, Hernangómez, & Martin-Cruz, 2016; Beaver, 2007; Brinckmann, Grichnik, & Kapsa, 2010; Thomas, Shaw & Page, 2011; Verreynne, Meyer, & Liesch, 2016). 'Strategising' refers to what management does and the kinds of activities they perform when formulating, implementing and monitoring (control) strategies to improve organisational performance; that is, goal achievement (Carter, Clegg, & Kornberger, 2008). The lack of management skills, specifically strategising, is a matter of concern because strategising is regarded as a means of assisting SMME owner-managers in securing long-term survival and growth for their businesses (Beaver, 2007; Nordqvist & Melin, 2010; González-Rodríguez, Jiménez-Caballero, Martín-Samper, Köseoglu, & Okumus, 2018; Okumus, 2002; Okumus, Köseoglu, Morvillo, & Altin, 2017).

Moreover, due to the limited research on SMMEs, strategising in the hospitality/tourism industry, specifically the lodging/accommodation sector in emerging economies in Africa (Ahmad & Arif, 2016; Harrington, Chathoth, Ottenbacher, & Altinay, 2014; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2011; González-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Okumus et al., 2017; 2014; Rogerson, 2013b; Thomas et al., 2011), the advantages of strategising in SMMEs are not likely to materialise (Barros et al., 2016; Beaver, 2007; Brinckmann et al., 2010; Verreynne et al., 2016). Such research might assist SMME owner-managers in the hospitality/tourism industry and accommodation sector in emerging economies to better manage their businesses. (Ahmad & Arif, 2016; Ahmad et al., 2014; Barros et al., 2016; Beaver, 2007; Brinckmann et al., 2010; EY, 2017; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2011; Harrington et al., 2014; González-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Okumus, 2002; Verreynne et al., 2016). Emerging economies, specifically those in Africa, are taking on an increasingly important position in the world economy on account of strong and sustained growth rates which make them an attractive investment destination (EY, 2017). South Africa is similarly an attractive travel destination, as reflected in the increased number of tourist (overnight visitors) arrivals, especially from the USA, Europe, China, India, Brazil and Africa (Statssa, 2018, June). In the instance of SMMEs, the owner is usually the manager (Beaver, 2007; Thomas et al., 2011) and is ultimately responsible for strategising. Given the challenges faced by SMMEs; those pertinent to the hospitality/tourism industry and accommodation (lodging) sector and those typical to emerging economies, the question arises whether SMME owner-managers will benefit from strategising. This situation is compounded by the number of authors who question the degree to which the theories and methodologies used to examine strategising in large businesses in mature, developed economies are applicable to SMMEs, specifically those in the hospitality/tourism industry and in the context of emerging economies, which is a call for further research (Barros et al., 2016; Beaver, 2007; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2009; Okumus 2002; Okumus et al., 2017).

Therefore, this paper contributes to understanding the field of strategy practice in accommodation SMMEs in emerging economies by discussing the research question: 'How do owner-managers strategise in running a successful micro and small accommodation enterprise (SME), with specific reference to Tshwane, South Africa?'. The purpose of this paper is to explore the strategising practices of SME owner-

managers and to resolve whether, and how they strategise for use in practice. This question is answered by a review of the relevant strategy theory, followed by a review of strategising as related to the hospitality, tourism, and accommodation SMMEs in emerging economies. The method used to study the phenomenon in question is then discussed as well as the findings. The paper closes with conclusions and recommendations for further study.

Literature Review

The practice approach claims to open a new view on strategy by engaging with the making of strategy as an outcome fashioned out by detailed work that has been done (Carter et al., 2008). This means that the emphasis will be on formal/informal planning and strategising activities in the business. The practice perspective allows researchers to pay close attention to what is in fact happening in businesses, giving them a special sensitivity to the informal, unscripted activities through which strategies often emerge. The starting point of such analyses in small businesses is to focus on practices that have a strategic role in the sense that they form the basis of organisational success or survival – as in the instance of routines or capabilities that serve to create competitive advantage (Jarzabkowski, Kaplan, Seidl, & Whittington, 2016). Therefore, strategising relies on practices that significantly affect the process and the outcome of resulting strategies. Strategy may often emerge outside the formal process of planning; moreover, the emergent strategies are often successful and may be more appropriate than formal strategies (Verreynne et al., 2014).

Strategy is not universally defined in the literature, but usually denotes the tool management uses to adjust to changing conditions with the ultimate aim of long-term survival and growth (Ansoff, 1988; Beaver, 2007; Grant, 2016; Kim & Oh, 2004; Pettigrew, 1987). This description of strategy implies that strategy comprises the actions to set and achieve organisational goals (Grant, 2016) and the decision-making rules guiding the actions or behaviour (Ansoff, 1988) which makes strategy a complex construct. The complexity of strategy is observed in the gap between formulated and implemented strategies (González-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Mintzberg, 1994). As such, it is understandable that strategy has been described as a powerful, but elusive concept (Ansoff, 1988); and it is expected that scholars will differ to some degree (Jarzabkowski et al, 2016; Okumus et al., 2017). Notwithstanding the differences, there is a consensus that strategy consists of four interrelated dimensions, namely ‘content’, ‘process’, ‘context’ and ‘outcome’, which are dynamic rather than sequential by nature.

Content. Content refers to the ‘what’ of strategy and deals with issues, such as what the organisation does; and relates to the investment decision (Grant, 2016), specifically decisions in connection with: (a) the products and services to be offered; or the scope of the business, which is associated with the mission, goals and objectives of the organisation; (b) the markets to be targeted, (including customer/market orientation); and (c) the approach taken to secure a competitive advantage – the hallmark of an effective strategy (Barney, 1991; Porter, 1988). Competitive advantage, in brief, represents something that the organisation does better than or differently from its competitors in drawing customers, (Porter, 1998) and therefore allows the organisation to earn above-average industry profits (Porter, 1998; Grant, 2016). Competitive advantage has been portrayed as valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable (Barney, 1991), while it comprises three interdependent elements, namely (a) the arena where the organisation chooses to compete; (b) customer value; and (c) access to the required resources (tangible and intangible) (Penrosian-sense), competencies (ordinary and dynamic, described by Teece, 2018) and capabilities (skills, routines, activities including knowledge, creativity, culture and management style) derived from combining resources and capabilities (Barney, 1991; Teece, 2018) to provide customer value in the chosen arenas.

Process. Process pertains to the way in which the organisation decides what to do and concerns the ‘how’, ‘who’ and ‘when’ of strategy shaping (Jarzabkowski et al., 2016; Okumus et al., 2013; Pettigrew, 1987). Process is associated with tactical decisions and generally encompasses action plans, policies and procedures (Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2009). However, Harrington and Ottenbacher (2009) point out that a decision may be either strategic or tactical, depending on the position of the stakeholder in the organisation; and that strategic and tactical decisions can have long-term impacts on the performance of the organisation. ‘How’ refers to the sophistication of the process, for example, the frequency of planning meetings; the comprehensiveness of the plans in terms of market analysis and forecasting and models and frameworks, including the techniques and tools that are being used (Brinckmann et al., 2010; Nordqvist & Melin, 2010). It also includes whether the process is formal/informal, deliberate/emergent or a combination (Brinckmann et al., 2010; Mintzberg, 1994); the social settings and places where strategising occurs (Nordqvist & Melin, 2010; Verreynne et al., 2016); and how the strategy will be implemented. ‘Who’ refers to the role players involved in strategy shaping and whether the process is individualistic/centralised or collective, with inputs from stakeholders, whether internal and/or external such as employees, customers, supply chain members and external consultants (Nordqvist & Melin, 2010; Verreynne et al., 2016). ‘When’ refers to whether the process is iterative or episodic by nature (Pettigrew, 1987; Grant, 2016).

Context. Context refers to the ‘where’ of strategy and relates to the internal and external environments. The internal environment refers to the organisation itself, while the external environment in which the organisation operates encompasses its nature (stable, volatile, domestic), location (regional, global) and variables from the sub-environments such as the economic, political and social that impact strategy effectiveness (Barros et al., 2016; Brinckmann et al., 2010; Okumus et al., 2013; Pettigrew, 1987; Verreynne et al., 2016). **Outcomes.** Outcomes refer to whether the intended goals were achieved and to what extent – performance (Brinckmann et al., 2010; Jarzabkowski et al., 2016; Okumus et al., 2013; Pettigrew, 1987). However, it should be mentioned that authors do not use identical labels to identify these dimensions; and they often merely imply that one or more of these dimensions is/are the focus of their investigation. In addition, the dimensions have not received equal attention in research (Okumus et al., 2017).

Strategising studies

The most recent synthesis reviews on strategy and strategic management in the hospitality and tourism industry (Harrington et al., 2014; Okumus et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2011) demonstrate that there is a paucity of studies on SMMEs in the sub-sectors of tourism, especially accommodation, from an emerging economy perspective, which explains how organisations conduct strategic planning, which includes attention to content and process and the resultant outcomes. It was also noted that strategising received attention in the late 1980s, the 1990s and early 2000s, which has since declined. Additionally, strategic planning has persisted as one of the most popular management tools among strategy practitioners, which is consistent with the Bain Brief Management Tools and Trends Survey which found that strategic planning has endured over the last 25 years as one of the most commonly used management tools (Rigby & Bilodeau, 2017). It was observed that theoretical and empirical developments in the academic literature had been slow and that it lagged behind practice, implying that theory may be irrelevant to practice. Some studies observed that research into strategic management in the hospitality and tourism industry is typically shaped by mainstream strategic management literature. However, this paper is nuanced to consider the unique characteristics of hospitality and tourism (Harrington et al., 2014). In contrast, some scholars question the applicability of ‘mainstream’ theories and methodologies to explain phenomena,

like SMMEs, in the hospitality and tourism industry in emerging economies (Thomas et al., 2011). Hence, scholars called for further research to close the gap, which this study aims to do.

Method

An exploratory, qualitative case study was the appropriate design for the purposes of this study, which we employed following De Massis and Kotlar (2014) and Flyvbjerg (2006) to investigate the (complex) problem in its real-life context (Yin, 2014). Generally, qualitative case studies are associated with interpretivistic, philosophical assumptions which hold that knowledge is constructed rather than revealed; and, if rigorously executed, meet the criteria for trustworthiness; that is, reliability and validity (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014; Flyvbjerg, 2006), namely, credibility; dependability; transferability (generalisability); transparency and replication (reliability) and thus contributes to knowledge production. We chose Tshwane for this study because Tshwane is the administrative capital of SA located in Gauteng which is the economic hub of SA and contributes the most (34%) to the GDP of the country (Stassa, 2016, July). Moreover, the vast majority of SMMEs (35%) operate in Gauteng; and most SMMEs are active in trade and accommodation (39%). Most of the trade and accommodation SMMEs (32%) are located in Gauteng; and most SMMEs are classified as informal (68%) and 74,9% are black-owned (SEDA, 2018). The majority of employment opportunities (56%) are in formal SMMEs, of which 38% are filled by females (SEDA, 2018). On average, an SMME employs three persons (SEDA, 2018) and is therefore a micro enterprise (Republic of South Africa, 2004).

We also describe how we ensured credibility before, during and after data collection. Interviews were the main source of primary data collection from owner-managers, the unit of analysis by using an interview guide based on a review of the relevant strategising literature (both mainstream, SMME, hospitality, tourism and accommodation) as advised by De Massis and Kotlar (2014) and Flyvbjerg (2006). The interview guide was piloted; and the interview questions were guided by identified themes, in this instance strategising, for example, what, how, who, where, and when. Before the interviews started, the participants were notified about the purpose of the study and that their participation was voluntary, anonymous and confidential as per the ethical clearance obtained from the institution where the researchers are employed. In addition, the participants could withdraw at any stage without negative consequences. The participants were further informed that the data collected would be used for academic purposes, including publications on a future date. Pseudonyms were used to protect the anonymity of participants – BED 2, 3 and so forth. Throughout the interview the researcher checked that the participants understood the constructs/concepts in the same way. The interviews were recorded and the participants were requested to check the transcribed interviews for accuracy. The researchers also triangulated information on the website/brochure of the SME with the data obtained from the interview and between interviews to see if the data corresponded or differed between cases (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014; Flyvbjerg, 2006).

The Yellow Pages (a telephone directory, or a section of one, printed on yellow paper and listing businesses and other organisations according to the goods or services they offer) was used to identify prospective participants listed under accommodation establishments, backpackers' accommodation, bed and breakfast accommodation, hotels and lodges, guest farms and guesthouses in view of the unavailability of a sample frame. A total of 246 establishments complying with the inclusion criteria, namely active in accommodation sector for at least four years and employing fewer than 50 persons, were identified. A purposive sample of 12 was selected based on the empirical results of Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006), demonstrating that saturation, the standard for interviews (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), occurs between interview six and 12, the point of diminishing returns (Mason, 2010; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). After selecting the participants, appointments for the semi-structured interviews were made telephonically at a time and place convenient for the participants, according to ethical requirements. In

this study, saturation occurred at interview eight, but all 12 participants were interviewed. For the purposes of this paper, data were analysed by means of thematic analysis, according to the dimensions of strategy proposed in the literature, which is appropriate for an exploratory study as recommended by Mouton (2001). Data reduction was applied by focusing, condensing and simplifying the collected material for ease of analysis (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014). The theory provided some predetermined categories and left room for original themes. The co-researchers compared their themes; and if they differed, they sought to find a mutually agreeable solution. Thus, confirmability was enhanced. Dependability was ensured by clearly stating the purpose of the study, the research methods used and how the participants were chosen by demonstrating that the research process has been logical, traceable and documented. Transferability, or the extent to which the research can be applied in other contexts (De Massis & Kotlar, 2014), is established by providing sufficient details about the context of the research to allow the readers to judge the applicability of the findings to other known settings. The main researcher kept field notes, which also ensure transferability, by documenting all aspects related to the research process.

Findings

The results indicated that small business managers practice strategising, although not in the way prescribed by mainstream strategy literature. Strategy has previously been regarded as applicable only to bigger businesses (Beaver, 2007), but this paper reveals that small businesses also strategise. Half the participants interviewed were the owners who were also the managers of their businesses; and the other half were managers who had been appointed by the owner to manage the business. There were no significant differences in strategising between the businesses who were owner-managed and those who had an appointed manager. Their responses largely coincide with the literature.

Strategy (content)

The small business managers interviewed expressed their knowledge of strategy in different ways. However, they all agreed that strategy, in general, entails having direction for the future of the business and having a mission or vision statement for improving service and customer satisfaction. They all practiced strategising in one or other form. Responses include the following:

“strategising is the way that you would approach the market or a situation or so you would basically look at where you are where you want to go and how to get there” (BED 5); “strategising means you got to plan three years ahead” (BED 2); “you have to plan for this and plan for that and you have to have future plans, strategising it’s how do u plan to maximise our clientele base and planning even for next year, it’s not for a week or a month, so we do things that will sustain us for a long time” (BED 6); “some market research to see what the competition is doing and check up on the tourism council and grading council to see if there is any new requirements or any new specifications and then I set it altogether in a plan; constantly looking for new business attend meetings attend breakfast networking where you can expand your network” (BED 10); “Long term is like what do I want to do like for instance if you want to expand you can’t just do it in the short term first of all finances you plan also the time because for timing is important” (BED 13).

Strategising process (how)

The participants mentioned that they strategise mostly informally since they do not write their strategy down, primarily because they do not have to communicate it to many people. Also, in instances where the owner is the manager, plans are made, approved and implemented almost at the same time. Some participants had plans to expand their establishments by adding more rooms. Their strategies were market-oriented, since they considered the customers’ preferences and feedback, supporting

environmental scanning and a market-orientation proposed in the literature. Responses include the following:

“get information from customers and adjust your service offering according to the preference of the customers” (BED 5); “you have a couple of strategies with the best case scenario, update your website weekly, you must check your advertisers weekly so it’s all strategising” (BED 6); “we changed our strategy and we decided no longer to be a guesthouse but in order to go for semi-permanent people like coming on courses for three months they stay here” (BED 8); “sometimes we follow to the letter but sometimes we have to bend the rules according to the situation that comes our way” (BED 13); “after planning I have to be flexible to accommodate any kind of changes” (BED 6); “no plans never work out all the time but so you move on, you change direction its ok” (BED 7); “adapt to their preferences or if something is not they don’t like something we try to fix it” (BED 9); “I don’t really write it down” (BED 12); “I would say informal because you don’t need formal planning for that you know” (BED 13).

All the participants indicated that the customer is an important part of their business; hence, all they do in the business is to make sure that the customer is satisfied. They said that the success of their business is centred on listening to guests; asking for feedback and keeping in touch with customers. Seven participants alluded to the fact that their best marketing tool is word of mouth. This shows that satisfied customers become repeat customers or bring in other customers, which keeps the business going. Customer relationship management was therefore a tool that they used when strategising for their businesses. Responses include the following:

“during stay, if they need help with anything to make their stay more pleasant” (BED 5); “after customers stay, find out whether they are satisfied, what can I do to make you a happy client... so you got to be very um sensitive to your clients’ needs” (BED 2); “keep them happy, if they are happy you are happy they come back I um these people from Hawaii they came back twice” (BED 3); “whenever they are around we make sure that they are satisfied we give them satisfaction we try and find out from them how you know how they see the hotel are they satisfied” (BED 4); “we do our best to satisfy clients, to do what they want, to make them happy, so that keeps us going” (BED 6); “by giving attention to our customers yes our guests must be made very happy pay attention to them” (BED 7); “staff also attends to them we have a questionnaire that they have to fill in when they book out and then I will give them a call and ask them did they enjoy their stay or send an e-mail and business is all about good customer service if you work with clients you have to operate quickly” (BED 10); “it’s the service you give to the guests um at the end they just to keep them happy and so on because at the end because you are working with people the whole time it’s by keeping them happy” (BED 12).

Strategising (when)

Most participants said they have plans, written or unwritten and these occurred at regular intervals, for instance, weekly, monthly or annually. This shows that the small business owner-managers in question have a sense of direction for their business, since they have future-directed plans in place. Planning is an important part of strategising, because it helps the owner-manager to set goals and work towards them rather than “storming the castle”. Responses include the following:

“formal strategising three to four times a year and informally everyday in the normal course of doing business at the establishment” (BED 5); “there is a daily and weekly and yearly, a monthly and a yearly” (BED 2); “say every two months and then we have to meet again and maybe change review whatever was planned if ever it worked we would continue on the same or not we will change and plan for other things but we do not have a standard like you know at the beginning of the year” (BED 4); “yes we do have a diary on what should I do this month, not every month is the same” (BED 6); “I do have um a questionnaire that the new customers sometimes answered and its always extremely good” (BED 7); “we have a weekly meeting on a Monday and then we do discuss um what we need to do or what went wrong

or what is needed to be done for the week and that type of thing so once a week” (BED 8); “although you plan for the week, yes like you have to sit and you need to plan so you need like um like I have for the week the month and for the month ahead so I need to see ok so next month there is occupancy” (BED 13).

Strategising (Who)

The people involved in strategising in the establishments in question were mostly internal staff and the owner- managers of the establishments. Owner-managers also used the information provided by customers to inform their strategy going forward. This also relates to environmental scanning as they seek out the current trends in the industry by finding out what customers prefer. Responses include the following:

“staff involved ask for ideas, our core management team sit regularly with the owner, it happens on a daily basis and they will strategise together and discuss things coming up, things that have happened, me and my husband, we are co-owners sometimes you see something else which is an improvement so we listen to peoples advice and especially to the guests” (BED 3); “but based on the requirements and the request from our clients we didn’t even have a DSTV so based on all that we always try as much as we can to upgrade our standard” (BED 4); “we implement it we discuss it you know as a team and then we pick up this is where we need to improvise then we try and get a better solution or to improve in the situation and then we implement it” (BED 8); “as I told you we work together as a team we discuss things if they don’t know something they will come and ask me and training that’s the main thing” (BED 8); “I listen to people’s ideas if people give me ideas and even the guests it’s important to hear it from the horse’s mouth you know because they stay here they know what they want they give you ideas and then I will you know when it comes up I will sit with all of that and I will think and I will ask also advice” (BED 13).

Outcomes of strategising

The business establishments studied had survived for between five and 23 years, which is more than the typical threshold period of four years in emerging economies. Therefore, they could be regarded as successful. They typically employed a growth (expanding) and focus (bed-and-breakfast, guest house) strategy. Some also mentioned that they had expanded and had not retrenched any staff; and they had an increase in occupancy; hence, they describe their success in different ways. Responses include the following:

“successful because our self-service bed-and-breakfast survived for 23 years” (BED 5); “where the second guesthouse is now being built um he did that um three years before but he anticipated we are going to be continually full because he can see over the past 11 years how our occupancy rate has increased” (BED 2); “when we did our research we put certain goals, like in three years’ time all the rooms must be fully furnished and we must get all the furniture, all the furniture was handmade so that was one of the plans that we successfully completed” (BED 3); “we are in the process of rebuilding, so if this place is rebuilt and we add 10 more rooms as per plan in 10 ten years’ time we will be getting another property to run” (BED 6); “soon we will be building another place with 51 rooms so we have done well” (BED 7); “but obviously in a few months or when everything is done obviously I look at expansion as well, 10 years’ time I’m already looking now to buy another property you know to move out because as I explained the demand is bigger than the supply” (BED 13); “I have improved the rooms with air cons I have improved the rooms with this and that I have got new beds and that is for me I know there is a lot of improvement all the time but every like three months” (BED 4).

Conclusion

The findings reveal that the owner-managers strategise by attending to some aspects of the dimensions of content, process, context and outcome of strategy, as illuminated in the literature. These findings can assist SMME owner-managers in strategising to secure the long-term success of their businesses. However, the process was not sophisticated. Nevertheless, this study demonstrates the success of the strategising practices of the accommodation SMME owner-manager; that is, whether informally or formally; three to four times a year, augmenting deliberate plans with emergent plans by using vision statements, customer relationship management; and environmental scanning as tools and techniques with explicit inputs from relevant stakeholders, such as employees and customers, although these plans are seldom written down. These factual conclusions can assist SMME-owner-managers in strategising to secure the long-term survival of their businesses. Moreover, these factual conclusions also demonstrate that theory, as developed in the main stream strategising literature, in developed economies pertaining to large businesses may be shareable in a different context, namely, accommodation SMMEs in the tourism/hospitality industry in an emerging economy context which supports the view of Harrington et al. (2014). In particular, the works of Ansoff (1988), Barney (1991), Pettigrew (1987), Porter (1989), Grant (2016), Mintzberg (1994), Jarzabkowski et al. (2016) and Teece (2018) are to some degree applicable. In addition, these findings provide some support for SMME literature, specifically that of Barros et al. (2016), Brinckmann et al. (2010), Nordqvist and Melin (2010) and Verreynne et al. (2016) as well as research into hospitality/tourism (Beaver, 2007; Harrington & Ottenbacher, 2009; Kim & Oh, 2004; González-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Okumus et al., 2013). Moreover, the gap in the research, as identified by Harrington (2005), Harrington et al., among others. (2014), Okumus et al. (2017) and Thomas et al. (2011) have been dealt with. The research question was answered, since it provides a better understanding of strategising in accommodation SMMEs in the tourism/hospitality industry in an emerging economy context, specifically in Africa. Thus, this article contributes to theory and practice, highlighting the importance of strategising in running a successful SMME. It specifically shows that it is important to select and utilise appropriate strategies arrived at from strategising that are fit for small businesses, considering the unique circumstances of accommodation SMMEs, the tourism/hospitality industry and the emerging economy context. Inevitably, the research has limitations, despite considerations for trustworthiness that must be taken into consideration; and there are grounds for recommendations for further study. The results of the research portray the experiences of participating SME owner-managers in the accommodation sector in a metropolitan area; and may not necessarily represent the experiences of SMME owner-managers in other sub-sectors (food, transportation) of the hospitality and tourism industry; hence, study in these sectors are recommended. Future research could be extended to other parts of the country, especially other urban/metropolitan areas and rural areas aimed at tourists, since Tshwane is rather a business destination. Therefore, the findings may differ in a tourist setting and in rural areas, which may face different conditions. Another limitation of the research was that it was cross-sectional, which precludes the drawing of causal inferences, thus longitudinal studies are recommended. Finally, the use of interviews and the relative inexperience of the lead author may be another limitation. However, in instances where the authors realised probing was inadequate, the main author could revert back to the participants to seek clarity and thus safeguard trustworthiness.

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WHY DO PEOPLE OPT FOR VOLUNTOURISM IN BANGLADESH? AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Abstract

This qualitative study aims to disclose the motivations of volunteer tourists and their perceived benefit of the activity, using push/pull theory. Thematic analysis of data from interviews (face-to-face and telephone) and focus group discussion ascertained core meanings. Findings reveal (1) push factors include the desire to give something back to society and the desire for self-exploration, (2) pull factors include learning about other social classes and the enticement of a challenge. The perceived benefits were greater self-confidence and enhanced communication, networking, and presentation skills. It is concluded that voluntourism in Bangladesh has a bright future.

Keywords: voluntourism, travel motivation, push/pull theory, perceived benefit, voluntourists.

Introduction

The nature of international tourism has been changing since the mid-1960s. As well as travelling for leisure, people are becoming interested in gaining meaningful experiences from touring, and aiming to satisfy specific desires (Germann Molz, 2015; Robinson & Novelli, 2005). One increasingly popular way that travelers can gain meaningful experience and simultaneously help the welfare of a community is through volunteer tourism ('voluntourism'). Voluntourism is evolving quickly, ensuring around \$2 billion contribution to the travel industry (Hernandez-Maskivker, Lapointe & Aquino, 2018; McGhee & Andreck, 2008). It has captured international attention. Many tour operators act as facilitators (Rogers, 2007), collaborating with charities and businesses (often to diversify funds or appear ethical, according to Callanan & Thomas, 2005), to help to raise funds for volunteer programs. Volunteer tourists (voluntourists) participate in building schools, homes, and orphanages in developing countries (Ambassadors for Children, 2008; Lo & Lee, 2011), and care for lions in South Africa (Rogers, 2007), elephants in Thailand (Carter, 2005), and sea turtles in Costa Rica (Campbell & Smith, 2006). They can conduct research on environmental or societal issues (Wearing, 2001), conserve the natural environment (American Hiking Society, 2008), teach English to children (Ambassadors for Children, 2008). In Bangladesh, voluntourism is in its infancy, with an acute need to grow because numerous social problems including unemployment, illiteracy, and child labour need to be significantly minimized. Voluntourism could make an abiding impact on the disadvantaged areas, leading to sustainability. Yet

although studies on the topic have been conducted for western countries, little has been conducted in the SE Asia region. This study aims to initiate research to reduce the gap.

Objective of the Study

The study aims to inspect the following objectives:

1. To explore motivations for voluntourism in Bangladesh.
2. To identify perceived benefits gained by voluntourists.

Literature Review

Voluntourism

Voluntourism can be defined as travel that includes activities for the welfare of a specific community. Its modern form emerged in 1990 (VolunTourism.org Travel and Volunteer Opportunities, 2018), emphasising sustainability and responsibility (Wearing, 2001; Brown, 2005). It soon came to the attention of researchers and marketers. Its core motive is altruism, powerfully developing personal growth and enhancing self-awareness while engaging in a meaningful experience (Lo & Lee, 2011; Wearing, 2001; Wearing & Neil, 2000). Voluntourists distribute necessities and resources, save the environment, or help protect endangered species (Lo & Lee, 2011; Broad, 2003; Wearing, 2001).

Theories underlying tourism and voluntourism

Voluntourism is a subset of traditional mass tourism, so motivation theories of traditional tourism can be used to find out the motivations of tourists toward voluntourism. Several theories are discussed in this section to provide a background to this study.

Popular motivation theories that have been adopted by tourism researchers include Plog's (1974) theory of types, Maslow's (1954, 1970) hierarchy of needs, approach/avoidance theory, and push/pull theory. In Plog's (1974) theory, tourists are grouped into two psychographic types, allocentric and psychocentric: allocentric tourists look for adventure and choose remote, unfamiliar destinations, and psychocentric tourists are conservative, and prefer familiarity and safety. Hudson (1999), Mill and Morrison (2002), and Pearce (1982) follow Maslow (said by Hudson to be popular because it is simple and easy to use). Hudson states that the basic physiological and safety needs are highly correlated with travel motivation—if the destination cannot meet these needs, individuals will not be motivated to visit. Mill and Morrison (2002), on the other hand, claim that the higher need for self-actualization is the ultimate goal of travelling.

Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) added the push/pull theory to the hierarchy of needs theory. Push factors are mostly socio-psychological in nature, and direct the internal craving for travel (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Snepenger et al., 2006). Of particular interest is Dann's (1977) push factor 'anomie', which is the feeling of loss of purpose. Pull factors are the characteristics of a place that pull tourists to travel towards it, in order to fulfil their needs. For reasons that will become apparent in the next section, this study adopted the push/pull theory of motivation.

Motivations of volunteer tourists

Brown and Morrison (2003) group tourists into two categories, vacation-minded and volunteer-minded. Vacation-minded tourists give only a small portion of their time to volunteering, while volunteer-minded tourists spend a great deal of their time in volunteer activities. Callanan and Thomas (2005) make a further classification: volunteer tourists are “shallow”, “intermediate”, or “deep”. Shallow voluntourists give more weight to the leisure or amusement aspect of voluntourism, the intermediate give them equal weight, and the deep give more weight to the volunteering. Chen and Chen (2011) and Lo and Lee (2011) go even further, classifying eleven volunteer motives into three groups: personal, interpersonal and "others". The personal factors include experience, travel, interest,

and challenges. The interpersonal factors include collaborating with multiple cultures, willingness to help others, and broadening relationships. "Others" include financial motives and organizational goals. In general, the majority of motives uncovered by researchers (including Broad, 2003; Broad & Jenkins, 2009; Brown & Lehto, 2005; Bruyere & Rappe, 2007; Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Campbell & Smith, 2006, Clary, Snyder & Stukas, 1996; Riecken, Babakus & Yavas, 1994) match the social and psychological needs of volunteer tourists. They are, in effect, Dann's (1977) push factors.

Identifying volunteer tourists for the present study

Volunteer tourists in Bangladesh are involved in many projects, working with various NGOs that aim to provide education to street children, reduce poverty, save the environment from pollution, empower women, distribute clothes among disaster victims, and so on. To identify a potential voluntourism market, generations of demographic cohorts were examined. Three important cohorts for marketers are Baby Boomers (boomers), Generation X (Gen X), and Generation Y (millennials). Boomers are mostly retired, and although they are active in contributing their expertise and giving back to society by volunteering, they mostly travel for leisure (Miske, 2016). Gen Xs, paying off mortgages and raising families, are also keen to volunteer, but mostly for fund-raising and activities related to their workplace or children; in other respects, this generation is generally time poor. Millennials comprise high school leavers, university students, young graduates, and young workers. They are frequent travelers (Pearce & Coghlan, 2009), do voluntary tasks during holidays (Brown & Lehto, 2005; Callanan & Thomas, 2005; Rogers, 2007), and are relatively better educated and more highly technosavvy than the other two cohorts (Howe & Strauss, 2007).

Importantly, these descriptions are generalisations, and some voluntourists of all ages are more tourism-minded than volunteer-minded (Brown & Morrison, 2003; Callanan & Thomas, 2005). Overall, however, the millennium generation appeared to have greater potential than the other cohorts as participants in this study.

Methodology

Research context

This study was conducted in Bangladesh. The *Survey on Volunteerism in Bangladesh* (2010) found that 88.8% of volunteers were engaged in informal (unpaid) volunteering, and the rest were involved in formal (paid) volunteering. This study recruited postgraduates (most had finished their tertiary education) engaged in both formal and informal volunteering.

Research Design

The main aim of the study was to identify and explore the motivations of a sample of volunteer tourists. Details of an individual's motivations can be disclosed by rigorous qualitative research, and although data analysed from observable behaviour provides more interesting insights and understanding about motives than from spoken or written words alone (Brown, 2005; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016), this method was unavailable to the current authors. Accordingly, the research was conducted using two other qualitative methods: in-depth interviews (telephone and face-to-face) and focus group discussion.

Sample and Procedure

Once ethics approval had been granted, thirty Bangladeshi Gen Y (aged 20-35) volunteer students were recruited for the study. Ten were females from the BRAC Microfinance program (BMFP), an important NGO in Bangladesh that provides credit to extremely poor women to minimize their poverty and to empower them. Twenty were male and female teachers at Charulata Biddiyapith School (CBP), established in 2012 to educate deprived children living in the slums.

To identify the major motivations and the perceived benefits from the work, two data-collection methods were used: in-depth interviews (face-to-face and telephone) and focus group. The volunteers were asked open-ended questions based on the factors of push/pull theory. BRAC participants were interviewed by phone, and CBPs were interviewed face-to-face or by phone. With the acquiescence of the participants, each interview was recorded. Both methods were employed in order to ensure cross validation of the themes indentified in the findings. Highest security was ensured, especially in the focus group where all the participants were friends and could express their feelings without fear and hesitation. Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the means to encourage open conversation by which deep insights could be exposed. The average length of the telephone interviews was 45 minutes and face-to face interviews 55 minutes, while the focus group discussion lasted for 90 minutes.

Data Analysis

The recordings were transcribed verbatim and transcripts were emailed to the participants to check for accuracy—a crucial step, as qualitative research is always questionable as to its validity, generalizability and reliability (Pan, 2012).

Thematic analysis was conducted as this is a rigorous, reliable and independent approach to analyze data and to discover themes (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013; Braun & Clarke, 2006). It is also useful because it helps to find affinities and antipathies in participants' statements, and to discover unexpected insights. Five steps were followed. First, the recorded interviews were listened to several times, and the transcripts read carefully. Second, relevant themes were inferred from the responses of the participants, and interesting and meaningful codes (factors) were listed under each theme. For example, under the theme "need to be a better person" was placed self-motivation, instigation from friends and family, and so on. Repeated data were discarded. Third, comparable codes were merged. Fourth, a copy of the themes and codes was emailed to each participant, so they could provide an opinion at a follow-up interview and to ensure the greatest reliability, authenticity and transparency of the research. Fifth, each coded factor was freely discussed, providing detailed narratives about voluntourism for potential volunteer tourists and voluntourism organizing companies.

Triangulation

Data triangulation and environmental triangulation were used to enhance validity. For data triangulation, (i) the participants had been selected from two different fields, the BMFP and the CBP, and (ii) different data-collection methods had been used. The information acquired from the participants was very similar from each group and method.

Findings

Motivations for voluntourism

To reveal the motivations, volunteers were asked several questions from two perspectives – what pushed them to participate in volunteer activities, and what pulled them. The responses revealed the major themes:

1. Push factors: (a) the desire to give back, (b) the need to be a better person, and (c) the urge for self-exploration.
2. Pull factors (a) to find out about different social classes of people, (b) to make friends with a common interest, and (c) the lure of a challenge.

1(a) The desire to give back

Feelings of responsibility, duty, and service were basic factors driving the participants to develop their careers in the development sector.

In my childhood, I read many books and learned we should stretch out our hands to needful people. I felt from my heart that I was lucky to enjoy my rights, and now it's my duty to help the disadvantaged. (Jotey, CBP teacher, aged 22)

At first I saw some of my friends were contributing. This motivated me. Now I want to come here every day for these children...I grew up enjoying all the benefits and opportunities, so I want to give something back (Nowshin, CBP teacher, aged 24)

I've always thought that a significant portion of my society doesn't get the amenities that I enjoy. I care about this. So I work with CBP and want to continue for ever. (Raihan, CBP teacher, aged 23)

1(b) The need to be a better person

Thirteen participants thought about this factor before joining. Believing themselves to be too self-centred, they hoped that voluntary involvement might make them less self-indulgent:

I always wanted to add something to my life that would satisfy me...now I feel it from my heart when I go CBP and bring a smile to the faces of those needy children (Puspo, CBP teacher, aged 25)

I used to think only about myself—poor unfortunate me, leading such a deficient life. But since coming here...I realise now how fortunate I am. (Mahtab, CBP teacher, aged 24)

1(c) The urge for self-exploration

This motivation had an influence on all participants, although most realised its strength after joining as they discovered hidden talents and grew in confidence:

At first I was shy, but now they live in my heart. (Noor-E-Jannat, CBP teacher, aged 24)

I've found in myself a new way of gathering practical knowledge about the people here. This is self-enriching in a way no words can describe. (Rizvy, CBP teacher, aged 24)

I just feel I have everything when I meet those needy but extremely happy people, see those bright smiling faces. (Mahnoor, BMFP MT, aged 25)

I've done some self-exploring—discarded the negativity and lifted the positivity to provide a beacon for the children (Tutul, CBT teacher, aged 27)

Before working here, I followed the ideology of my family and friends, but after coming here I found my own ideology. This place is really helping me to explore my thinking. (Adeeba, BMFP MT, aged 26)

I've become co-operative and patient. (Dip, CBP teacher, aged 27)

I have expanded my knowledge and the power of problem solving. I've even won a competition with an idea I got from this tour (Rizvy, CBP teacher, aged 24)

Now I think, 'I can do anything', and this is my biggest discovery. (Nowshin, CBP teacher, aged 24)

Many of the women found the confidence to work without a man's help, and to face new challenges:

At first I felt that I wouldn't be able to go anywhere without a male, but now I fully confident (Shawona, BMFP MT, aged 26)

2(a) To find out about different social classes of people

Willingness to learn from different cultures was a factor. Some were reluctant at first, as it is commonly believed that slum people are offensive and village people are unintelligent. but their views underwent a revolutionary change :

I was concerned that I only mixed with the people of my class, so I found work in CBP where I could meet outcast children. I felt that gathering knowledge from them about their lifestyle would help me a lot. (Dip, CBP teacher, aged 24)

Ever since my childhood I've heard that slum children are hostile ...After teaching them about right and wrong I've found them very gentle and respectful. (Khatun, CBP teacher, aged 24).

This work is teaching me to respect the village people and I'm gradually learning to understand them. (Sanjida, BMFP MT, aged 26)

Only when you meet a community can you feel how hard they struggle! We who belong to an elite class can help them. Just a little hope is needed (Mahtab, CBP teacher, aged 24)

2(b) To make friends with a common interest

This motivation was low to start with (although they were all sociable), but they soon experienced the strong pull of the friendly environment. Some said that their workplace was almost like family. Almost all mentioned they felt lucky:

In CBP there are many teachers from many universities and medical colleges. Without coming here I wouldn't have met them. Now I get help from them, I can share my thoughts with them, I get support when things go wrong for me. (Mahtab, CBP teacher, aged 24)

I've always been motivated to meet new people, but sometimes, after meeting them I feel something bad may happen and I try to avoid them. But in CBP I have seen the dedication among the teachers, their positivity and honesty. Truly, I have a second family in this city (Puspo, CBP teacher, aged 25)

2(c) The lure of a challenge

Twenty-eight of the thirty had spent their lives protected by friends and family. To step away from safety and be challenged by village or slum life motivated them to volunteer:

A year ago I was tied to my family and friends, but now I meet people from a different level of life. It was a challenge, but it was a really great feeling when I found that they feel comfortable about sharing all their problems with me (Sanjida, BMFP MT, aged 26)

Before school [2–5 pm], children perform laborious activities...At school I saw scratches and wounds on their hands and feet-it was criminal! Getting their parents to put a stop to it was a huge challenge. (Emdad, CBP teacher, aged 24)

At CBP, we have to face local political leaders. Managing them strategically is incredibly challenging. (Rizvy, CBP teacher, aged 24).

We are provided with stress management training here. It has taught us to manage stress in a constructive way as it is a part of our life. (Tisha, BMFP MT, aged 27)

PERCEIVED BENEFITS OF THE EXPERIENCE

The participants were positive about all aspects of their experience, and all have observed beneficial changes in themselves. Five key perceived benefits were identified in this study.

Change in life view

The close observation of the afflictions of poverty opened their minds and a brought sense of sharing. Many participants said that they felt blessed. Through their experiences, they discovered new strengths: of adaptability, tolerance, patience, understanding, and ability to analyse problems and handle critical situations.

This finding supports Germann Molz's (2015) and Lo and Lee's (2011) conclusions: that privileged voluntourists gain compassion and the feeling that they are living a blessed life.

Successfully enhancing relationships

Around 70 percent of the participants stated that they had succeeded in building relationships with the villagers and children. The others said that building and enhancing relationships was a continuing process. Most expressed the joy of feeling welcome in their communities; it seems that when the disadvantaged know that they can rely on the volunteers and accept them, a successful alliance has been formed.

Stress management

Twenty-eight participants perceived this benefit to themselves. Stress management programs encourage the volunteers to accept more challenges. As well as practising the techniques learnt from the programs, just seeing a smiling face erases stress and provides the energy to carry on.

Improved learning and teaching methods

All had been taught traditionally: by drills, memorising, and repetition. Now they understood the importance of practical knowledge, interactive teaching, and two-way learning as ways of helping others understand and want to learn. This finding is consistent with Kitney, Stanway & Ryan (2016) who explained how shared experience enhanced and encouraged learning.

Development of personal growth

All the participants have fostered their new skills of communication, presentation, management, decision-making, and leadership. They can adapt to and cope with any problem without hesitation. Their horizon of knowledge is expanding daily.

Conclusion

The article explored and identified the motivations that impelled Bangladeshi students to volunteer their help and to continue offering their help. It also identified many advantages to the students in addition to the disadvantaged communities that need that help. The push/pull theory worked well in explaining and understanding not only the motivations of the voluntourists (the sociopsychological drives of the push factors and the attractions of the pull factors) but also their motives to continue to work in their communities.

This study had its limitations. First, the participants were from two specific voluntary programs, and may not be generalisable. However, the study's findings support many of the findings and conclusions of the literature, which suggests some generalisability. Future research could explore other volunteering aspects in Bangladesh. Second, it concentrated only on the positive aspects: lack of time prevented a more comprehensive exploration. Third, voluntourism is an interactive form of tourism which requires the participation of tour operators: this was not addressed.

Overall, this study can be considered a first step towards a thorough understanding of voluntourism as an emerging sector in Bangladesh. The general positivity of the participants in this study points to a bright future.

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SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY OF TOURISTS PARTICIPATING IN NON-ADULT NIGHTLIFE IN BANGKOK

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Abstract

It is generally assumed that Service Quality is a direct antecedent of Satisfaction. The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Theory also makes that assumption. Nevertheless, the scientific literature contains research pointing to Image as an antecedent of Satisfaction in tourism. This work provides empirical support for this model, based on a quantitative analysis of a survey among tourists participating in non-adult nightlife in Bangkok. In all instances, Quality was a worse predictor of Satisfaction than the Image After the visit to the destination. Further, in a network model, the direct path from Image After to Affective Loyalty was considerably stronger than the indirect path with Satisfaction as mediator.

Keywords: Service Quality, Tourist Satisfaction, Bangkok Nightlife, Affective Loyalty, Image Before and After visiting a destination.

Introduction

In this work, the role of Image as a determinant of Satisfaction is explored for tourists participating in non-adult nightlife in Bangkok and a quantitative comparison with the Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory is made. Usually Performance (Quality) is considered as the main antecedent of Satisfaction. Following hints and some quantitative work by previous authors in the Tourism area, it is found here that Image is the more predictive antecedent.

It was occasionally noticed that the Satisfaction of tourists after visiting tourist destinations is influenced by the Image of that destination. Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu (2014) provided a meta-analysis of 66 articles up to 2013. Wang & Hsu (2010) used the influence of Image on Satisfaction as part of a large model. This role of Image is in itself remarkable because Satisfaction is an essential construct in the theory of consumer behavior, and that theory is very well established. The basic Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1977; Oliver 1980) posits that Satisfaction is determined by the expectation about a product or service and the subjective rating of quality, and this has been empirically confirmed many times in all kind of settings for consumer purchases and services. Image does not play a role in this theory.

Image has a cognitive and an affective aspect. At first blush, the idea that Image would influence Satisfaction is implausible. One could expect that a brand Image influences the choice between brands for purchasing, but why would customers be influenced by Image in their Satisfaction after the product

is used and its Quality experienced? Why would Image still matter for Satisfaction at that point? Indeed, this is usually not the case, as can be seen in many consumer studies.

The research question of this work is: how does the Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory compare with a model that has Image instead of Subjective Quality for Satisfaction with tourist destinations and activities? Are there instances in a tourism context where Affective Image is a better predictor of Satisfaction than Subjective Quality? If so, what are the consequences for the relationship between Satisfaction and Loyalty in tourism context?

In order to test the ideas, 303 usable surveys were collected from street interceptions at several places frequented by a variety of non-Thai tourists in Bangkok. The aspects considered were food in Bangkok restaurants, service in those restaurants, bars and nightclubs, dinner cruises on the Chao Phraya river in Bangkok, night markets, and nightly guided walking tours. Besides demographic questions and questions useful for tourism marketing, the questionnaire asked structured questions about Satisfaction, quality, expectation, Image Before and After (the affective part of Image, how positive or negative the Image was), and the likelihood to recommend (affective loyalty) for each of these six aspects and for an overall assessment. Also the likelihood to return to Bangkok (behavioral loyalty) was asked. In this paper only results on Satisfaction and Affective Loyalty are reported.

BANGKOK NIGHTLIFE

This paper focuses on non-adult nightlife in Bangkok, Thailand. Much of adult nightlife is technically illegal and not completely suitable for research like this one, which is focused on concepts that are more theoretical. Survey answers in the adult field might be prone to distortion due to boasting, shame, social desirability, selection bias and many other effects. Research into adult nightlife does therefore not provide any advantages that compensate for these negative effects.

According to MasterCard, Bangkok was the most visited city in the world in 2017, with 20.5 million visitors. Those visitors spent in Bangkok \$16.36 billion (Mastercard, 2018). The city offers a great variety of destinations and attractions to visitors during the day and at night. Nightlife was chosen as the research topic because the city offers some things to do that most tourists would do anyway when they stay longer than one day. A more or less random sample will therefore catch respondents who have done most or all of those things. That is not the case with daily tourist attractions, where there is such a variety that fewer visitors will have similar experiences. Additionally, nightlife is relatively unexplored in the scientific literature.

The aspects of nightlife that were chosen were:

- Quality of the food in restaurants (not a particular restaurant, but in general),
- Service in these restaurants,
- Visits to bars and nightclubs (non-adult),
- Dinner cruise on the main river of Bangkok, the Chao Phraya,
- Visits to Night Markets (markets that start at dusk and cater to tourists as well as to locals, with art and craft, clothing, food, leatherware, souvenirs, and similar items)
- Walking tour with a local guide through some areas of Bangkok like the Chinese Quarter, the riverbanks, temples, markets, etc. Those tours can often be done in small groups and personalized to the interest of the participants.

Those experiences are independent so Satisfaction and Loyalty for each of them should be relatively uncorrelated.

Literature Review

In this section, a concise discussion is given of the salient constructs for this paper.

Quality: Measurement of the construct of Quality can be objective, for instance as a defect rate, or subjective, in the eye of the beholder. This work limits itself to Subjective Quality. Service quality has been one of the primary components of tourists' satisfaction in the tourism industry. In Caruana, Money & Berthon (2000), the authors summarize the ideas of a large number of previous works by stating that service quality is “the result of the comparison that customers make between their expectations about a service and their perception of the way the service has been performed.” In this work, the construct of Subjective Quality is defined as a rating and not further defined. It is taken here as the “perception of the way the service has been performed” (Caruana et al., 2002; Grönroos, 1984). Together with Expectations, a different construct, it forms the basis for the Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory (see later), as determinants of Satisfaction.

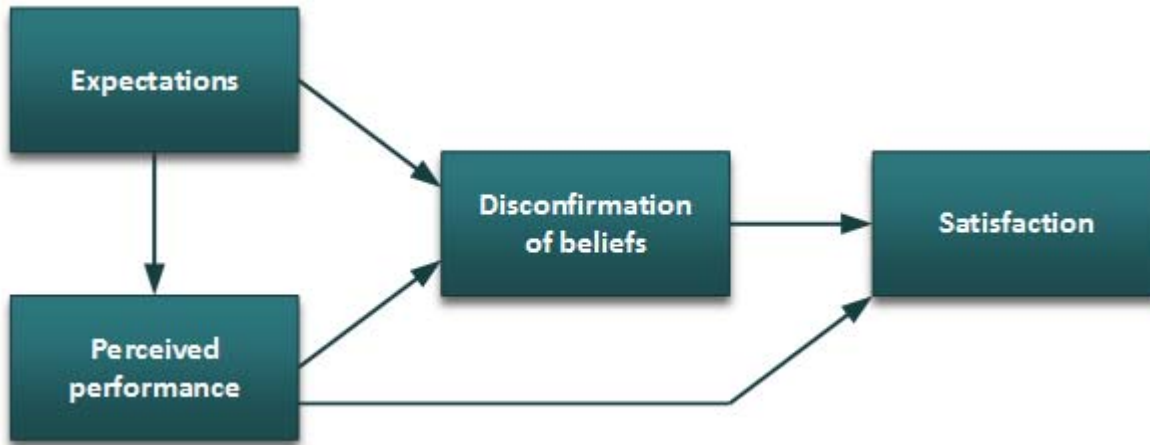
Grönroos (1984) discerns a technical dimension of service quality that relates to “what” the customer receives, and a functional dimension, about “how” the service is provided. The same distinction is made in this work for restaurant experiences. A set of questions in the survey asks about the perception of the food in the restaurants (technical dimension of the quality), and another set asks about the perceived service in the restaurants (service dimension of the quality). For the other studied aspects of nightlife, the distinction between functional and technical is not so clear. Bar and nightclubs or dinner cruises deliver a mixture of technical services (music or food or other entertainment), and how the service (the functional aspect) is provided, but this mix will be very different for different customers. The “how” dimension of the quality of a night market visit lies more in the atmosphere than in the actual service there. This is a very indirect “how” way, not directly related to direct hands-on service. The walking tour has the same conceptual issues. Therefore, only with restaurants, the distinction was made between technical and functional service and for the other aspects of nightlife, it was ignored.

Expectation: Oliver and Winer (1987) discuss aspects of expectations, like its connection to fundamental uncertainty and future events. Within his discussion of the EDP, Oliver (1980) states, “expectations are thought to create a frame of reference about which one makes a comparative judgment”. Oliver and Winer (1987) summarizes the roles of expectations in Oliver (1980) as “prepurchase beliefs or evaluative beliefs about the product.” In this work, expectations are operationalized by survey questions anchored with “high” and “low”, consistent with those discussions.

Satisfaction: The construct of satisfaction is generally not further defined in the literature (but see Yuksel and Yuksel, (2001) for an overview of attempts in this direction). It is recognized as an emotional state of well-being. Customer satisfaction is this emotional state occurring after a purchase.

Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm (EDP): The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm, also named the Expectation Confirmation theory or Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory, is a cognitive theory that seeks to explain post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction as a function of expectations, perceived performance, and disconfirmation of beliefs (Oliver, 1977; Oliver, 1980). It has been used widely for analyses about consumer behavior, consumer satisfaction, post-buying behavior and service marketing, for instance in (Oliver, 1980), (Oliver, 1999) (Tse & Wilton, 1988), (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993), (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982) and many others. It seems to be the currently most accepted theory about consumer purchases.

Figure 1
Expectancy-Disconfirmation model (figure by Soper(2014))



The model describes the following process. Consumers have an expectation about a product prior to deciding to buy it. Later, a comparison between the realized actual value and previous expectations will be made. When the realized actual value is more than their expectation, satisfaction results. The consumers have positive disconfirmation, so that they intend to buy it again in the future. In the opposite way, if the realized value is lower than their expectation, they are dissatisfied. Negative disconfirmation has occurred. In the future, they buy other products.

A number of authors have used the Expectancy-Disconfirmation Paradigm or extensions of it for tourist research.

Overview of theories about Satisfaction: Yüksel and Yüksel (2008) give a very complete overview of theories about the antecedents of satisfaction in a hospitality context and make remarks. A summary of their discussions follows here. Their work gives also the references to the original literature.

- **Dissonance Theory:** Consumers try to reduce the cognitive dissonance between expectations and product performance. Therefore, satisfaction becomes closer to expectation by reducing the disparity. This ignores tolerance levels: a big disparity is unacceptable for the consumer and it is improbable that dissonance reduction occurs. Based on field experiments, Yüksel and Yüksel (2008) comment: “It is, for instance, not clear whether all purchase decisions in tourism and hospitality services result in dissonance.”
- **Contrast Theory:** the consumer will exaggerate the disparity.
- **Expectation-Disconfirmation Theory:** Outcomes on Performance are compared with pre-purchase expectations. Positive disconfirmation, product is better than expected, leads to satisfaction. Negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction. Confirmation. If the product conforms to expectations, then this leads also to satisfaction.
- **Inferred versus direct** approach for operationalization/measurement: In the inferred approach, Expectations and Performance (Quality) are measured separately. The direct approach uses scales like “better than expected”. The research question in this work is about what performance indicator is the most predictive for satisfaction, Quality or Image. The comparison mechanism is not explicitly researched. Therefore, the inferred approach is used.
- **Expectations:** The use of expectations has been criticized in the tourism literature because expectations for a first-time visit might not exist or can be wildly inaccurate.

- **Comparison Level Theory:** The source of the Expectations in tourism may be different from the source with consumer goods, like manufacturers. In the era of social media, sources may be advertisers, previous experiences and other people. Empirically, previous experiences were the most determining for satisfaction in consumer research.
- **Value Percept Theory:** The performance of the product or service is compared with the wants, needs, desires and/or values of the consumer. This triggers an emotional response, satisfaction. Empirically, it seems that expectations are also needed. Therefore, there is a lack of support for this theory.
- **Importance-Performance model:** Satisfaction is determined by the relative importance of certain attributes for the consumer and performance of each of those attributes. Therefore, satisfaction is a weighted average of all the partial satisfactions.
- **Attribution theory:** this is not relevant for the current work, as it relates mostly to complaining behavior coming from dissatisfaction.
- **Equity-Theory:** The receiver of a service feels satisfaction if the ratio of outputs to inputs is fair. This comparison can come in its most simple form from a comparison between the price that was paid and time spent and other “costs”, and the benefits received, but it can also involve previous experiences or a comparison with the experiences of other people. Dissatisfaction can for instance occur if others are perceived to have been treated better. There is empirical support for this theory.
- **Evaluative Congruity Model:** In a simplified treatment, the model discusses states that can be perceptual cognitive states (just observed) or evoked referent states (older). States can be both, and are for instance “New Product Performance”, “Old Product Performance” (performance of a product previously used), “Ideal Product Performance”, “Expected Product Performance”, “Deserved Product Performance” (the Performance one is entitled to, similar to Equity theory), “Least Expected Product Performance” (the lowest tolerable level of the performance of the product), and others. Satisfaction can then be determined by congruities (agreement between pairs) of (for instance) the set of pairs (New PP – Expected PP), (New PP and Old PP), (Expected PP – Ideal PP), (Expected PP – Deserved PP). This theory could explain why Low Expectations followed by Low Performance leads to a different Satisfaction from High Expectation followed by High Performance. They would be similar in the EDP. Yukel and Yukel comment that as the congruities involve a “before”, the theory has problems with unfamiliar products or services.
- **Person-Fit Concept:** Tourist Satisfaction is high when there is a fit between the beliefs, attitudes and values on one hand and the activity on the other hand.

As take-away for this work, the following conclusions can serve: The general and tourist literature on factors determining satisfaction does not seem to have a commonly accepted definition or description of satisfaction itself. Further, whatever the proposed mechanism is, the literature nearly always assumes that perceived performance, Quality, is in some way a direct influence on satisfaction. This last assumption will be challenged in this work.

Loyalty: A number of authors have contributed to the theory about this construct; a classic treatment is by Oliver (1999). The framework states that Satisfaction with a product or service can lead to a sequence of stages of different types of loyalty. The first stage is cognitive loyalty, when one starts to know the product and its associated brand. After that, affective loyalty, feelings for the brand or service, develop. Those feelings can be quite complex. A third stage is conative loyalty, in which a commitment to the brand or product builds. This, in turn, can lead to behavioral loyalty, i.e., repurchase. Besides

Satisfaction, also the Image of the manufacturer, the product, or the brand influence loyalty (McMullan, 2005). The influence of Image can happen in every stage. Further, sustainers and vulnerabilities are also determinants of loyalty. A sustainer is a specific reason that can lead to a larger attachment to the brand for a particular consumer. Vulnerabilities (the terminology is from the point of view of the vendor) can pull the customer away from a path to repurchase, by offering a better price, better service, or with a tourist destination, a different form of excitement or interest and a new experience. The theory describes therefore also in a trivial way the fact that tourists often visit a destination only once. This is not because their Satisfaction is low, but because other destinations exert a larger pull so that they can experience something new and noteworthy.

Image as an antecedent of Satisfaction: In the literature, Destination Image seems to have been taken as the Image before the destination has been visited, according to Zhang et al. (2014) in their previously discussed meta-analysis of 66 publications. Their work recognizes the different definitions of Destination Image and differentiates between cognitive, affective, and overall image. It finds strong indications of the influence of Image on Satisfaction. Survey questions in the current work ask if the Image of the destination is positive or negative, and therefore Image as researched here corresponds to Affective Image. The model in this work can be most directly compared with Figure 1, hypothesis 1b, with as mediator Satisfaction, in Zhang et al. (2014).

Methodology

A questionnaire was developed in English to measure a large amount of information about tourist participating in each of the six aspects of nightlife in Bangkok mentioned before. Also information about the overall experience was asked. In this paper, only the analysis relevant to the Research Question is discussed.

The questionnaire started with a section with demographics like nationality (only non-Thai were eligible), age (over 18), gender, marital status, and questions on area of stay and means of getting information.

The survey questions on Quality, Expectation, Satisfaction, and Loyalty are particularly relevant for this work. The questions and options were formulated as follows. This shows how those constructs were operationalized. The underlining was part of the question and done for clarity. Note the explicit separation of “Before” and “After” for Image.

- How do you rate the quality of the following aspects of nightlife during this visit in Bangkok? (Please skip an aspect if you have not done it) (1)
- How were your expectations of the following aspects of nightlife before you visited Bangkok? (1)
- How satisfied are you with the following aspects of nightlife during this visit in Bangkok? (2)
- How likely are you to recommend the following aspects of nightlife in Bangkok to your friends? (3)
- How was the image of Bangkok before you ever visited Bangkok on the following aspects? (4)
- How is the image of Bangkok now on the following aspects? (4)

(1) Options: Very Low | Low | Neither Low nor High | High | Very High

- (2) Options: Very satisfied | Satisfied | Neither Satisfied nor Unsatisfied | Unsatisfied | Very unsatisfied
- (3) Very Likely | Likely | Neither Likely nor Unlikely | Unlikely | Very Unlikely
- (4) Very Positive | Positive | Neither Positive nor Negative | Negative | Very Negative

Only tourists over 18 years of age who could understand the questionnaire in English were included in the target group. 303 questionnaires on paper were given to random foreign tourists in the following areas of Bangkok: Khao San Road, piers where tourist could embark for dinner river cruises, Sathorn, Silom and Rachadamri road, and a bus terminal in the Sukhothai province, in the North of Thailand. Those different streets and areas cater to very different types of tourists, from backpackers to affluent visitors. Data was collected from July 20th to October 4th, 2018.

Results

The main result of this paper is given in Table 1 and Figure 1. The table compares the values of R^2 of regression equations for Satisfaction as dependent variable for each of the six aspects of non-adult nightlife, using Expectation and either Quality or Image Before/After.

On the left in table 1, the independent variables in the regression analysis were the Quality and Expectation rating discussed in the Methodology section. No other independent variables like age or income were used. For all aspects and Overall Satisfaction, the Expectation variable dropped out in the applied backward removal procedure or it was not statistically significant. Therefore, all regression equations were effectively a singular regression equation, and R^2 on the left is the square of the Pearson correlation coefficient r between the independent Quality variable and the dependent Satisfaction variable. With the exception of the Bar/Nightclub aspect, R^2 and the correlation coefficient are so low that Quality is not a reasonable predictor for Satisfaction.

In the middle columns, values for R^2 for a regression equation with as independent variables Image Before, Image After and Expectation are reported. Indicated is which Independent variables are significant (they survived the backward removal and their p -value is smaller than 0.05). One sees that the R^2 values have considerably improved and are convincing, although the predictive power is still not very high. In the Appendix the coefficients for the regression analyses for dependent variable Satisfaction are given in both considered cases (Quality versus Image).

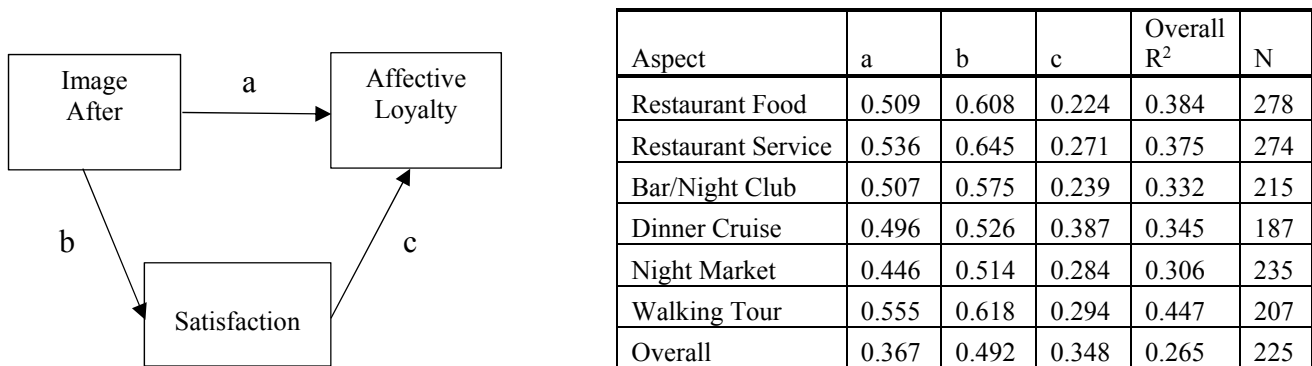
Table 1
Overview of Regression Analyses for Satisfaction; Correlations between Image Before and Expectation and between Image Before and Image After

Dependent variable	Analysis 1		Analysis 2				Image Before and Expectation ¶	Image Before and Image After ¶
	R^2 for Independent Quality	Significant retained Independents after backward removal	R^2 for Independent Image	Significant retained Independents after backward removal				
Satisfaction with:		Quality		Image Before	Image After	Expectation	r	r
Restaurant Food	0.094	X	0.209		X		.190**	.365**
Restaurant Service	0.144	X	0.303	X	X		.308**	.418**
Bar/Nightclub	0.212	X	0.272	X	X		.189**	.332**

Dinner Cruise	0.071	X	0.251	X	X		.220**	.271**
Night Market	0.126	X	0.216		X	X	.230**	.379**
Walking Tour	0.099	X	0.328		X	X	.285**	.488**
Overall	0.035	X	0.234	X	X		.265**	.375**

¶ Column “r” is the Pearson correlation. ** means a correlation for which $p < 0.01$

Figure 1
Network model for Affective Loyalty with Satisfaction as Mediator



On the right, the Pearson correlation coefficient r between Image Before and Expectation is given, together with the correlation coefficients for Image After and Expectations. In both cases, the correlations between Image and Expectation is low. This shows that the two constructs are conceptually different.

The correlation between Image Before and Image After is also low (numbers are not reported here). In the literature there does not seem to be a recognition that the image of a destination possibly changes from the experience of the visit. This work finds clear indications that this is the case.

As seen, Expectation and Quality (Expectancy-Disconfirmation model) do not affect Satisfaction in any practical way. However, Image After influences both Satisfaction and Affective Loyalty. Therefore, a simple network model is possible, with Image After as Independent, Affective Loyalty as Dependent, and Satisfaction as a mediator. The influence of Image Before was low and was therefore left out of the analysis. Figure 1 shows the outcomes in model form with path coefficients for each aspect as calculated with the SPSS PROCESS macro from Hayes (n.d.). The outcomes are the same as when regression outcomes are patched together instead of using PROCESS. It is seen that R^2 for these diagrams is very satisfactory, and that the strengths of the coefficients a , b , and c (in units based on the five-point Likert scale as discussed in the Methodology section) are roughly equal for each aspect. This shows the stability of the model. It is also seen that in this tourism context the direct influence of Image After on Affective Loyalty (coefficient a) is consistently considerably larger than the indirect path running via the mediator Satisfaction (strength $b * c$). The relatively low value of coefficient c , Satisfaction->Affective Loyalty, is in contradiction to the simple “Oliver” model for Loyalty, that reads Satisfaction-> Cognitive Loyalty -> Affective Loyalty (-> Conative Loyalty -> Behavioral Loyalty). In this network

model Image Before consistently drops out, its path coefficients are small and not statistically significant. This makes sense, because the Image changes from the experience.

Discussion

The results are not a refutation in general of the value of Expectation as a predictor for Satisfaction. It does, however, support the criticism of the value of the Expectation for Tourism contexts that was noticed in the literature review.

It is seen that Image (definitely After, and sometimes aided slightly by Image Before) provides reasonable power to predict Satisfaction while Performance (Quality) is not doing that in this hospitality research. This goes beyond (and against) the Expectation-Disconfirmation Theory. Most other treatments of Satisfaction also assume a relationship between Satisfaction and Quality, as seen in the Literature Review. This phenomenon confirms the hints in the existing literature and seems typical for Tourism contexts. In some research (Pizman & Milman, 1993) that seems to confirm the EDP, the predictive Expectation questions seem to relate more to Image.

Possible explanations are that tourists can have fun while still recognizing that the quality of the offering is low. Image may play a role because it is related to Affective Loyalty already in the standard theory. If a traveler is planning to talk about an experience (which is the standard measure for high Affective Loyalty), then its quality is less important than if it is interesting and relatable, and it is plausible that this influences Satisfaction if the Image After the event is positive (an exciting or special Image might have a positive value for the tourist even if there was not specific a high Quality). While this explanation is completely consistent with the data given here and with other discussions in the tourism literature, no data was collected in this research that can provide further empirical support for this presumption. However, the standard theory for Loyalty has Image as an antecedent. So it is not surprising that it plays a role, it is surprising that Satisfaction plays such a small role.

This explanation is only valid for the Image After. However, the literature usually uses the destination image, which is defined as the Image Before and is not highly correlated with the Image After. In many questionnaires, probably the Image After is picked up because of the ambiguous way their questions were formulated, but researchers and questionnaire designers should be careful.

Quality control is often a practical advice given to practitioners (Augustyn & Ho, 1988). This work suggests additional approaches for institutions like the Tourist Authority of Thailand, an organization under the Thai Ministry of Tourism and Sports. This research found that Image plays an important role in Satisfaction. It is therefore important to monitor and influence not only the Image Before of a destination but also to consider how the Image After is influenced by the experience of the tourists during the experience of visiting the destinations.

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APPENDIX

Table 2

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction restaurant food								
QUALITY		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lor Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
	(Constant)	2.85	0.243		0.000	2.375	3.331	
	11. Quality restaurant food	0.33	0.061	0.31	0.000	0.213	0.455	1.000

R ² = 0.144, Adjusted R ² = 0.141								
IMAGE	(Constant)	1.538	0.309		0.000	0.930	2.146	
	17. Image after restaurant food	0.608	0.071	0.458	0.000	0.468	0.748	1.000
R ² = 0.209, Adjusted R ² = 0.207								

Table 3

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction restaurant service								
		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	2.501	0.231		0.000	2.046	2.956	
	11. Quality restaurant service	0.408	0.060	0.379	0.000	0.290	0.526	1.000
R ² = 0.141, Adjusted R ² = 0.144								
IMAGE	(Constant)	0.825	0.307		0.008	0.221	1.428	
	16. Image before restaurant service	0.234	0.069	0.190	0.001	0.098	0.370	1.219
	17. Image after restaurant service	0.548	0.069	0.443	0.000	0.412	0.685	1.219
R ² = 0.303, Adjusted R ² = 0.298								

Table 4

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction bar/night club								
		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	2.2	0.227		0.000	1.752	2.648	
	11. Quality bar/night club	0.47	0.063	0.46	0.000	0.343	0.59	1.000
R ² = 0.212 Adjusted R ² = 0.208								
IMAGE	(Constant)	1.106	0.321		0.001	0.473	1.738	
	16. Image before bar/night club	0.188	0.067	0.175	0.005	0.056	0.320	1.122
	17. Image after bar/night club	0.501	0.072	0.436	0.000	0.360	0.643	1.122
R ² = 0.272 Adjusted R ² = 0.265								

Table 5

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction dinner cruise								
		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	2.788	0.281		0.000	2.234	3.343	
	11. Quality dinner cruise	0.282	0.075	0.267	0.000	0.133	0.431	1.000
R ² = 0.071 Adjusted R ² = 0.066								
IMAGE	(Constant)	1.043	0.373		0.006	0.307	1.778	
	16. Image before dinner cruise	0.247	0.081	0.206	0.003	0.087	0.407	1.111
	17. Image after dinner cruise	0.448	0.077	0.396	0.000	0.297	0.599	1.111
R ² = 0.251 Adjusted R ² = 0.243								

Table 6

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction night market								
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		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	2.718	0.240		0.000	2.245	3.190	
	11. Quality night market	0.355	0.061	0.355	0.000	0.233	0.476	1.000
R ² = 0.126, Adjusted R ² = 0.243								
IMAGE	(Constant)	1.523	0.330		0.000	0.873	2.173	
	12. Expectation night market	0.140	0.055	0.149	0.012	0.031	0.248	1.021
	17. Image after night market	0.485	0.067	0.420	0.000	0.352	0.618	1.021
R ² = 0.216, Adjusted R ² = 0.210								

Table 7

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction walking tour								
		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	2.654	0.243		0.000	2.174	3.133	
	11. Quality walking tour	0.323	0.067	0.315	0.000	0.190	0.456	1.000
R ² = 0.099, Adjusted R ² = 0.095								
IMAGE	(Constant)	0.823	0.319		0.011	0.193	1.452	
	17. Image after walking tour	0.581	0.065	0.523	0.000	0.453	0.709	1.018
	12. Expectation walking tour	0.183	0.061	0.175	0.003	0.062	0.303	1.018
R ² = 0.328, Adjusted R ² = 0.322								

Table 8

Dependent Variable: 13. Satisfaction overall								
		B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	VIF
QUALITY	(Constant)	3.323	0.255		0.000	2.821	3.825	
	11. Quality overall	0.189	0.067	0.187	0.005	0.057	0.321	1.000
R ² = 0.035, Adjusted R ² = 0.031								
IMAGE	(Constant)	1.443	0.318		0.000	0.816	2.071	
	16. Image before overall	0.229	0.067	0.219	0.001	0.097	0.361	1.184
	17. Image after overall	0.403	0.073	0.353	0.000	0.259	0.547	1.184
R ² = 0.234, Adjusted R ² = 0.227								

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Abstract

Over the past decade, amid the highly dynamic global tourism environment, many destinations have integrated local food into the tourism product in order to attract more tourists. This is not surprising, as according to the literature, local food can help differentiate destinations by offering tourists unique and authentic experiences. However, it appears that the concept of “local” food resists precise definition. This study, therefore, aims to report on a contestation around the meaning of “local” food and it proposes four dimensions representing different perceptions and judgments about what counts as “local” as indicated in this study.

Keywords: destination marketing, food tourism, local food, DMOs

Introduction

The destination marketing literature stresses the importance of differentiation by emphasising a destination’s distinctive and unique tangible and intangible products and services (Pike, 2008). What is more, the point of differentiation should be based on propositions which are sustainable, credible and relevant (Morgan and Pritchard, 2014). Thus, at the destination level, building on cultural resources and experiences becomes an important aspect in contemporary tourism (Yeoman, McMahon-Beattie, Fields, Albrecht, & Meethan, 2015). Increasingly food, as an element of culture, is being used in many destination marketing strategies, as an asset for and means of product differentiation. This is because when combined with tourism, food can provide a natural competitive advantage, not easily replicated when specific to a location and a culture (Mulcahy, 2015).

While eating is a basic human need, food can also be a tourist attraction and a reason for travel. Food has been regarded as not only being a basic psychological necessity (Tikkanen, 2007), but evidence from a number of studies suggests that food can be a tourist attraction (Henderson, 2009; Hjalager and Richards, 2002). With more and more tourists seeking new and authentic experiences, food is becoming one of the most important attractions (Boniface, 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2012; Kim and Eves, 2012). Unlike other tourist attractions, food is available all year-round, any time of day and in any weather (Kivela and Crofts, 2006).

Over the past decade, amid the highly dynamic global tourism environment, many destinations have integrated local food into the tourism product in order to attract more tourists (Robinson and Getz, 2014). This is not surprising, as according to the literature, local food can help differentiate destinations by offering tourists a unique and authentic experience (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). What is more, local food is seen as a fundamental element to creating a sense of place and providing visitors with a unique and distinctive experience (Haven-Tang and Jones, 2005). However, this begs the rather more tricky question of: what is “local”?

Despite a recent increase in the number of studies on local food and tourism, some basic tenets have not yet been established. In particular, there has been no precise definition for the term “local” food (Coit, 2008; Tovey, 2008). A number of previous studies on local food (such as for example: Björk and

Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2014, 2016; Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo, 2017) do not even address this issue. For example, Sims (2009) argues that “local” food has the potential to enhance the visitor experience by connecting consumers to the region and its perceived culture and heritage. In particular, she argues that “local” food has the potential to play a central role within the sustainable tourism agenda. However, in the article, Sims (2009) does not explain what it is meant by “local” food. Instead, by referring to a number of previous studies, she briefly acknowledges that there is the ambiguity around the concept of “local” food, however, the author does not engage in the discussion nor does she provide the definition of the term.

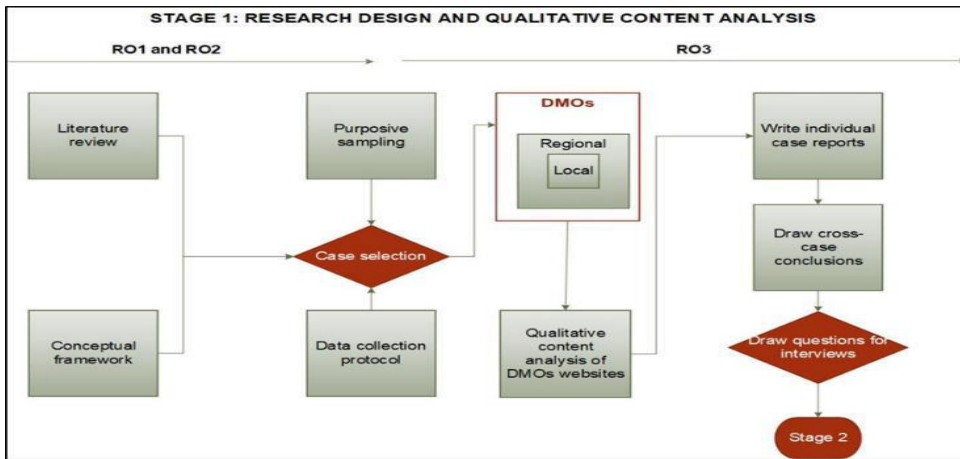
Even though some studies do define the “local”, the definitions seem to be basic and ambiguous. For example, Kim and Eves (2012) establish a 26-item scale to measure the factors motivating tourists to consume local foods in tourist destinations. However, despite their study adding to a growing body of literature on tourist consumption of local food at tourist destinations, Kim and Eves (2012) do not provide a comprehensive definition of “local” food. The authors briefly define local food as being produced in the local area (Kim and Eves, 2012, p.1461), however, their definition only adds to the confusion over what “local” is. This is alarming, as a good starting point to a discussion including local food in tourism and the marketing thereof would be to define the concept of “local”, yet it appears that some studies leave this to the interpretation, or confusion, of the reader.

This summary of the literature highlights an apparent abundance of tourism research publications that are devoted to local food. However, in recent years, there has also been a significant focus on “local” food among policymakers, advisors, and entrepreneurs worldwide (for example: National Farmer’s Retail & Market Association, 2019; Kneafsey, Lambie, Dowler and Inman, 2008). In particular, the review of the grey literature indicates that in England there is no legally binding definition of “local” food, unlike the term “organic” (DEFRA, 2016). For example, even from a purely geographical perspective, there is no single accepted definition of what constitutes a local food product in the UK, with different groups (such as: Campaign to Protect Rural England; Food Standards Agency; National Farmer’s Retail & Market Association) choosing to adopt different definitions according to their needs. Based on the above analysis, it is clear that the concept of local food resists precise definition. What is more, relatively little research into the topic has been published to date. This study, therefore, aims to report on a contestation around the meaning of “local” food. This paper also proposes four dimensions representing different perceptions and judgments about what counts as “local”, as indicated in this study by interview participants as well as through the review of the literature. This study represents an attempt to empirically explore the link between destination marketing practices and attitudes related to local food within tourism. The research findings offer specific theoretical and practical implications as well as fruitful avenues for further research.

Methodology

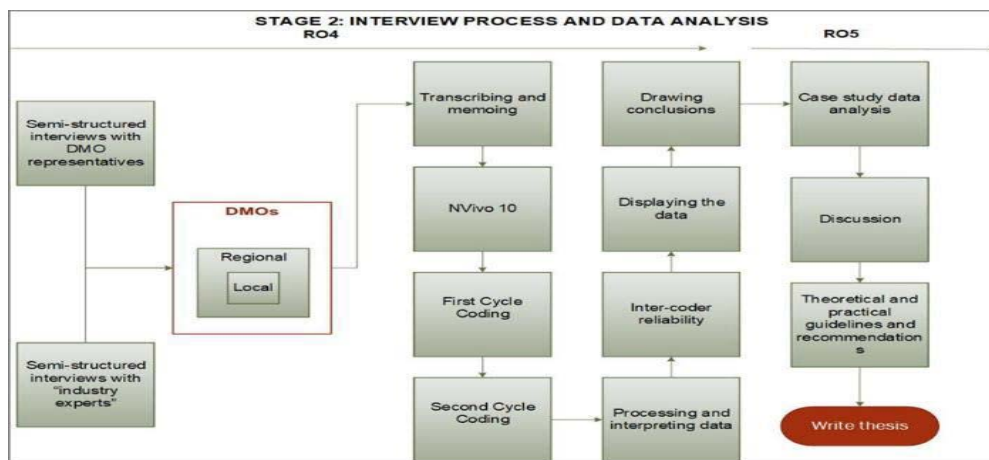
This study adopted a two-stage research approach depicted in Figure 1 and Figure 2. It was thought that such an approach would allow the author to study the phenomenon of food and destination marketing in-depth and from many different angles.

Figure 1. Research framework stage 1



As illustrated in Figure 1, stage 1 involved a content analysis which is seen as a careful, systematic and detailed explanation and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes and meanings (Neuendorf, 2002; Neuman, 2014). This approach enabled the researcher to evaluate textual and visual information used to represent food on the official DMO websites at various levels. A range of regional and local DMO websites included: Welcome to Yorkshire; Visit Peak District and Derbyshire; Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. This methodological approach was informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism (for example: Horng and Tsai, 2010; Okumus, Kock, Scantelbury and Okumus, 2013; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher, 2007;). In keeping in particular with the approach of Silkes, Cai and Lehto (2013) open coding was utilised to discover the themes and to avoid making the data fit pre-conceived categories. This involved breaking down data into smaller parts, examining them and comparing in terms of similarities and differences (Saldana, 2016).

Figure 2. Research framework stage 2



Stage 2, as illustrated in Figure 2, included semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and “industry experts” (people with expert knowledge regarding food and/or tourism, both locally and internationally) and aimed to seek deeper insights into the use of food in destination marketing strategies. Following the pilot interviews, the core interviews were arranged face-to-face between June and August 2016. Interview participants were chosen by means of purposive, convenience and snowball sampling (Jennings, 2010). Interview questions were based on the results from the

qualitative content analysis as well as a literature review. In total, seven DMO representatives and 12 industry experts were interviewed. Audio recording devices were used, with the permission of the participants, and this enabled the researcher to pay close attention to the discussion and to take supporting notes. Each interview lasted approximately 45-60 minutes.

Findings and Discussion

Content analysis of adjectives used to describe food on the DMO websites indicated that there appears to be a focus on the marketing of local foods and local food experiences. This finding is consistent with those of other studies (for example: Bessiere, 1998; Kim et al., 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang, 2012; Tellstrom et al., 2005) according to which “local” food is becoming increasingly more prominent in destination marketing.

However, semi-structured interviews revealed that, although all participants believed that local food and local food experiences are of increasing importance to visitors in selected destinations, at the same time they agreed that “local” is extremely difficult to define. For example, P9 stated: *“Local food is important to us, however it is really difficult to put a cast iron definition on what is local”*. Thus, interviews confirmed that there is no accepted definition of “local”, as all participants provided different answers.

Although the examples above illustrate a considerable upwards trend in interest in local foods, this study suggests that the conceptualisation of what “local” actually means remains inconsistent. While different views on “local” exist, combining the results of the current study with existing literature led to the development of four key dimensions of “local” food as identified from the content analysis, interviews, review of academic and industry literature.

“Local in”

The first dimension – “local in” – refers to food from a confined geographic area that is seen as in close proximity to the consumer (within a defined radius/distance). This is supported by participants’ comments indicating that this dimension of “local” has a strong geographic connotation. For example, P14 stated: *“The definition that I have always used is one that probably came from farmer’s market association quite a number of years ago now where local should be something within 30 miles radius”*. Another participant (P12) said: *My definition of local food is from within 10 miles. That is my own personal opinion. If you look at all associations, especially the Soil Association, I think they extend it to about 50miles or something like that*. Elsewhere, when describing local food, P13 stated that: *“in England when we say local, we probably mean within 30 or 40 miles”*.

These findings match those observed in earlier studies. For example, Groves (2005) surveyed 1,000 British consumers and found that “local” food is predominantly concerned with a geographic distance. In her study, the majority of respondents associated “local” with food produced within 30 miles from either where they lived or 30 miles from where they bought the product. What is more, Groves (2005) also found that some respondents associated “local” with the county in which they lived.

However, beyond this general geographic definition, there is little agreement on the geographic proximity. For example, in the present study, some participants stated that the geographic distance may vary in different locations. For example, P13 stated: *“We had some American guests who came the other day from Chicago and they define local food as anything from a 100miles radius. But then they are in America which is an enormous country”* (P13). Similarly, P14 indicated that the definition of “local” changes for urban agglomerations, such as for example London or Manchester where the distance *“can be expanded to 50 or 60 miles. So if you are holding a farmer’s market in a suburb of London you could say anything within 50-60 mile radius, this could be seen as local”* (P14).

This finding appears to be consistent with other studies (such as: Durham et al., 2009; Feldmann and Hamm, 2015; Zepeda and Leviten-Reid, 2004) which claim that distance is usually subjectively selected and individuals exhibit great variation in the distance they consider to be local. In general, in the literature, the distance specifications tend to range from 10 to 30 miles up to 100 miles (Adams and Adams, 2011; Chambers et al., 2007; Khan and Prior, 2010) which is consistent with the findings of this study.

Another difficulty in identifying a single geographic definition of “local” can perhaps also be illustrated by a question of where the 'local' area ends and another area begins. This can be very subjective and dependent on the context (density of populations, and rural or urban character etc.) as illustrated in the interview quotes below:

“You can look at it in two ways. First one, from a specific distance, or you can do it geographically by region. But then you get Yorkshire which is a very big area, South Yorkshire which is close to the Dales” (P12).

“As long as we can say everything is from Yorkshire, they should accept that as being local” (P16).

To add to this discussion surrounding geographic proximity and “local” food, the present study found that although interview participants very often described “local” based on geographic distance, at the same time they also expressed doubts regarding such an approach due to the complexity of the food supply chain. In particular, one of the participants posed a series of interesting questions: *“Is it grown there? Is it produced there? Is it manufactured there?”* (P14). The issue emphasised here is that of the complexity of the food supply chain which also accords with questions posed by Sims (2010, p.107) *“can gingerbread – a popular local speciality in the county of Cumbria – ever be considered a local product in the UK if the sugar and spices used to make it come from overseas?”* This could indicate that adopting a geographical definition of “local” can be complicated by the distinction between the origin of the ingredients and the place of production.

It is interesting to note that the European PGI (Protected Geographical Indication) regulation neatly sidesteps the problem of geographic proximity. This is because, according to the PGI regulations, to get a product protected under PGI, it must be produced, processed or prepared in the geographical area in which it is going to be associated with (DEFRA, 2017). What is more, the EU will only give a product the PGI mark if they decide it has a reputation, characteristics or qualities that are a result of the area it is to be associated with. In the UK, Yorkshire Wensleydale cheese, Cornish sardines and Traditional Grimsby smoked fish are examples of foods protected with the PGI mark (DEFRA, 2017).

“Cultural”

The second dimension of “local” food is based on a cultural concept. Some interview comments supporting this dimension included P18 who stated that “local” food brings together geographic and cultural aspects of the place which, combined together, create a unique taste. The participant (P18) explained that in terms of the place where she works, local food helps to deliver *“a true Yorkshire dining experience”* which embraces ingredients grown or foraged across the county which is then served with *“relaxed Yorkshire hospitality.”* She also said that all members of staff regularly visit farms and suppliers where they *“listen to stories about food”*. As such, staff has knowledge about food that they serve and they are able to deliver *“a true field to plate experience”* (P18).

This finding matches those observed by researchers and industry leaders who have proposed a new dimension to define “local” – one based on cultural factors (Durham et al., 2009). Within this dimension, the mixture of geographical and cultural characteristics influences food and this creates a unique “local” product. This could be illustrated in the quote below where Stead (cited in Bell and

Valentine, 1997) captures the way Yorkshire Pudding is seen to reflect particular Yorkshire characteristics:

“Yorkshire pudding is tarred with the brush of the county character. Yorkshiremen were notorious for their sharp practices (...) Yorkshire hospitality was fabled. So Yorkshire pudding is a triumphant marriage of those conflicting aspects of the Yorkshire character- meanness and liberality. It is cheap and hugely filling (...) The fact that they [Yorkshire puddings] require spanking hot fat, explosions as the batter hits it, fierce heat, and crisp results, may explain why it has often been said that only Yorkshire folk – those possessing Yorkshire temperament – can make a true Yorkshire pudding” (Stead cited in Bell and Valentine, 1997, p.159).

The examples and comments above illustrate how this cultural dimension of “local” food defines food as embedded in the landscape, and influenced by local traditions and other intangible elements. As a result, “local” food can be seen as capturing the essence of the place and its distinctive geographical and cultural characteristics. “Local” food here can be seen as not relying on whether the product has been produced within a defined radius from the point of sale, but that it has been produced in a distinct area defined by the presence of a unique combination of soils, topography, climate, and locally embedded skills and knowledge. This can be further explained using the concept of “terroir”:

*“Rooted in French word *terroir*, or land, *terroir* encapsulates the idea that a particular interplay of geography, history and human factors imbues foods with a particular taste that cannot be recreated elsewhere. In the past, the term was closely associated with European wines, these days it is used in the popular press to describe artisanal foods from different continents (...) France has long used the notion of *terroir* to instil pride (...) and to promote its own culinary authenticity among citizens and tourists alike”* (Musgrave, 2009, p.158).

In particular, the concept of *terroir* places an emphasis on the combined effect of soil, topography, subsoil, climate, and it also includes the customs and ceremonies of the people who produce local dishes (Hammer, 2011). Thus, it can be claimed that this cultural dimension includes local food which is seen as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions (Croce and Perri, 2017). What is more, it has to be noted that closely associated with this dimension of “local” food is European Union’s Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) mark according to which food products must be produced, processed and prepared in one area and have distinctive characteristics from this area (DEFRA, 2017). This legally enforced system neatly sidesteps the issue of defining the “local”, by insisting that the crucial point of the definition is whether a food product’s characteristics are attributable to the features of a distinct – and usually relatively small – geographical area. Therefore, in accord with the cultural dimension in the present study, PDO indicates not whether the product has been produced within a defined radius from the point of sale, but that it has been produced in a distinct area defined by the presence of a unique combination of soils, topography, climate, and locally embedded skills and knowledge.

“The socio-economic”

The third dimension of “local” food, the socio-economic, is based on perceived social and economic benefits to the locality. The participants associated “local” food as a necessary element to support the local economy and vital for local communities. For example, P8 stated: *“local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect”* (P8). He then stated that all businesses (in Yorkshire) should use local produce as it keeps not only the local economy stronger, but also traditions alive and going. Other participant

provided an example of a struggling local food business that was saved by becoming a tourists' attraction and as a result "*its contribution to the city and region can hardly be overstated*" (P5).

This finding is in accord with the findings of other studies (such as: Kneafsey, Lambie, Dowler and Inman, 2008; Zepeda and Leviten-Reid, 2004) in which "local" food is about more than proximity and traceability, but it is also seen as a vector for delivering social and economic benefits. In particular, "local" food is seen as contributing to the local economy through job creation and retention (Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini and Schlegel, 2011). Within this socio-economic dimension, the "local" is not attributed to a specific spatial scale, but the key point is that the control of economic activity is retained locally and that a range of benefits is delivered. These potential benefits are based on participants' perceptions of certain desired characteristics in the production of "local" food, such as: production by small family run business or farm, conservation of traditional skills, preservation of small and independent businesses.

This finding matches those observed in earlier studies. For example, Lang, Stanton and Qu (2014, p.1810) claim that most individuals associate "local" foods with a range of particular characteristics including for example: smaller independent growers or manufacturers, non-industrial and non-corporate growers or manufacturers, family owned and operated growers or manufacturers, businesses that are part of community etc. This also accords with the earlier observation by Everett and Aitchison (2008) who found a correlation between increased levels of food-based tourism and an increase in social and cultural benefits celebrating the production of local food and the conservation of traditional heritage, skills and ways of life. Thus, this dimension of "local" food is based on associations with socio-economic benefits.

"Local to"

The last dimension of "local" food represents particular types of food being seen as a distinctive product associated by name with a specific geographical area. In other words, this could include food specialities that have come to be accepted as the names of specific types of food, without the need for further explanation. Yorkshire Pudding was frequently cited as an example during the interviews. However, it has to be noted that the named geographical location used to describe the food product in this dimension, does not always provide a link to the location of production. As a result, the specific geographical location used in the name of the food product, and the actual place of production, may be different. For example, Barnsley Chop is a butchery term to describe a double-lamb chop made by cross-cutting through a saddle of lamb (Local Government Regulation, 2011). The meat does not have to originate from Barnsley, however, it has to be prepared in that particular way in order to be seen as the Barnsley Chop. Closely related to this dimension of "local" is European Union's Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG) mark according to which food product must have a traditional name and characteristics that distinguish it from other similar products (DEFRA, 2017). However, once protected, the TSG product can be produced in any country within the EU and it highlights a traditional production process, unlike PDO or PGI.

At this point in the discussion, it should be acknowledged that the use of PDO, PGI and TSG labels has become a marketing strategy and a source of competitive advantage (Fields, 2015). According to Fotopoulos and Krystallis (2003), such labels imply originality and authenticity and give food products a competitive advantage similar to that of a brand name. This is particularly important for destination marketing as, according to Everett (2016, p.181), food labels provide "*a powerful marketing scheme and reassurance to the consumer*" and thus can act as effective means of achieving a uniqueness and difference. However, while research on gastronomic brands in tourist destination promotion is a

separate area of study (Gordin and Trabskaya, 2013) and thus remains outside the scope of this study, at the same time this opens avenues for future research.

Conclusion

The findings of this study suggest that there appears to be a very vague view of what “local” means. Thus, the increasing use of “local” food in destination marketing adds to this lack of clarity and confusion. The four dimensions of “local” food presented in this paper indicate that there is no single universally agreed or adopted definition of “local” food. As demonstrated in this paper, “local” is very often associated in relation to geographical proximity. However, the question of where the 'local' area ends and another area begins is subjective, depending on context (density of populations, and rural or urban character etc.). Another important issue in this debate includes the complexity of the food supply chain as well as the distinction between the origin of the ingredients and the place of production. Interview participants associated “local” food with positive socio-economic outcomes, while others saw “local” food as embedded in the landscape and local culture and reinforced by its local traditions or as a particular speciality of the place.

This lack of consensus and absence of an agreed definition of “local” is concerning, as interview participants indicated that this could be misleading to tourists. In addition, this is further supported by evidence that food organisations and government-led projects use different definitions for different schemes. Consequently, this makes it difficult to focus on exactly what “local” food means. As such, there is a danger of businesses misusing the term “local” food, as a marketing tool in order to increase the number of customers. To put this in the words of Allen and Hinrichs (2007): “*the ambiguity about what local means . . . allows it to be about anything and, at the margin, perhaps very little at all*” (Allen and Hinrichs, 2007, p. 269).

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TOURISM EDUCATION IN NIGERIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: ISSUES AND PROSPECTS

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Abstract

The tourism industry is a large and complex industry and one that is of economic significance to nations. However, despite enormous tourism potentials in Nigeria, the country lacks the acumen in educating the young ones at the secondary school level. Tourism education enabled the tourism expert/facilitators to nurture the young ones from secondary school level to the higher institution so that they can develop professional and skilful personnel in the industry. It will also ensure the sustainability of the tourism potentials and implementation of favourable tourism policy in the country. This paper examines the challenges confronting tourism education in secondary schools in Nigeria since the inception of tourism subject into the secondary school curriculum as a trade subject, also identify the factors affecting the effectiveness of the programme, and provide possible solutions. The quantitative research method was used to elicit useful information for the study. In-depth interviews with some selected secondary schools' principals and teachers. The selection of schools for interviews was based on their high population of students and teachers. This enabled the researcher to gain greater insight into the research work successfully. Finally, the research work suggested some mitigating measures, which can help boost tourism education at secondary schools and also ensure that the graduate of tourism is posted to secondary schools in the country where tourism is taught as one of the trade subjects in the secondary school's curriculum.

Keywords: Tourism education, secondary schools, challenges, mitigating measures, tourism development.

Introduction

Tourism is identified as an effective way to revitalize the economy of any destination as noted by Long (2012) and widely acknowledged as one of the fastest growing industry globally (Lanza and Pigliarru, 1999; Raymond, 2001; Newsome et al, 2002; Basu, 2003, Ozgen, 2003; Chockalinga and Ganesh, 2010; Jennie, 2012). Tourism today is a significant category of international trade in services, international tourism receipts in destinations around the world grew by 3.6% in 2015, and with a 4.4% increase in international arrivals. For four consecutive years, international tourism grew faster than world merchandise trade, raising tourism's share in world's exports to 7% in 2015 (UNWTO, 2016).

On the other hand, education is defined as the 'process of teaching; the instruction received the process of training and improving', (Chambers, 1997). NTI (2007:10) also defined education as 1) Education is a process that starts from birth and ends at death; 2) Education is the sum of all culture which society deliberately gives its younger; 3) Education is the process of developing knowledge and ability in learners for personal and social enhancement; and 4) Education is the totality of life experience.

Education is a vital option in the development of our tourism industry. Nigeria is blessed with both natural and cultural attractions and therefore has a lot to showcase to the entire world. The most

important thing is that about 70% of our tourism potentials are mainly located in our rural areas, thereby facing negligence, which destroys these attractions. Some of our natural attractions are unharnessed, thereby attracts the low level of tourists' patronage to the destinations. Worst still, out of ignorant, most tourism resources are destroyed by youths (within the secondary school level) who are not informed of the value of these tourism resources. A well-structured education programme should be put in place in order to educate Nigerian secondary school students on the importance of tourism at the grassroots. Majority of the personnel working in this industry both in the federal, state and local government levels know little or nothing about tourism. This is one of the significant challenges faced by the tourism industry in Nigeria. However, these challenges are caused by the low level of an education programme that will give proper orientation to the young ones at the secondary school level before getting into the higher institution.

It is therefore imperative to note that Nigeria has many tourist resources but has not been able to satisfy the demands of both domestic and international tourists and tourism. Perhaps, this explains why Kafewo (2013) argued that both natural and made-man tourism required early and adequate education to enhance tourism development. Currently, the effort of the Nigerian government to introduce tourism programme into the secondary school curriculum is commendable. However, the challenge faced by this initiative is low level or lack of adequate facilitators that will teach the fundamental of tourism at grassroots and also ensure the sustainability of the programme in secondary schools across the country. The introduction of tourism education at secondary school level is aimed at equipping the pupils with knowledge of attractions sites and conservation/management practices, indigenous technologies wordy of attracting tourists, local crafts and arts that serves as tourists' souvenirs, among others. It should be noted that the restructuring of the senior secondary school curriculum resulted in the development of the 42 subjects and 34 vocational trades/entrepreneurship curricula (Obioma, 2005). This effort ensures that students gain prerequisite knowledge in tourism before choosing the discipline in a tertiary institution. Also, the subject at secondary school would equip students with relevant vocational knowledge.

Tourism Education in Nigeria: A Clarification

Tourism education began as a development of technical/vocational schools in Europe; at this point, emphases were on training in core competencies such as hospitality, hotel management and related business skills (Butler, 1999; Morgan, 2004). Interest and demand from the public and private sectors impelled rapid growth of tourism studies and the development and establishment of a Department of Travel and Tourism at institutions of higher education in addition to technical schools (Butler, 1999). Some researchers' interests have led to the evaluation of tourism education programmes; they examined the relevance of academic tourism education to the occupation as a whole (Okonkwo and Ikegwu 2013; Churchward and Riley 2002). Their studies determined that the majority of tourism professionals indicate the relevance of academic subjects to their career. They stated that general academic knowledge such as marketing, recreation, business, economics and others, can be applied to context-specific work. However, jobs in tourism are not necessarily similar; tourism includes a variety of jobs that require the application of different types of academic knowledge-based (Okonkwo and Ikegwu 2013; Churchward and Riley, 2002).

Education is therefore designed to guide society in learning a culture, moulding the behavioural pattern of the society and putting society in the right direction. With time, society became more critical ever to education and it also began to formulate the overall objective, content, organisation and strategies of education. In this manner, education as a distinct disciple came into being. It is continually being defined and redefined in various countries to meet the National goals and aspirations. Nigeria as a

country, has gone a long way in providing excellent education system to the citizens. Government for years has put more efforts into the development of education both financially and otherwise. These notwithstanding, the Federal Ministry of Education has contributed their quota for the betterment of our education policy, which is yet to meet its desired goals.

Nigeria is looking forward to becoming one of the ten richest industrial countries in the world by 2020. Tourism is one of the fastest growing economic institutions in the world and should not be neglected in this aspect. Educating the Nigerian public is very vital on the protection, preservation and maintenance of tourism resources which we are endowed. Impediment Nigeria, as a country faced in tourism development is un-professionalised staff in the industry. The human resource structure of our tourism industry is not encouraging; some of the personnel working under this industry both in the federal, state and local government levels know little or nothing about tourism. The cause of this impediment is poor education programmes by the Federal Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the Federal Ministry of Education and other tourism stakeholders/tourism experts. Education is essential in every aspect of human life. It uplifts society and is a vital tool in the development of any country. Therefore, for the Nigerian tourism industry to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), education should be considered by the government as one of the tools for promoting tourism.

The Objectives of the Study:

The research seeks to address the following objectives: a) to examine tourism education in secondary schools in Nigeria since the inception of tourism subject into the secondary school trade subject curriculum.

b) to identifies the challenges of tourism education and mitigating measures for the effectiveness of the programme.

Research Methodology

The study is exploratory in nature and data were gathered from secondary schools offering tourism as a subject in Enugu State. The sampled schools are Boys Secondary School, Agbani, Enugu; St. Francis Secondary School, Udi; Community Secondary School, Nkanu East and West; City Comprehensive Secondary School, Nsukka; Community Secondary School, Igbo-Etiti; Ascension Catholic School, Igbo-Eze South; and Joerose Community Secondary School, Uzo-Uwani. Data were collected from teachers and students. The respondents participated in the study willingly and were very much eager and curious to know the outcome of the study. They enthusiastically agreed to be interviewed, mainly because they were assured of anonymity and the confidentiality of the information extracted from them. Data collection took place using questionnaires (for students) and carefully semi-structured questions for an in-depth interview (for principals and teachers). The researcher was warmly welcomed and granted permission by the school authorities to investigate the challenges confronting tourism education in secondary schools in Nigeria. Questions for interviews had the same format and sequence of words and questions for each respondent to ensure reliability and validity. Teachers were interviewed and recorded in classes during break times only. Interviews for principals were conducted and recorded simultaneously in their offices on one to one basis lasting not less than 30 minutes, while questionnaires were administered to students of SS1 to 3 in the schools.

The use of in-depth interviews in the course of the research provided a relaxed and semi-formal atmosphere that encouraged participants to express their views on the subject matter freely. The exercises were recorded with an audio device for subsequent transcription; small group activities were based on interactive team exercises facilitated by the researcher. All of the schools surveyed were purposively selected as they were the ones that offer tourism and granted approvals for the interviews.

Students as respondents were more or less than 150 in total. Of the 150 students in these schools, about 83 (55.3%) students returned their questionnaires. It took almost eight weeks for questionnaires to be completed by students of all the schools selected.

Discussion of Findings

This study has succeeded in digging out the challenges of tourism education at secondary schools' level in Nigeria. It is therefore pertinent at this juncture to discuss the findings and subsequently make recommendations. Several factors have limited effective teaching of tourism as trade subjects in Nigeria among secondary schools are discussed here.

A range of challenges in teaching tourism in secondary school include lack of adequate workforce in the field, appropriate information, limited time, and difficulties in getting students to appreciate the full range of opportunities that the industry offers. Others are lack of dedication of some of the teachers for tourism subject; the influence of principals' perceptions about teachers' suitability for the subject as well as challenges that are associated with the advent of tourism in the Nigerian schools affects tourism education in the country.

Ignorance and lack of awareness have affected tourism education in a secondary school; many people are not aware of the importance of tourism in term of economic, social and environmental importance likewise the role played by this lucrative industry in the country. Besides, the existing structures like buildings of most public schools are in a sorry state due to poor maintenance culture. The present conditions of the buildings could impact negatively on the quality of education offered. Such conditions have encouraged a brain drain of teaching and administrative personnel, leaving the education system to other sectors of the economy and do not create an enabling environment for teaching and learning.

Furthermore, an insufficient number of qualified tourism teachers in Nigeria is one of the significant barriers to the development of tourism education. There are deaths of qualified tourism professionals, particularly those with a relevant academic qualification. The universities that offer tourism at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels are still very few; while most tourism graduates do not have an interest in teaching. Thus, the production of qualified tourism teachers has not kept pace with the growth of the industry.

All the secondary schools visited lacks adequate libraries for study and research. It should be noted that a quality library is an essential part of the educational process. Students lack reading materials like tourism textbooks, journals, newsletters, and monographs and other learning apparatus like electronic libraries, internet facilities, and computers. Libraries are designed to cater to the rapid search for information and offer students the opportunity to acquire more information on any area of study. Libraries help to encourage student learning ability and stimulate student interest in future research (Mohemodiles, 2000).

Importance of Tourism Education and Mitigating Measures

Tourism education is essential both in secondary school and tertiary institution; this is significant because the country is facing a global crisis on the most dependable resource of the country that is the crude oil. There is a great need to develop the nation's tourism resources because tourism is one of the alternatives economic liberation to crude oil. According to Novelette (2016) since the closure of the sugar industry in 2005, tourism has become the primary income earner for the St. Kitts and Nevis. Realising its significance, the federal government has taken the initiative to educate young people on tourism and thus, introduce tourism education in the secondary schools (Novelette 2016); yet, much is left to be desired. Novelette further noted that tourism education is essential, especially for youth, this is because they are tomorrow's leaders.

Okorosaye-Orobite (2005, p.19) stressed that the product of education is the educated man, who in the African context is one who shows evidence of a well-integrated personality. He is economically efficient, socially and publically competent, morally acceptable and intellectually and culturally sophisticated (Ukeje,1986: 8). Okorosaye-Orobite summed it up by arguing that education is power and that education is a process of acquiring knowledge and ideas that shape and condition man's attitude, actions and achievements. It is a process of developing the child's moral, physical, emotional and intellectual power for his contribution to social reform; it is the process of mastering the laws of nature and for utilizing them adequately for the welfare of the individual and social reconstruction; it is the art of the utilization of knowledge for complete living (Okorosaye-Orobite, 2005).Obioma (2016) illustrated some importance of tourism education to Nigeria to include the creation of opportunities for jobs in Nigeria. This is because the tourism sector and tourism-related areas are operated and handled by human beings (both skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labourers). Also, it helps to reduce poverty in the country. Poverty is an economic condition of lack of both money and some necessities of a successful life such as food, water, and education. Thus, tourism could serve as a source of poverty reduction in the country when the living standard of host communities are improved and people are gainfully employed in the tourism industry.

In light of the challenges identified, the following recommendations are offered:

1. There should be legislation encouraging fresh graduates of tourism to facilitate tourism subject at secondary schools during their National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) primary assignment in the various states across the country. This will reduce the lack of teachers at the secondary school level, and on the other hand, spur their interest in teaching tourism subject. To achieve this, the implementation of such a policy should be strict on compliance.
2. The Ministry of Education should make tourism subject compulsory in all secondary schools and the introduction of tourism institutes in all federal universities. This would sensitise and encourage tourism graduates to look beyond crude oil and see tourism as an alternative source of revenue generation. Sequel to this, there is an urgent need to recruit more human resources or lecturers with tourism qualifications and industrial experiences in the field to strengthen the industry, and finally,
3. Tourism stakeholders meeting (reminiscence of a town hall meeting) should be organised to create a forum where teachers and students can meet to discuss the challenges facing tourism education and how best to tackle them. This will enable the students and teachers to have a sense of decorum and thus, acquaint themselves with the solutions to the problems facing tourism education. This practice will no doubt, improve the current situation of tourism education in the country.

Conclusion

The issues raised from the study conducted among the selected secondary schools about the effectiveness and challenges of tourism education shows that there are no adequate workforce or tourism facilitators and also lack of instructional materials and equipment for tourism education at the secondary school level, and this has created much challenges for tourism education in Nigeria.

Equally, responses from the in-depth interview also show in clear terms, the poor state of learning facilities like library, computer etc. which have led to significant challenges on tourism education in Nigeria. There are also insufficiently qualified tourism professionals with adequate industrial experiences; this has also been made worse as most tourism institutions do not introduce tourism departments nor make provision for grants for research or adequate provision for further training; thus, contributing to the challenges on tourism workforce training and development in Nigeria.

From the research, it was discovered that most secondary schools offering tourism as a trade subject in Nigeria encountered problems in the course of teaching and educating students as well as the method

or manner the training and education are received by students interested in tourism. Some factors were found to be responsible for these problems, which have been earlier discussed. We, therefore, argue here that the government as a matter of urgency should formulate policies that will propel new graduates of tourism to teach tourism in various secondary schools in the country during the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC). Tourism is a relatively new field of study that emerged from vocational education, the nature of tourism education seems to contribute toward tourism pedagogues, driven by business and economic considerations.

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ADOPTING COOPERATIVE MARKETING STRATEGY BY TOURISM SERVICE PROVIDERS: COMPARING PERCEPTIONS OF TRAVEL AGENCIES AND HOTELS

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Abstract

Cooperative marketing is a collective marketing strategy that helps businesses to develop their marketing activities in order to increase their competitiveness. The present study aims to explore and compare the factors influencing the intentions of travel agencies and four-star hotels in Egypt to adopt cooperative marketing strategy. Structural equation modelling, based on questionnaire data collected from travel agents and hotels, is used to analyze data and to test the research hypotheses. Findings revealed that perceived benefits, environmental pressures, facilitating factors, and inhibiting factors are significantly affecting the intention of travel agencies' and hotels' to adopt cooperative marketing strategy.

Keywords: Cooperative marketing, joint promotion, travel agencies, hotels, Egypt

Introduction

When two or more enterprises jointly promote their complementary products, they intend to improve their promotional activities' effectiveness. This joint promotion is one of cooperative marketing strategy levels. Cooperative marketing helps expanding the market of one or more enterprises, which in turn positively affecting the partner enterprises' product promotion, demand, and sales in addition to saving marketing costs. Furthermore, marketing a complementary product in association with a well-established one is more likely benefiting the former (Karray & Sique, 2016). In tourism context, literature studies on collaborative marketing focus mainly on collaborative activities at destination level in which tourism public sector could have partnerships with private sector for effective destination marketing (i.e., Abou-Shouk, 2018; Dwyer, 2003; Hill & Shaw, 1995; Naipaul, Wang, & Okumus, 2009; Pansiri, 2013). However, few studies have discussed cooperative marketing at tourism providers' level, either provider of same products and services or complementary products/ services. In contexts other than tourism (i.e. agriculture), research has compared three models of marketing strategies (Agbo, Rousselière, & Salanié, 2015). These marketing strategies include: Full cooperative marketing (in which product/ service providers join a cooperative and do not directly sell their products to market); Direct selling marketing (in which providers themselves directly and fully selling their services to market); and a Hybrid model of marketing (joining the cooperative while keeping the right to directly

selling their services to market). It is revealed that joining the cooperative has potentials for small business having financial constraints to helping them penetrating global markets. However, direct selling is useful when selling services to local markets although they still have to compete with other providers. This study therefore aims to identify the factors affecting tourism service providers' (i.e. travel agencies and hotels) adoption intention of cooperative marketing strategy in marketing their enterprises. Managerial implications are discussed in the study's conclusion.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Cooperative marketing is a term used to describe the relationship among businesses to promote their sales and services (Palmer, 2002; Palmer, Barrett, & Ponsonby, 2000). It has been also referred to cooperative marketing with different terms such as collaboration (Selin, 1994), coordination (Fyall & Garrod, 2004), a form of inter-organizational arrangements (Dickinson & Ramaseshan, 2004), alliance (Chen & Tseng, 2005), network (Ramayah, Lee, & In, 2011), partnership (Pansiri, 2013), and cooperative branding (Mic & Eagles, 2017). The aim of cooperative marketing is that more than one business form a collective task environment that bring organizations together to improve their ability to develop market jointly and compete in the market place (Lynch, 1990; Palmer, 2002). In other words, cooperative marketing is an effective marketing strategy that aims to capitalizing business opportunities, building brand awareness (Karray & Sigue, 2016), and generating values to group of associates but not to any specific holder (Soni & Singh, 2013).

Strategic alliance is the term used in literature studies to represent the different aspects of relationship among different organizations' arrangements and operational policies (i.e., Fyall & Garrod, 2004; Henderson, 2001; Palmer & Bejou, 1995; Parkhe, 1993; Terpstra & Simonin, 1993). In this respect, some studies introduced the term 'coopetition' that combines coordinated cooperation and competition (Bengtsson & Kock, 2000; Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001). Wang and Krakover (2008) revealed that despite the different forms of partnerships among tourism organizations including coordination, collaboration, strategic networks, and affiliation, they found that affiliation is the most common form of cooperation based on the focus of organization's leadership, strategic thinking, and the maturity of destination marketing approach.

The literature studies in tourism management focus on the importance of collaborations and partnerships among tourism players to effectively achieve their goals (i.e. marketing activities) (Pansiri, 2013). According to Gorman (2005) cooperation between tourist service providers could add to their marketing competencies and help achieve mutual benefits. In addition, due to the fragmented nature of tourism industry including accommodation, food and beverage, transportation, and other indirect partners, Weber and Ladkin (2005) claimed that cooperative marketing as an strategic alliance form is an effective strategy to market tour packages which is a combination of such fragmented components. Jetter and Chen (2012) clarified that the interest of travel and tourism stakeholders in cooperative marketing could be because of sharing costs, product development, and increasing promotion effectiveness.

The collaboration among stakeholders could be at the product development level, promotion, sales and/or distribution channels, and would help small business in particular to tackle marketing costs' constraints and achieve economies of scale (Dieke & Karamustafa, 2000). Product development level implies the quality, quantity and price to diversify and differentiate it. At distribution level, collaboration could help partners to market their products through tour operators, hotels, airlines, and other travel intermediaries. Partners of collaboration could determine the price rates for their services instead of engaging in price competition. The following sections describe the benefits of cooperative

marketing, environmental pressures to adoption, and facilitating and inhibiting factors of cooperative marketing strategy adoption.

BENEFITS OF COOPERATIVE MARKETING

Hill and Shaw (1995) and Dwyer (2003) pointed out that engaging in cooperative marketing reveals economic gains to destinations and enterprises as it might increase the profitability of the cooperative's members. In addition, partnerships in marketing activities could lead to improved quality of products/services (Morrison, Lynch, & Johns, 2004; Pansiri, 2013). Joining marketing cooperation helps partners sharing and then decreasing their marketing costs and achieve economies of scale (Dieke & Karamustafa, 2000). Additionally, cooperative marketing strategy could help partners to improve the marketing-relating decisions as a result of sharing information and experiences among partners (Jetter & Chen, 2012).

Mic and Eagles (2017) and Wang and Okumus (2009) have numerated the perceived benefits of cooperative branding for eco-lodges. These benefits include marketing their hotels regionally and globally and selling their services in global markets, increasing their competitiveness in the market and differentiating their products, enhancing their reputation and building image of their business and therefore increasing market share and achieving the potential expansion of business in global markets. Park and Nunkoo (2013) found a significant relationship between collaborative branding and customer loyalty to destinations through image building. Mic and Eagles (2017) believed that despite the time and cost to build a business cooperative brand, this will increase the customer trust and credibility in business by time. According to Agbo et al. (2015), joining a cooperative helps reduce competition among partners in addition to protecting less efficient partners from the power of efficient ones.

Building upon the above mentioned benefits, the first hypothesis of the present study is developed as follows:

H1. Perceived benefits revealed from cooperative marketing are a predictor of cooperative marketing strategy adoption intention in travel agencies and hotels.

PRESSURES TO ADOPT COOPERATIVE MARKETING

According to Dickinson and Ramaseshan (2004), firm small size is one environmental pressure driving firms to cooperate to achieve the potential expansion they seek. Small firms have low sources of funding and this challenge pushes them to engage in cooperation with other enterprises to improve their marketing activities. Furthermore, low marketing competent firms may force business to join marketing collaboration to increase their product marketability. Wang and Okumus (2009) pointed out that competitive pressures have pushed tourism destinations and stakeholders to collaborate in order to gain access to new knowledge, markets, and technologies. One main motive of firms to join collaborations is exchanging new technologies among partners (Hill & Shaw, 1995; Patel, Pettitt, & Wilson, 2012). Abou-Shouk (2018) and Abou-Shouk, Lim, and Megicks (2016) has cited four external pressures for travel agents as small enterprises to engage in online collaboration for marketing purposes and e-commerce technologies. These environmental pressures include adaptation to new technologies, responding to business partners and/ or competitors, and future survival of business.

Based on the presented pressures, the second hypothesis of the current study is built as follows:

H2. Environmental pressures are more likely to affecting travel agencies and hotels' intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy.

FACILITATING FACTORS TO ADOPT COOPERATIVE MARKETING

Enterprises with previous experiences in alliances are more likely to engage in cooperative strategies (Dickinson & Ramaseshan, 2004). High partner match is one factor that facilitates joining or forming cooperation. This match includes similar organizational culture, similar goals, labour skills, and funding sources and similar customer base. Furthermore, if management is committed and convinced with the idea of cooperation, they will be a crucial factor fostering the cooperative marketing strategy and decrease conflicts that may result among partners in the cooperation (Yasai-Ardekani & Haug, 1997). Barratt (2004) suggest that communicating information and its flow among partners is a fundamental factor that contributes to collaboration success. Lack or slow flow of communications is one constraint to achieving cooperation goals (Selin & Myers, 1998). Sharing knowledge, ideas and expertise is effectively facilitating the work of teams and leads to successful cooperation in ways of having clear responsibilities and roles of partners in a collaboration, and decreasing potential conflicts and tensions (Patel et al., 2012).

Considering the facilitating factors presented, the third hypothesis is formed as follows:

H3. Facilitating factors are likely to influence travel agencies and hotels' intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy.

INHIBITING FACTORS OF COOPERATIVE MARKETING

Lack of experience in collaborations is one main barrier to joining cooperation (Dieke & Karamustafa, 2000). Another barrier includes the conflict among partner managers due to different business priorities, goals or plans (Dieke & Karamustafa, 2000; Palmer et al., 2000). According to Jetter and Chen (2012) and Pansiri (2005) challenges of forming cooperative marketing could include the different values and organizational cultures among partners which could lead to conflicts and tension among partners, or different perceptions of managers due to different characteristics, such as age, education, and experience. Palmer et al. (2000) claimed that one challenge of cooperative marketing is that some partners get benefits of cooperation that are not equal to their share of costs and therefore some partners may believe that they do not benefit from cooperation such as others (Karray & Sique, 2016).

Furthermore, lack of commitment to cooperation's goals may lead to mistrust among partners who are competitors and collaborators at the same time. Lack of trust implies that partners do not communicate and share information openly (Patel et al., 2012). Furthermore, Patel et al. (2012) cited that inadequate knowledge management is one principal challenge to collaborative works. This includes holding different knowledge by different partners, lack of clarity and lack of knowledge communication among partners. Independence is one factor that organizations consider when they think join cooperation and therefore lack of autonomy is a barrier to engage in collaborations (Selin & Myers, 1998).

Mic and Eagles (2017) and Wang and Okumus (2009) see that different marketing directions and priorities could be an inhibitor to successful cooperative marketing. Jetter and Chen (2012) revealed that performance perceived risk as a result of competition among partners could be one barrier to joining cooperative alliance. Wang and Okumus (2009) added the perceived risk as a challenge of collaboration that includes the risk of business loss of direct control over their services, which leads to dependence and lack of firm autonomy.

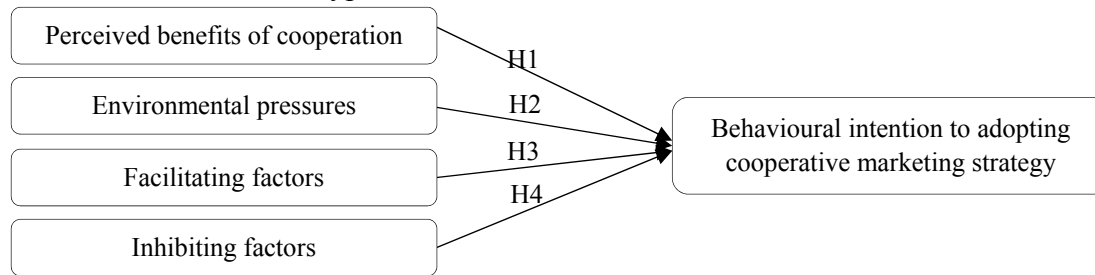
Referring to the above barriers, the fourth hypothesis of the study is formulated as follows:

H4. Perceived barriers of joining cooperative marketing are predicting the decreased engagement of travel agencies and hotels in cooperative marketing strategy adoption.

Figure (1) depicts the research conceptual framework and hypotheses

Figure 1

Research framework and hypotheses



Research Methodology

The deductive approach based on quantitative method is employed in the current study to achieve its objectives. A questionnaire form was used to collect data from travel agencies' and hotels' managers. The questionnaire form consists of some parts. The first part asks about the marketing challenges of the business (i.e. travel agency or hotel), previous partnerships with other stakeholders, and current marketing strategy they adopt. The second part is designed using a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree) and looks at the main constructs of the research model: perceived benefits of cooperative marketing adoption (13 statements), environmental pressures to adopt cooperative marketing strategy (5 statements), facilitating factors of cooperative marketing strategy adoption (5 statements), inhibiting factors to cooperative marketing strategy adoption (10 statements), and behavioural intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy (3 statements). A third part asks about the advantages of adopting marketing strategy to sell directly to market, and the cooperation level if they decide to cooperate (i.e. product, promotion, distribution, and pricing). The last part asks about the demographics of respondents. The questionnaire statements were adapted from literature review and were reviewed by a panel of academics to check its face and content validity. Afterwards, it was piloted on respondents (50 questionnaires on travel agents and 20 on hotels) to examine its construct validity and internal consistency reliability. Values of corrected-item total correlation and Cronbach's alpha revealed from piloting are evidence of valid and reliable measurements based on recommendations of Sekaran and Bougie (2009) and Hair (2010). Out of 1293 travel agencies based in Cairo (ETAA, 2018), a random sample of 300 travel agencies' managers were handed the questionnaire. For hotels, 44 forms were handed to managers of all four-star hotels in Cairo (EHA, 2018). 257 (86%) and 40 (91%) valid forms were collected from travel agencies and hotels respectively. Structural equation modelling (SEM), the multivariate technique, was used to analyze collected data. Convergent validity and discriminant validity were checked against thresholds recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Kock (2018) respectively.

Findings

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table (1) shows that 69.4% and 91.7% of travel agencies' and hotels' respondents are males. The majority of respondents of travel agencies (80.3%) and hotels (90.8%) have university education and the rest of respondents have a postgraduate qualification. Most respondents in both categories (i.e., travel agencies and hotels) are aged between 41 and 60 years (65% in both categories of respondents), while 35% are between 21 and 40 years old. Of travel agencies' respondents, 96.3% have experience more than 10 years versus 36.8% for hotels' respondents.

Table1

Descriptive statistics

		Travel agencies	Hotels
Gender	Male	69.4%	91.7%
	Female	30.6%	8.3%
Education	University	80.3%	90.8%
	Postgraduate	19.7%	9.2%
Age	21-40 years	35%	35%
	41-60 years	65%	65%
Expertise	1-5 years	1.5%	36.8%
	6-10 years	2.2%	26.3%
	> 10 years	96.3%	36.8%

It is revealed that 31% of travel agencies adopt cooperative marketing strategy versus 34% for hotels. However, 50% of travel agencies still adopt direct selling to market strategy versus 32% for hotels. Furthermore, 29% and 34% of travel agencies and hotels respectively do hybrid strategies (i.e. cooperative marketing and direct selling to market). Majority of travel agencies (81%) and hotels (91.7%) depicted that they have partnerships with other travel agencies and/ or hotels and they have previous expertise in collaborations. For levels of cooperation, 95.9% of hotels adopt cooperative promotional level versus 42.2% for travel agencies. Additionally, cooperative pricing level is adopted by 40.1% of travel agencies versus 66.7% for hotels. Distribution level of cooperation comes third for travel agencies (36.8%) and second for hotels (87.5%). Product level of cooperation ranks fourth for travel agencies (35.4%) and ranks third for hotels (75%). While travel agencies use websites as the main tool of promotion (82.3%), hotels use social media (87.5%). Using other travel agencies' / hotels' websites for promotion and TV/ Magazines are other tools of promotion (Table 2).

Table 2

Marketing strategies among travel agencies and hotels

		Travel agencies	Hotels
Partnerships with other travel agencies/ hotels		81%	91.7%
If there is a partnership, previous experience in partnerships exists		78.8%	95%
Marketing strategy	Cooperative marketing	31%	34%
	Direct selling to market	50%	32%
	Do hybrid strategies	29%	34%
Promotion tools	Website	82.3%	62.5%
	Social media	80.3%	87.5%
	TV/ Magazines	66%	37.5%
	Other agents' /hotels' websites	50.3%	83.3%
Level of cooperation	Cooperative product strategies	35.4%	75%
	Cooperative promotional strategies	42.2%	95.9%
	Cooperative distribution	36.8%	87.5%
	Cooperative pricing strategies	40.1%	66.7%

Asking travel agencies and hotels about the reasons they believe to adopt direct selling strategy, Table (3) shows that travel agencies have 'neutral' responses while hotels have 'agreed' to reasons of independence, selecting the suitable price range, flexibility in working with other enterprises, avoiding conflicts that may occur as a result of collaborations, and keeping the privacy of their business as main causes for not working collaboratively for marketing purposes.

Table 3

Reasons of adopting direct selling to market strategy

	Travel agencies (Mean ± SD)	Hotels (Mean ± SD)
Independence	3.12±1.26	3.71±.96
Identifying the price range suitable to my services	3.30±1.04	3.88±.99
Flexibility in working with all parties	3.22±.99	3.88±1.04
Avoiding risks or conflicts may occur	3.25±1.11	3.71±.99
Keeping my business privacy	3.30±1.14	3.42±1.32

MEASUREMENT MODELS

The measurement model validates the correlations between manifests and their relevant constructs. One main aim of measurement models is to ensure the validity and reliability of measurement constructs. Table (4) indicates that the five constructs of study (perceived benefits of cooperative marketing, environmental pressures, facilitating factors, inhibiting factors, and intention to adopt cooperative marketing) show high Cronbach's alpha (CA) and composite reliability (CR) values which are evident of reliable and consistent measurements. Average variance extracted (AVE) values are greater than 0.50 which is evident of convergent validity of measurement models for travel agencies and hotels. Square root of AVE values is greater than correlations among constructs of the study in both measurements and therefore the discriminant validity exists. Existence of convergent and discriminant validity is an evident of the construct validity of both measurement models. Looking at mean values of constructs in Table (4), it is revealed that travel agencies' respondents have 'neutral' opinions on study's constructs while hotels' respondents have opinions range from 'neutral' to 'agree'.

Table 4
Measurement model

Constructs	Indicators (reflective)	Travel agencies						Hotels					
		Value	M±SD	AVE	CA	CR	\sqrt{AVE}	Value	M±SD	AVE	CA	CR	\sqrt{AVE}
Perceived Benefits of cooperative marketing	increases my sales	0.697	3.17±1.42					0.738	4.13±.680				
	markets my products/ services globally	0.730	3.32±1.21					0.789	4.13±.621				
	decreases the competition with partners	0.662	3.09±1.24					0.843	4.00±.885				
	improves the quality of my products/ services	0.664	3.20±1.23					0.776	4.25±.897				
	enhances the reputation of my company	0.765	3.21±1.22					0.771	4.33±.637				
	increases customer trust/ credibility in my company	0.752	3.21±1.21					0.830	4.42±.830				
	decreases the marketing costs	0.719	3.24±1.24	0.544	0.930	0.939	0.738	0.854	4.25±.847	0.614	0.947	0.954	0.784
	helps sell my products/ services in global markets	0.753	3.25±1.19					0.655	4.17±.761				
	increases marketplace segment and build customer loyalty	0.750	3.26±1.16					0.874	4.17±.917				
	increases my company's competitiveness	0.802	3.16±1.09					0.838	4.25±.944				
Environmental Pressures	exchanges information/ experience with partners	0.731	3.08±1.32					0.718	4.13±.850				
	improves decision making	0.768	3.12±1.17					0.724	4.33±.761				
	achieves company growth/ expansion in global markets	0.781	3.31±1.14					0.743	4.25±.944				
	Small size of the company	0.662	3.02±1.38					0.869	3.13±.992				
	low market competencies	0.794	3.27±1.23					0.840	3.33±1.13				
	lower resource base	0.767	3.19±1.16	0.538	0.783	0.853	0.733	0.757	3.29±1.20	0.662	0.867	0.906	0.814
	quick changes in technology	0.705	3.29±1.11					0.931	3.58±1.25				
	potential for growth/ expansion	0.730	3.25±1.33					0.640	3.21±1.29				
	high partner match	0.726	3.28±1.41					0.793	4.29±.550				
	firm previous experience in alliances	0.795	3.35±1.08					0.826	4.21±.509				
Facilitating factors	commitment of management	0.633	3.33±1.05	0.522	0.769	0.844	0.722	0.682	4.21±.511	0.580	0.818	0.873	0.762
	communication and information flow	0.694	3.33±1.14					0.752	4.33±.481				
	sharing experiences/ ideas	0.753	3.33±1.19					0.748	4.21±.721				
	different priorities of businesses	0.738	2.79±1.28					0.932	3.21±1.50				
Inhibiting factors	different marketing directions	0.693	3.09±1.12					0.933	2.83±1.27				
	perceived risk	0.718	2.96±1.15					0.899	2.83±1.15				
	i will not be benefit from cooperation as others	0.663	3.05±1.34					0.908	2.88±1.38				
	different values and organizational culture	0.716	3.09±1.22					0.890	2.83±1.20	0.841	0.979	0.981	0.917
	different perceptions of managers	0.738	3.12±1.19	0.515	0.895	0.914	0.718	0.945	2.96±1.33				
	lack of autonomy	0.756	3.08±1.14					0.956	3.38±1.49				
	tensions and conflict of interests	0.745	3.22±1.19					0.936	2.67±1.29				
Behavioural intention	lack of trust	0.697	3.18±1.23					0.876	3.00±1.41				
	Inadequate knowledge management	0.707	3.19±1.25					0.892	3.04±1.35				
	I intend to adopt cooperative marketing in the future	0.941	3.16±1.24					0.960	3.96±.955				
	I plan to adopt cooperative marketing in the future	0.933	3.35±1.16	0.872	0.927	0.954	0.934	0.946	3.83±.868	0.890	0.938	0.960	0.943
	I will adopt cooperative marketing in the future	0.928	3.30±1.21					0.925	3.92±.929				

Note: AVE: Average variance extracted, CA: Cronbach's alpha, CR: Composite reliability, SR AVE: square root of AVE

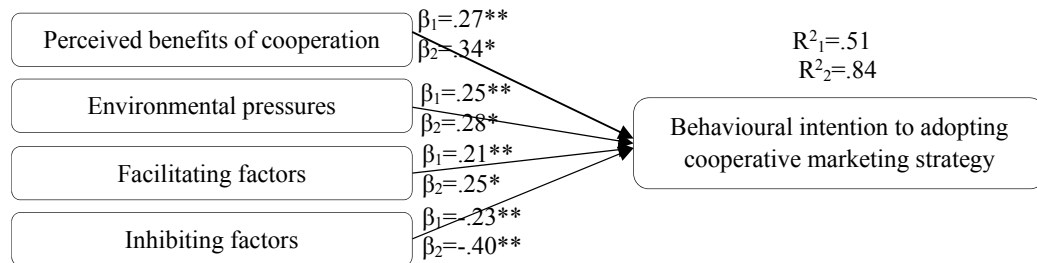
STRUCTURAL MODELS

Structural models look at the regression weights of independent variables (i.e., benefits of cooperative marketing, environmental pressures, facilitating factors, and inhibiting factors) on dependent variable (i.e., intention to adopting cooperative marketing strategy). For travel agencies, intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy is positively affected by: benefits of cooperative marketing ($\beta=0.27$, $P<0.01$ and the first hypothesis (H1) is supported), environmental pressures ($\beta=0.27$, $P<0.01$ and H2 is supported), and facilitating factors ($\beta=0.21$, $P<0.01$ and H3 is supported). Inhibiting factors are found negatively affecting the intention to adopt cooperative marketing ($\beta=-0.23$, $P<0.01$ and H4 is supported). The four constructs explain 51% of variance in adoption intention of cooperative marketing (R square=0.51) (Figure 2).

For hotels, it is revealed that the four constructs explain higher proportion of variance in cooperative adoption intention (R square=0.84). It is found that adoption intention is influenced by benefits of adoption ($\beta=0.34$, $P<0.05$ and H1 is supported), environmental pressures ($\beta=0.28$, $P<0.05$ and H2 is supported), facilitating factors ($\beta=0.25$, $P<0.05$ and H3 is supported), and inhibiting factors ($\beta=-0.40$, $P<0.01$ and H4 is supported) (Figure 2).

Figure 2

Structural models of cooperative marketing adoption intention



Note: β_1 and R^2_1 are values for travel agencies, β_2 and R^2_2 are values for hotels, * significant at .05, ** significant at .01

Discussion of Findings

The current study explores the perceptions of travel agencies and hotels towards cooperative marketing strategy adoption. It is revealed that half of travel agencies adopt ‘direct selling to market’ strategy. The reasons behind the adoption of this strategy are the belief of managers that joining collaborations may affect their autonomy and may lead to conflicts among partners due to different business priorities. Other reasons include the flexibility in setting the price range they need and the freedom of working with many providers in the field without committing to collaboration’s rules and regulations. These reasons are concurrent with Abou-Shouk (2018) who cited that lack of autonomy, and conflicts raised as a result of joining collaborations are negatively affecting collaboration engagement decision. The present study has numerated a number of other inhibiting factors that have a negative impact on adopting intention of cooperative marketing strategy. Findings revealed that managers may have different perceptions toward business priorities and marketing directions. Other factors include the risk-taking reluctance of managers of travel agencies to engage in cooperation and the belief that partners may receive benefits that exceed the resources they share in cooperation and the lack of trust among partners which can raise tension and conflicts among partners. Another factor is the lack of knowledge management to make a good use of cooperation and exploit the resources employed in the cooperation. These revealed inhibiting factors are also in line with findings of previous studies such as Karray and Sigue (2016), Dieke and Karamustafa (2000),

Palmer et al. (2000), Patel et al. (2012), Mic and Eagles (2017), and Wang and Okumus (2009). This situation is not different in hotels as these barriers have a negative effect on hotels' intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy as well.

Despite the inhibiting factors that may constrain travel agencies and hotels to adopt cooperative marketing, managers in both sectors perceive some business environmental pressures that push them to engage in such marketing strategy. These pressures include the accelerating changes in technology which travel agencies have to adapt to in order to support their competitive positions in travel and tourism market. Cooperative marketing may enable partners to access modern technologies in marketing which may be of high cost. On the other hand, small size of travel agencies and four-star hotels is linked to their limited resources which are another push factor to join cooperation to optimize the resources of cooperation for effective marketing efforts. With the desire of travel agencies and hotels to expand and penetrate global travel markets, the cooperative marketing could be the gateway to these markets and the tool for potential expansion. Low marketing competencies is another pressure on travel agencies and hotels to adopt cooperative marketing where high level of marketing skills, plans, and programs is lacked. These pressures on businesses to engage in cooperative marketing are similar to previous studies' findings such as Dickinson and Ramaseshan (2004), Hill and Shaw (1995), Abou-Shouk (2018) and Abou-Shouk et al. (2016).

Furthermore, although travel agencies and hotels may face some challenges that constrain their intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy, they still believe that they have some facilitating factors that could encourage their adoption. One facilitating factor revealed by this study is that travel agencies and hotels have previous experience in collaborations and partnerships. This expertise if positive is always an incentive of business to engage in such cooperation to achieve their potential expansion and improve their marketing activities' effectiveness. Although travel agencies have neutral responses on these factors compared to hotels' certainty, but there is a belief among them that sharing experiences and new ideas could improve the marketing brand of cooperation and increases its competitiveness. Travel agencies and four-star hotels may have a high partners' match that have the same circumstances, resources and providing the same products/ services and looking forward to enhance their marketing efforts and achieve market penetration. The existence of such facilitating factors could explain the positive intention of travel agencies and hotels to adopt cooperative marketing strategy. These factors are in line with factors revealed by previous studies of Yasai-Ardekani and Haug (1997), Selin and Myers (1998), Barratt (2004), and Patel et al. (2012).

The last group of factors that increase the intention of travel agencies and hotels to adopt cooperative marketing strategy and engage in collaborations for marketing purposes is the perceived benefits of adopting this strategy. According to the findings of the present study, hotels have positive opinions toward these benefits than travel agents do. The perceived benefits include sales' increase which is a vital outcome of employing resources, sharing new ideas and modern technologies to expand and target new markets and customer bases. Sales' increase is a result of some other factors achieved by cooperative marketing strategy. These factors include the importance of cooperation in decreasing the marketing costs, improving the reputation of business in market and reinforcing customer trust and credibility in travel agencies and hotels which in turn help build customer loyalty. In addition, adopting cooperative marketing strategy by travel agencies and hotels could help market their products/ services globally, enhancing the quality of these products/ services and therefore improving business competitiveness through experience exchange, and supporting decision making processes among partners and achieving a set level of product quality. Engaging in cooperation and taking the risk to gain some benefits of this engagement could be appreciated if the agency/ hotel gain benefits they expect to have if collaboratively work together to improve their marketing

activities. The revealed benefits of cooperative marketing strategy adoption by travel agencies and hotels are concurrent with ones revealed by literature studies of Dwyer (2003), Morrison et al. (2004), Jetter and Chen (2012), Pansiri (2013), Park and Nunkoo (2013), Agbo et al. (2015), and Mic and Eagles (2017).

Conclusion and Implications

The present study aims to explore the factors affecting cooperative marketing adoption intention among travel agencies and four-star hotels. Findings based on questionnaire data revealed that business environmental pressures have significant effect on travel agencies' and hotels' intention to adopt cooperative marketing strategy. There are some facilitating factors that support the decision of adoption in addition to gained benefits that travel agencies and hotels perceive when adopting this marketing strategy. However, some challenges could negatively affect the adoption intention. Therefore, enterprises have to balance the benefits they could gain if adopting the cooperative marketing strategy with the costs and challenges of engaging in collaborations for marketing purposes.

This study contributes to extant literature of collaboration in tourism and hospitality sectors. It explores the factors influencing the decision of travel agencies to collaborate with competitors to improve their marketing activities and increase their competitive positions in travel and tourism market. The theoretical model designed in this study could be useful for understanding the reasons affecting tourism enterprises to join partnerships in order to market their business activities globally. To our knowledge, very few studies have studied the cooperative marketing in tourism at organizations' level compared to destinations' level. Reasons of selecting between direct selling and cooperative marketing strategies in travel agencies and hotels have been investigated in the present study and this could help understanding why some agents and hotels prefer direct selling strategies instead of marketing collaborations.

The practical implication of the current study is mainly directed to travel agencies' and hotels' managers. Managers could clearly identify the level of their readiness to adopt cooperative marketing based on the empirical model tested in the study. If managers target to market their services globally, penetrate global markets, enhance the reputation of their business, and intend to decrease the competition with partners and meanwhile decreasing marketing costs, they should think seriously in building collaboration with partners for marketing purposes. Travel agencies' and hotels' managers should give weights to benefits of adoption; pressures push their adoption; facilitating factors versus inhibiting factors to make the rational decision either to adopt cooperative marketing strategy or to continue directly selling their services to market. Small enterprises, which travel agents are classified as, should make a good use of collaborations to secure the funding required to support their survival in travel market and increase their competitiveness. Partners could integrate their resources for better marketing of their brands. Marketing brands increases the trust of customers in enterprises and by time leads to loyal customers' base. Cooperative marketing strategy could be a useful strategy to business in general but is certainly useful for small ones if resources are integrated and clear marketing objectives were set and followed by collaboration partners.

Limitations and Future Research Venues

Similar to any other study, the present study has a number of limitations. First, the study is exploratory in nature and highlights the main factors affecting the adoption of cooperative marketing strategy. In-depth investigation of these factors through qualitative analysis could improve the understanding of each single factor and its weighted effect on travel agencies and hotels intention of adoption. Second, the findings of the present study could be affected by the organizational culture of firms included in the study and the business environment and could vary in different environments. Future research needs to address the limitations of the study

and furtherly develop the empirical model of the study to include cultural dimensions and business characteristics.

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EXPLORING THE FACTORS PREDICTING M-COMMERCE APPLICATIONS' ADOPTION IN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY: EVIDENCE FROM TRAVEL AGENCIES, HOTELS AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

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Abstract

Mobile commerce helps business increasing sales and improving marketing efficacy. The present study aims to explore the factors affecting m-commerce adoption by travel agencies, hotels and archaeological sites. Structural equation modelling, based on questionnaire data, was used to analyze collected data. Findings revealed that m-commerce adoption is affected by drivers, barriers of adoption, performance and effort expectancy, and facilitating factors. This study is useful for managers of tourism enterprises seeking to improve their competitiveness and increase their market share.

Keywords: m-commerce, mobile applications, travel agents, Hotels, archaeological sites, Egypt

Introduction

The most significant phenomenon of last decade is the growth of using smartphones. Shaw and Sergueeva (2019) have expected an increase in the number of world smartphone users to exceed five billion users by 2019. It is forecasted that 40% of the world's population is intended to own smartphones by 2021 (Statista, 2019a). Thus, the mobile commerce (m-commerce) has steadily been developed as an extension of e-commerce across the world and became a wide means of shopping online (Marriott, Williams, & Dwivedi, 2017). The transactions of global m-commerce grew from US\$ 50.92 billion in 2014 to US\$ 459.38 billion in 2018 and estimated to reach US\$ 693.36 billion in 2019 (Statista, 2019b). Japan comes first in m-commerce as 50% of e-commerce transactions is conducted through smartphones, followed by the United Kingdom (40%) (Marinkovic & Kalinic, 2017). In China, the retail m-commerce sales are expected to reach 71.5% of total e-commerce sales in 2019 compared to 38.1% in 2014 (eMarketer, 2016). In the US, m-commerce is predicted to reach 45% of total e-commerce sales in 2020 compared to 11.6% in 2014 (Buisnessinsider, 2106).

Moreover, mobile applications (m-apps) are the ubiquitous way for many daily life activities; it allows users to get access to their mails, news, social media and other services without web browsers (Tan, Lee, Lin, & Ooi, 2017). There are over 3 million apps in Google Play and over 2 million apps in the Apple store (Statista, 2018a) with 80% of them is available for free (Shaw & Sergueeva, 2019). M-apps empowered with payment features allow users to conduct online shopping and therefore enterprise use it to increase promotion, marketing and sales of their products (Bang, Han, Amimesh, & Hwang, 2013; Kim, Kim, Choi, & Trivedi, 2017).

Furthermore, businesses have become increasingly interested in delivering mobile services to extend their customer base. They have developed websites and applications to deliver mobile shopping, mobile banking, mobile payment, and mobile entertainment that help them having faster, cheaper and efficient marketing, distribution and booking channels (Tan & Ooi, 2018). In particular m-commerce apps have rapidly increased to help travellers to compare, search and purchasing tourism products and hotel services online (Ismail, Hemdi, Sumarjan, Hanafiah, & Zulkifly, 2017). With a successful use of m-commerce business model to offer travel products and services, tourism organizations (i.e. travel agencies, hotels, archaeological sites, and museums) could increase their positive image, reputation, customer loyalty, and satisfaction (Tan et al., 2017). Furthermore, Gupta and Dogra (2017) found that 42% of travellers worldwide use smartphones to plan/book their trips. Loureiro and Loureiro (2017) have forecasted that 70% of travel transactions within the next three years will be done via mobile devices, therefore tourism organizations such as TripAdvisor, Booking.com, Expedia, Airbnb, Skyscanner and airlines have developed their websites to work on mobile devices and developed mobile applications to bid for such benefits. With the remarkable growth of mobile technology, timely research is emerged for understanding the m-commerce adoption behaviour of travel agents and other tourism services providers (Hew, 2017).

Egypt is a developing country, with a population exceeds 100 million, of them 33.7 million had access to internet in 2017, of them 26.6 million is mobile internet users (MCIT, 2017). The number of smartphone users in Egypt is expected to reach 27.9 million in 2019 (Statista, 2018b). This growth suggests a huge potential market for m-commerce as a shopping channel and its sales in Egypt for travel and tourism service providers. Egypt has about 2224 travel agents of which 1293 are based in Cairo (ETAA, 2018), 44 four-star hotels in Cairo, in addition to many archaeological sites and museum that are considered top tourist attractions. Those providers could make a good use of this technology.

The present study explores the factors influencing the adoption intention of mobile commerce for purchasing and marketing services and products of travel agents, hotels, and archaeological sites and museums. Structural equation modelling will be used to analyse questionnaire data collected from a random sample of travel agents' and hotels' managers, and archaeological sites' visitors in Cairo. The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) is the base theoretical model for this study.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

FACTORS AFFECTING M-COMMERCE ADOPTION

The spread of mobile devices had affected world business. M-Commerce is defined as an extension of e-commerce (Keen & Mackintosh, 2001; Varshney & Vetter, 2004). Tiwari and Buse (2007) refer to m-commerce as any transaction initiated/ completed with the help of an electronic device. It is also defined as monetary transaction conducted via mobile device (Shaw & Sergueeva, 2019; Taylor & Levin, 2014; Zhang, Zhu, & Liu, 2012). Previous studies investigate the factors influencing the adoption of e-commerce technologies: mobile internet adoption (Hung, Ku, & Chang, 2003), apparel mobile commerce (Chi, 2018), mobile marketing (Bauer, Reichardt, Barnes, & Neumann, 2005), mobile services (Nysveen, Pedersen, & Thorbjornsen, 2005), and m-commerce adoption in SMEs (Chau & Deng, 2018). In tourism context, Lu, Mao, Wang, and Hu (2015) examined the factors influenced Chinese's adoption of travel applications. Researchers have adopted technology acceptance model (TAM), theory of reasoned action (TRA), theory of planned behaviour (TPB), and unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) or a combination of these theories/ models to investigate the factors affecting technology adoption intention/ behaviour.

The UTAUT has introduced four constructs to predict the behavioural intention of technology use: performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions

(Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). The current study adopted UTAUT as a reference framework because of its integrative approach subsuming all the variables of other theories that predict the technology behavioural intention. Moreover, the UTAUT was adopted in different contexts including e-commerce applications (Sutanonpaiboon & Pearson, 2006; Wymer & Elizabeth, 2005). Later, it was applied to analyze the adoption of mobile services (Koivimäki, Ristola, & Kesti, 2008), mobile apps of shopping (Chopdar, Korfiatis, Sivakumar, & Lytras, 2018), mobile apps for hotel reservation (Ismail et al., 2017), mobile apps as means for purchasing tourism service and products (G. Tan et al., 2017), online purchasing intention in hotel industry (Allamy, Al-Shami, Sarli, Rashid, & Raad, 2018). Abou-Shouk, Lim, and Megicks (2016) have added environmental pressures (drivers) and barriers as predictors of e-commerce adoption in tourism sector. Adding drivers and barriers to UTAUT has revealed an extended model of m-commerce adoption. The following sections explain the extended UTAUT in order to predict the factors affecting m-commerce adoption in travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites contexts.

DRIVERS TO M-COMMERCE ADOPTION

According to Irmanti, Hidayat, Amalina, and Suryani (2017) the technological changes push tourism destinations and tourism enterprises, including travel agents, hotels, and archaeological sites to develop and adopt m-commerce. This is very important for the stakeholders of tourism industry to meet the changes in the tourism market, which may support their future survival in the global market (Abou-Shouk et al., 2016). This was also suggested by Wang, Li, Li, and Zhang (2016) that technology competence are among the most influential factors on adoption of mobile reservation systems by hotels. Abou-Shouk et al. (2016) have cited four external pressures for travel agents to adopt e-commerce including technology adaptation, business partner pressures, competitor pressure, and business future survival. They hypothesized a causal relationship between drivers of technology adoption and perceived usefulness (performance expectancy) and barriers to technology adoption. Thus, the first, second and third hypotheses of the current study are developed as follows:

H1. Drivers of m-commerce adoption has a significant effect on performance expectancy

H2. Drivers of m-commerce adoption has a significant effect on barriers to adoption

H3. Drivers of m-commerce adoption has significantly affecting adoption intention

PERFORMANCE EXPECTANCY

Performance expectancy (PE) is defined as the perceived benefits from using a technology to achieve certain activities (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). It is the synonym of perceived usefulness in TAM, extrinsic motivation, job-fit in the model of PC utilization (MPCU), relative advantage in the innovation diffusion theory (IDT), and outcome expectations in the social cognitive theory (SCT) (Venkatesh et al., 2003). In m-commerce context, PE explains how the users perceive the benefits of using mobile devices and apps to online purchase of products/ services. It is a frequent predictor of technology adoption intention (Bhatiasevi, 2016; Gupta & Dogra, 2017). Previous studies revealed the significance of PE on adoption intention such as purchasing online tickets (Escobar-Rodríguez & Carvajal-Trujillo, 2014), tourist adoption of mapping apps (Gupta & Dogra, 2017); using app-based mobile tour guide (Lai, 2015) searching and reserving restaurants (Palau-Saumell, Santiago Forgas-Coll, Sánchez-García, & Emilio Robres, 2019), and using travel apps (Gupta, Dogra, & George, 2018).

Benefits of m-commerce adoption include the increase of business competitiveness, customer satisfaction, and marketing efficacy of travel agencies (Tsaia, Huangb, & Linc, 2005) and customers' loyalty increase (Hua, 2016; Tan et al., 2017). It improves service quality and opportunities of travel agencies and tourism suppliers to access new markets (Lee, Qu, & Kim, 2007; Tsaia et al., 2005). Time and cost savings are other benefits of m-commerce adoption

(Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2014). Building upon the aforementioned benefits, the fourth hypothesis is developed as follows:

H4: Performance expectancy is significantly affecting m-commerce adoption intention

EFFORT EXPECTANCY

Effort expectancy (EE) is concerned with the degree of ease to use new technologies (Venkatesh et al., 2012). It is equal to ease-of-use construct in TAM and IDT, and complexity in MPCU (Venkatesh et al., 2003). In the context of m-commerce, effort expectancy indicated the ability to conduct easily transactions (Verkijika, 2018). Previous studies have revealed the significant effect of perceived ease of use on behavioural intention to use new technology (Allamy et al., 2018; Bhatiasevi, 2016; Tan et al., 2017). Shaw and Sergueeva (2019) found that the design of app is very important for consumer use. Consumers prefer to use well-designed and fun to use apps. Consequently, Expedia, Airbnb, TripAdvisor extended their website to fit to mobile device and developed application to be used by customers (Hew, Lee, Leong, Hew, & Ooi, 2016). Ease of use was found to be an important predictor in the adoption of m-device in airlines (Escobar-Rodríguez & Carvajal-Trujillo, 2014; Morosan, 2014). Additionally, TAM has confirmed the causal relationships between ease of use (effort expectancy) and perceived usefulness (performance expectancy) (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989). Thus the fifth and sixth hypotheses are formulated:

H5. Effort expectancy has a significant effect on m-commerce adoption intention.

H6. Effort expectancy has a significant effect on performance expectancy

SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Social influence (SI) depicts the effect of others (e.g., family and friends) on the consumer perception of using a particular technology (Venkatesh et al., 2012). This construct is similar to subjective norm in TRA, TAM, social factors in MPCU, and image in IDT (Venkatesh et al., 2003). SI has a positive influence on behavioural intention to adopt m-commerce (Lai & Lai, 2014; Verkijika, 2018), online purchasing in hotels (Allamy et al., 2018), and mobile tourism shopping (Tan et al., 2017; Tan & Ooi, 2018). Yang (2010) found that consumer's decision of shopping via mobile is influenced by the opinions of people important to the consumer. Chong (2013) found that colleagues and family affecting the adoption of mobile applications and m-commerce. Ozturk, Bilgihan, Nusair, and Okumus (2016) indicate that adopting m-commerce by competitor hotels increases the intention to use it by other hotels. Hence the seventh hypothesis is formed as follows:

H7. Social influence is significantly affecting m-commerce adoption intention.

FACILITATING CONDITIONS

Facilitating Conditions (FC) indicate the consumers' perceptions of resources and support available to perform behaviour. FC is similar to perceived behavioural control in TPB, and compatibility in IDT (Venkatesh et al., 2003). FC was found significantly affecting tickets purchase on low-cost carrier websites (Escobar-Rodríguez & Carvajal-Trujillo, 2014), m-devices in hotels (Morosan & DeFranco, 2016), adoption of mobile applications for restaurant reservations (Palau-Saumell et al., 2019). Therefore, the eighth hypothesis is developed as follows:

H8. Facilitating factors have a significant impact on m-commerce adoption intention.

BARRIERS TO USE M-COMMERCE

Studies on barriers to adopting new technologies are varied. The perceived risk is one example of barriers where the individual's belief could affect their confidence of adoption (Tan, Ooi, Hew, & Lin, 2014). Lack of trust in m-commerce websites/ applications due to the probability

of financial data exposure is another factor behind the unwillingness of consumers' adoption in hotel reservation (Makki, Singh, & Ozturk, 2016; Srivastava, Chandra, & Theng, 2010; Wang & Wang, 2010). Similarly, other privacy related concerns could negatively affect adoption intention (Cozzarin & Dimitrov, 2016). Wang et al. (2016) exposed that small size of hotels or travel agencies is more likely to affecting the adoption of mobile reservation systems. Lack of necessary resources (internet connectivity and memory in the smartphone to download apps) and required knowledge to engage in travel purchase through smartphones are other barriers to adoption. Recently, Leung (2019) revealed that there is some technological and financial barriers to adopt new technologies including the need of some changes in both infrastructure and work procedures. Lack of customer readiness to use the application is a further barrier to adoption.

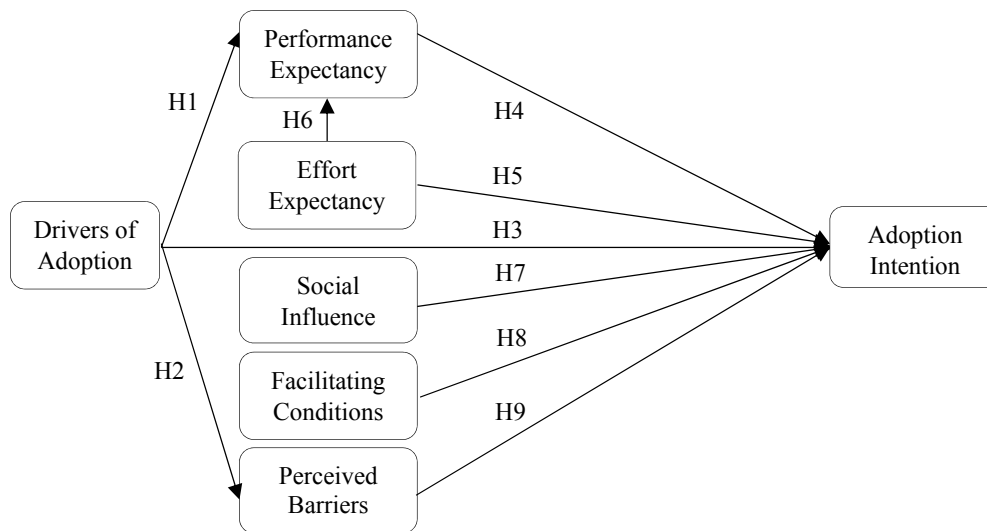
Thus, the ninth hypothesis is formulated as follows:

H9. Barriers to m-commerce adoption has a negative effect on adoption intention

Research Framework

Figure (1) shows the research framework and developed hypotheses.

Figure 1
Research framework and hypotheses



The research framework has nine hypotheses (Figure 1). The third, fourth, fifth, seventh, eighth, and ninth hypotheses respectively measure the effect drivers of adoption, performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, facilitating conditions, and barriers on adoption intention of m-commerce by travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites. The first and second hypotheses respectively examine the influence of drivers of adoption on performance expectancy and perceived barriers to m-commerce adoption. The sixth hypothesis measures the impact of effort expectancy on performance expectancy.

Research Methodology

The present study employs the quantitative method to investigate the intention of m-commerce adoption in travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites. A questionnaire form is used for data collection purposes. Data are collected from travel agencies' and hotels' managers and

visitors of archaeological sites and museums. Questionnaire form has seven constructs designed using a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree); namely drivers of adoption (3 statements), performance expectancy (5 statements), effort expectancy (3 statements), social influence (3 statements), facilitating conditions (3 statements), barriers of adoption (5 statements), and behavioural intention to adopt m-commerce (3 statements). The last part looks at respondents' demographics. The questionnaire indicators were adapted from UTAUT and relevant literature studies (i.e., Abou-Shouk et al., 2016; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Questionnaire validity was ensured by a panel of academics in tourism and hospitality sector, and construct validity was checked based on corrected-item total correlation and Cronbach's alpha statistics revealed from questionnaire piloting.

Out of 1293 travel agencies in Cairo (ETAA, 2018), a random sample of 300 travel agencies' managers were handed the questionnaire, of which 268 forms were returned (a response rate of 89.3%) and are valid for analysis. 44 forms were distributed to and collected from managers of all four-star hotels in Cairo (EHA, 2018), and 205 forms were completed by visitors of archaeological sites and museums in Cairo. Structural equation modelling (SEM), the multivariate technique, was used for data analysis. Convergent and discriminant validities were checked against thresholds recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Kock (2018) respectively.

Findings

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table (1) depicts that the majority of respondents in travel agencies and hotels are females but males in archaeological sites. Most respondents have university education, and mostly aged between 36 to 55 years. Respondents revealed that 78.6%, 87.5%, and 62.6% of travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites respectively have a website, of which 47%, 47.5%, and 36% of travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites respectively have designed a mobile version of their website. However, 39.3% of travel agencies, 17.5% of hotels, and 6.9% of archaeological sites have a mobile application. Travel agencies work locally (20.8%), globally (25.6%) or serve both markets (53.6%).

Table 1

Respondents' demographics

		Travel agencies	Hotels	Archaeological sites
Gender:	Male	69%	75%	46.3%
	Female	31%	25%	53.7%
Educational level:	Secondary	11.3%	-	28.6%
	University	58.9%	87.5%	56.7%
	Postgraduate	29.8%	12.5%	14.7%
Age (years)	15-35	11.9%	35%	41.4%
	36-55	56%	62.5%	47.8%
	56-75	32.1%	2.5%	10.8%
Website	Yes	78.6%	87.5%	62.6%
Mobile website	Yes	47%	47.5%	36%
Mobile application	Yes	39.3%	17.5%	6.9%

Looking at table (2), it is found that mean values reveal that respondents of travel agencies have 'neutral' opinions on drivers of m-commerce adoption (mean value=3.4), while hotel's and archaeological sites' respondents have 'agree' responses (mean values =3.59 and 3.92 respectively). Travel agencies and archaeological sites' respondents have agreed with perceived expectancy (mean values=3.60 and 3.91 respectively), while hotel respondents have neutral opinions (mean=3.40). As for expected efforts, both hotels' and archaeological sites' respondents, they have 'agree' responses (mean values=3.9 and 3.7 respectively), while travel agencies have 'neutral' responses (mean=3.35). Travel agencies, hotels and archaeological

sites have neutral opinions towards social influence (mean values of 3.3, 3.4 and 3.4 respectively) while they agree to facilitating factors (mean values= 3.6, 3.6 and 3.9 respectively). While travel agents having neutral responses on intention to adopt m-commerce (mean=3.39), hotels and archaeological sites have 'agree' perceptions toward intention of adoption. It is found that most respondents have 'neutral' responses on the barriers of m-commerce adoption (mean values range from 3.3 for travel agencies, 2.9 for hotels, to 3.4 for archaeological sites).

MEASUREMENT MODELS

Measurement models look at the correlations between indicators and latent variables. For the measurement models of travel agencies, hotels and archaeological sites, it is revealed that values of average variance extracted (AVE) are greater than 0.5 which is evident of convergent validity, while square root of AVE values are greater than correlations among constructs which is evident of discriminant validity. Values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability for constructs of the measurement models exceed 0.7 leading to reliable measurement models (Table 2).

STRUCTURAL MODELS

Structural models look at the causal relationships (hypotheses) between the constructs of the study. For the structural model of travel agencies (Table 3), it is found that m-commerce adoption intention is positively affected by drivers of adoption ($\beta=0.21$, $P<0.01$ and H3 is supported), performance expectancy ($\beta=0.24$, $P<0.01$ and H4 is supported), effort expectancy ($\beta=0.19$, $P<0.01$ and H5 is supported), social influence ($\beta=0.16$, $P<0.05$ and H7 is supported), facilitating conditions ($\beta=0.18$, $P<0.01$ and H8 is supported) and negatively by perceived barriers ($\beta=-0.34$, $P<0.01$ and H9 is supported). Those six constructs explain 64% of variance in m-commerce adoption intention. Furthermore, performance expectancy is positively influenced by drivers of m-commerce adoption ($\beta=0.32$, $P<0.01$ and H1 is supported) and effort expectancy ($\beta=0.34$, $P<0.01$ and H6 is supported) with R square value of %27. Drivers of adoption has a negative effect on barriers to m-commerce adoption ($\beta=-0.56$, $P<0.01$ and H2 is supported) with R square value of 32%.

As for the structural model of hotels, Table (3) depicts that five constructs have significant impact on m-commerce adoption intention, namely: drivers of adoption ($\beta=0.25$, $P<0.05$ and H3 is supported), performance expectancy ($\beta=0.28$, $P<0.05$ and H4 is supported), effort expectancy ($\beta=0.27$, $P<0.05$ and H5 is supported), facilitating conditions ($\beta=0.26$, $P<0.05$ and H8 is supported) and perceived barriers ($\beta=-0.15$, $P<0.05$ and H9 is supported), while social influence found not significantly affecting adoption intention ($\beta=0.13$, $P>0.05$ and H7 is not supported). The five significant constructs explain 82% of m-commerce adoption intention by hotels. Additionally, performance expectancy is positively affected by drivers of m-commerce adoption ($\beta=0.23$, $P<0.05$ and H1 is supported) and effort expectancy ($\beta=0.20$, $P<0.05$ and H6 is supported) with R square value of %15. Drivers of adoption has a negative effect on barriers to adoption ($\beta=-0.65$, $P<0.01$ and H2 is supported) with R square value of 41%.

Moving to the structural model of archaeological sites (Table 3), it is revealed that adoption intention to adopt m-commerce among visitors are affected by drivers of adoption ($\beta=0.31$, $P<0.01$), performance expectancy ($\beta=0.14$, $P<0.05$), effort expectancy ($\beta=0.17$, $P<0.01$), facilitating conditions ($\beta=0.18$, $P<0.01$), and perceived barriers to adoption ($\beta=-0.17$, $P<0.01$) and therefore hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 8, and 9 are respectively supported and explain 75% of variance in behavioural intention of m-commerce adoption. However, it is revealed that social influence has no impact on visitors' adoption intention ($\beta=0.26$, $P>0.05$) and therefore the seventh hypothesis is not supported. Furthermore, it is found that performance expectancy is influenced by drivers of adoption ($\beta=0.42$, $P<0.01$) and effort expectancy ($\beta=0.43$, $P<0.01$) and

therefore the first and the sixth hypotheses are supported and those two constructs explain 64% of variance in performance expectancy. Additionally, there is a significant causal relationship of drivers of adoption ($\beta=-0.50$, $P<0.01$) on perceived barriers to adoption and the second hypothesis is supported, and 25% of variance in perceived barriers is explained by drivers of m-commerce adoption.

Table 3
Structural models and β values

Independent	Dependent	Travel agencies	R ²	Hotels	R ²	Archaeological	R ²
Drivers	Behavioural Intention	0.21**	0.64	0.25*	0.82	0.31**	0.75
Performance Expectancy		0.24**		0.28*		0.14*	
Effort Expectancy		0.19**		0.27*		0.17**	
Social Influence		0.16*		0.13 ^{ns}		0.26 ^{ns}	
Facilitating Conditions		0.18**		0.26*		0.18**	
Perceived Barriers		-0.34**		-0.15*		-0.17**	
Drivers	Performance	0.32**	0.27	0.23*	0.15	0.42**	0.64
Effort Expectancy	Expectancy	0.34**		0.20*		0.43**	
Drivers	Barriers	-0.56**	0.32	-0.64**	0.41	-0.50**	0.25

Note: *, Significant at 0.05, ** Significant at 0.01, and ns: Not significant

Discussion Of Findings

M-commerce help business increase sales and improve promotion. Businesses adopt m-commerce via versions of websites designed for mobile devices or via apps that enables customer to search for information and purchase products/ services online. From the findings of the present study, it is found that most travel agents, hotels and archaeological sites have websites. However, less than half of respondent firms have a mobile version of their website. Furthermore, it is revealed that travel agencies are likely the enterprises that build mobile applications to promote and sell their services/ products compared hotels and archaeological sites. The current study investigates the factors that explain travel agencies', hotels' and archaeological sites' adoption intention of m-commerce. Travel agencies are small and medium enterprises that work as intermediaries between wholesalers and retailers/ customers and therefore adopt technologies through which their competitiveness could be increased and can access to wide base of customers. Hotels need to market their services to tourists and penetrate global markets to improve their market share. Archaeological sites and museums are a crucial component of travel packages all over the world. Tourists search for information, locations, contents, and access information about these sites and museums. Archaeological sites and museums having m-commerce websites/ apps help their visitors access their locations, book their entry tickets online and efficiently managing the sites and its capacities. The discussion of findings for the current study is divided into three subtitles, namely: travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites/ museums.

TRAVEL AGENCIES

The intermediary role of travel agencies in travel supply chain has pushed them to adopt new technologies that empower their competitive positions and help support their future survival particularly when most tourism service providers can access customers directly without an intermediary. The findings of the present study show that the main predictor of m-commerce adoption intention is performance expectancy. Simply travel agencies could gain a lot of benefits if adopting m-commerce. The main benefit of m-commerce adoption for travel agencies is marketing and selling their services easily where a wide share of market has smartphones and can search, compare and buy services easily. Having websites or apps help travel agencies to increase their customer base and in turns increase their sales. Enhancing customer services of travel agencies is certainly useful for their competitiveness. The revealed benefits in this study are consistent with Hua (2016).

The environmental pressures are the second factor affecting travel agencies adoption intention of m-commerce. One pressure is the future survival support of travel agencies which is threatened by the direct access of travel service online. Therefore, travel agencies should adapt to new technologies in order to retain their market share and attract new ones. Another pressure comes from business partners such as airlines or tour operators who need travel agencies to adopt modern technologies to improve their marketing activities. These pressures of adoption have a positive effect on the perception of travel agencies to the gained benefits of adoption and decrease their perception of perceived barriers. The revealed pressures in this study are concurrent with the findings of previous study of Abou-Shouk et al. (2016).

The third factor affecting m-commerce adoption in travel agencies is effort expectancy. Easiness to use websites/ apps, that customers can learn easily, is a strong antecedent of adoption intention of m-commerce. The apps designed by travel agencies need to be simple, clear, and understandable to attract customers and improve selling/ buying processes. An easy-to-use app supports gaining perceived benefits of adoption by travel agencies. This finding is similar to Tan, Lee, Lin, and Ooi (2017). Furthermore, the factors facilitate the adoption of m-commerce could increase business intention of adoption. Resources necessary to develop apps, fitting it with business activities, and provide help could assist customers using these apps. These facilitating factors are supported by a study of Morosan and DeFranco (2016).

Social influence has a positive impact on adopting new technologies by travel agencies. Having competitors using this technology to improve their competitiveness in addition to a wide base of customers using it could lead to a positive attitude of travel agencies to adopt m-commerce particularly if supported by their management. The effect of social influence is supported by previous studies of Tan and Ooi (2018). When travel agencies have resources, positive perception of adoption benefits, social influence, and easy to use applications, they are not ready yet to adopt m-commerce if their customers lack trust, privacy, or necessary infrastructure readiness or even customer readiness. It is revealed that these challenges could hinder them adopting m-commerce. These barriers are also mentioned by Wang et al. (2016).

Table 2
Measurement models

Con.	Ind.	Travel agencies						Hotels						Archaeological sites and museums					
		Value	M±SD	AVE	CA	CR	\sqrt{AVE}	Val	M±SD	AVE	CA	CR	\sqrt{AVE}	Value	M±SD	AVE	CA	CR	\sqrt{AVE}
DR	DR1	.827	3.42±1.0	.685	.770	.867	.828	.96	3.56±1.4	.911	.951	.969	.955	.920	4.05±.9	.851	.912	.945	.922
	DR2	.845	3.50±1.0					.94	3.58±1.3					.919	3.87±.9				
	DR3	.811	3.38±1.0					.95	3.63±1.4					.929	3.85±.9				
PE	PE1	.656	3.72±1.1	.603	.834	.883	.777	.89	3.30±1.3	.837	.951	.962	.915	.916	3.88±.8	.816	.943	.957	.903
	PE2	.804	3.66±1.0					.91	3.38±1.3					.909	3.93±.8				
	PE3	.834	3.45±1.1					.92	3.43±1.3					.894	3.92±.9				
	PE4	.800	3.60±1.1					.92	3.35±1.2					.887	3.86±.8				
	PE5	.778	3.55±1.2					.90	3.53±1.2					.908	3.98±.9				
EE	EE1	.853	3.41±1.1	.739	.823	.895	.860	.95	3.85±1.2	.925	.959	.974	.962	.893	3.82±.8	.785	.863	.916	.886
	EE2	.902	3.40±1.1					.95	3.87±1.1					.879	3.42±.8				
	EE3	.823	3.24±1.1					.97	3.93±1.2					.887	3.91±.8				
SI	SI1	.768	3.35±1.1	.690	.773	.869	.830	.95	3.40±1.3	.927	.961	.974	.963	.873	3.45±.9	.745	.828	.898	.863
	SI2	.875	3.29±1.1					.96	3.53±1.3					.894	3.43±.9				
	SI3	.845	3.35±1.1					.97	3.48±1.3					.821	3.38±.9				
FC	FC1	.861	3.74±1.2	.705	.790	.877	.839	.88	3.35±1.3	.801	.876	.924	.895	.886	3.90±.8	.798	.873	.922	.893
	FC2	.825	3.67±.89					.90	3.60±1.2					.900	3.79±.8				
	FC3	.832	3.48±1.0					.90	3.88±1.1					.895	3.98±.8				
BA	BA1	.760	3.27±1.1	.577	.877	.905	.760	.90	2.85±1.2	.647	.835	.892	.805	.852	3.53±.9	.655	.866	.904	.809
	BA2	.795	3.38±1.1					.89	3.15±1.3					.851	3.46±.9				
	BA3	.807	3.23±1.0					.88	2.70±1.2					.875	3.46±.9				
	BA4	.772	3.25±1.1					.88	3.13±1.3					.761	3.52±.9				
	BA5	.785	3.24±1.1					.75	2.88±1.4					.693	3.18±.9				
BI	BI1	.855	3.39±.93	.722	.807	.886	.850	.99	3.60±1.4	.983	.991	.994	.991	.900	3.94±.9	.755	.836	.902	.869
	BI2	.869	3.42±1.0					.99	3.58±1.3					.909	3.92±.9				
	BI3	.824	3.37±1.1					.98	3.55±1.3					.794	3.40±.8				

Note: Con: constructs; Ind.: indicators (reflective); M±SD: mean± standard deviation; AVE: average variance extracted; CA: Cronbach's alpha; CR: composite reliability. DR: drivers of m-commerce adoption; PE: perceived expectancy; EE: expectancy efforts; SI: social influence; FC: facilitating factors; BA: barriers of adoption; BI: behavioural intention to adopt m-commerce.

HOTELS

Similar to travel agencies, hotels could adopt m-commerce to gain the benefits of adoption. These benefits include the marketing effectiveness of hotels' services and increased share of market. While most customers are users of smartphones, there is a need to adapt to these technologies and use it to sell services and online bookings of hotel rooms. These applications also support the last minute reservations and improve the performance of hotel booking management. As a vital component of tourism and hospitality industry, hotels need to compete in the global market to increase their base of customers and increase sales. Four-star hotels could not have resources similar to five-star ones particularly to spend for marketing activities but mobile applications are cheap and effective marketing and distribution channel for their services. Benefits of m-commerce adoption in hotels are supported by a previous study of Wang et al. (2014).

Drivers of m-commerce adoption are also affecting the adoption intention. Hotels need to use new technologies to improve the marketing efficiency particularly if competitors use such technologies. Supporting their competitive positions in a fierce competition market is a principle pressure on hotels to adopt m-commerce to achieve the target benefits they seek. While a small percentage of four-star hotels having mobile applications in Egypt, it is an opportunity to this category of hotels to adopt m-commerce and stay ahead of competitors. The drivers of m-commerce adoption have a positive effect on hotels' perception of benefits and minimizing the negative effect of perceived barriers. Drivers of adoption have been cited by a previous study of Abou-Shouk et al. (2016).

Additionally, applications that user cannot be lost while using it could help improve the performance of marketing and booking activities. Useful hints to use the apps and technical support provided could increase its usage. Hotels have to design attractive, clear and understandable apps to encourage customers using it. This finding is consistent with Chau and Deng (2018). Furthermore, having resources, technological infrastructure, and technical support could increase the opportunity of hotels to develop their apps and improve their marketing and booking processes. Facilitating factors are important predictors of m-commerce adoption intention as revealed by Palau-Saumell et al. (2019). Social influence was not found significantly affecting the adoption intention of m-commerce in hotels. This might be because competitors are not using m-commerce apps widely in four-star hotels. In addition, hotels still have some challenges of adoption including customers' trust lack of these applications, or lack of available, speed, and secure internet connections. These barriers are perceived by an extant study of Leung (2019).

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES AND MUSEUMS

Archaeological sites and museums are an authentic component of tour packages. Tourists learn about destination's history and heritage by visiting these sites. This type of attractions needs to market its treasures to visitors, states times and dates of work, tickets availability and online booking. Clear instructions to use their sites and maintain its sustainability could be achieved through m-commerce adoption. Archaeological sites could be effectively marketed using m-commerce channels, increase their bookings' and improves visits' management. This finding is consistent with Tan et al. (2017).

Respondents believe that having resources to develop mobile apps could be an important factor in adopting m-commerce by archaeological sites and museums. Search-in facility and technical support could be an enabling aspect to use these applications by visitors. Similar to travel agencies and hotels, it is revealed that easiness of use is another factor that affecting m-commerce adoption by archaeological sites' and museums' visitors. These findings are consistent with Morosan (2014). Similar to hotels, it is revealed that visitor of archaeological sites and museums are not affected by social influence. This could be currently a result of few archaeological sites and museums in Egypt use this technology. Furthermore, the adoption of m-commerce by archaeological sites and

museums is similarity negatively affected by barriers of adoption including unready infrastructure, lack of privacy and customers' lack of trust in these applications/ websites. The barriers are listed by a previous study of Makki et al. (2016).

Conclusion and Implications

The current study aims to investigate the factors predicting the adoption intention of m-commerce by travel agencies, four-star hotels, and archaeological sites/ museums in Egypt. The study revealed that performance expectancy, effort expectancy, drivers of adoption, facilitating factors and barriers to adoption have significantly affected the adoption intention in by the three categories. Social influence has a significant effect on adoption intention in travel agencies while found not significant in hotels and archaeological sites.

The present study extends the extant knowledge of m-commerce adoption by travel and tourism service providers and compares the perceptions of three different providers of travel services. It extends the UTAUT by adding two important dimensions to factors affecting m-commerce adoption, namely: drivers and barriers of adoption. The two added dimensions have showed significant impacts on m-commerce adoption intention by travel agencies, hotels, and archaeological sites. Two new causal relationships were tested between drivers of adoption and performance expectancy and between drivers of adoption and adoption barriers and showed significant effect. The extended theory has showed good explanation power of factors affecting m-commerce adoption in travel and tourism sectors.

From the practical implications' side, the current study provides guidelines to managers of travel agencies, hotels and archaeological sites to test their readiness for m-commerce adoption. It clarifies the benefits they may gain of their adoption, the drivers they have to consider to improve their competitiveness, the usable design of their mobile versions of websites/ apps, the facilitating factors that could support their adoption and the potential barriers they may address to adopt this technology. M-commerce helps tourism enterprises to improve their marketing efficacy and increasing their sales in light of a wide population percentage has smartphones and can easily use it to search for travel and tourism information and purchase services online or booking hotels online. Managers of tourism enterprises should make a good use of the findings of this study to evaluate their readiness and to identify their readiness level to adopt this technology.

Limitations and Further Research

One limitation of the current study is it lacks some rigorous interpretations on why social influence was not found significant in hotels and among archaeological sites' visitors. Future research should qualitatively explain the importance of social influence factors when adopting new technologies. Validating the empirical model presented in this study on different sectors of travel and tourism industry is encouraged among academics.

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DEVELOPING EVENT TOURISM IN ABIA STATE: EKPE CULTURAL FESTIVAL EXAMPLE

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Abstract

Event tourism has grown as a strategy for the promotion, marketing and supporting of tourism development in a destination. This paper expresses concern about the state of event tourism development in an emerging economy such as Nigeria by answering these questions: are events the strategy for tourism development in Nigeria? How could the challenges facing event tourism development in Abia State be addressed? Ethnographic approach was adopted. Analysis identified themes which should be considered for developing event tourism in Abia State. The findings indicate that these themes are central to event tourism development in Abia State, Nigeria where event tourism is still nascent.

Keywords: event tourism, development, emerging economies, Abia State, Nigeria

Introduction

Event tourism has grown exponentially to attract global attention. Many scholars see event tourism as a potential tool for marketing and developing destinations (Avgousti, 2012; Getz, 2012; 2005; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2018). However, with regards to event and tourism discussion, there seems to be more awareness and development in Western countries than the emerging economies, especially in the African continent. This has raised concerns among tourism scholars in the emerging economies, including Yankholmes (2014), who highlighted the gap between the core-periphery regions in tourism knowledge. This indicates that more research on event and tourism development is needed in emerging economies including Nigeria. Therefore, the question is; could such a wide gap be explained by the several challenges facing tourism development generally in Africa? Could it be that more prolific writers in the field of tourism are from the Western world? Why have the governments of many countries in the emerging economies been nonchalant in developing the tourism industry not to mention event tourism?

Whilst these questions are pertinent for the development of tourism and event tourism in many emerging economies, it is essential to know that the Nigerian government has accepted tourism as one of the pivotal areas for diversifying the economy (see the Nigerian Tourism Master Plan, 2006). However, Nigeria's tourism industry has been neglected because of the failure of the government

to enforce the implementation of her tourism policies. One could argue that this neglect have also affected event tourism development in the country. Therefore, in tourism literature, there is a poor representation of Nigerian tourism. Hence, governments' support and adequate planning strategies is needed for tourism and event development in Nigeria. There is also a need for the government to put mechanisms in place, in terms of the institutional arrangement, policy formulation and use of qualified and skilled experts to support event tourism development. The absence of these critical success factors (CSF) has served as impediments to event tourism development in Nigeria.

This paper pays particular attention to strategies for developing event tourism in Nigeria, using Abia State of South-eastern Nigeria as a case study. Data presented in this paper is part of an on-going PhD research to understand the potential contributions of an event to sustainable tourism development in Nigeria. *Ekpe* Cultural Festival was used as a case study to discuss the development of event tourism in Nigeria. This is because the festival possesses rich cultural features that represent the core Igbo traditions and values. Data was collected from the event organisers in two communities– Umunkpeyi (in Ngwa land) and Isingwu (in Umuahia) both in Abia State, as well as the tourism agencies. In-depth interviews, focus group discussion and participant observation were used to elicit first-hand information from the research participants. Some themes were identified as critical success factors for event tourism development in the study area.

Literature review

Events attract visitors, offering unique experiences for both event goers the host communities. Events and festivals generate significant economic impacts which contribute to the development of local communities (Raj, Walters, & Rashid, 2013). A recent review by Negrusa, Toader, Rus, & Cosma (2016) revealed that the main economic benefits are related to the direct expenditures of visitors and the emergence of job opportunities. Thus, using the Transilvania International Film Festival (TIFF) as an example, their study showed that in 2015 and 2016, over 73,000 and 79,000 tickets were sold respectively; while over 100,000 participants were recorded annually with a budget of 1.5 million Euros. The number of tickets sold and the number of tourists in attendance revealed that **TIFF** has a positive economic impact on the host community. Thus, the investment from event and the revenue added to the local budget has become the main economic benefit of the film festival. The results of the study showed that the economic impact of event tourism rests on its contribution to foreign exchange, job opportunities and image enhancement.

Getz (2005) also found in his study that events are increasingly becoming dominant in the formation of destination image, both at the local, regional and national levels. Although event is not new to community life, Negrusa et al. (2016) argued that an understanding of residents' perceptions of events benefits within a sustainable perspective is important for its growth. This will help event organisers develop effective strategies for events development and resident participation. The participation of the local people creates a positive impact because of the potentials that accrue from event (Boo, Wang, & Yu, 2011). Encouraging local participation and understanding the industry should be adequately explored to help address the challenges of inadequate planning and inexperience found amongst the locals.

The local communities' lack of experience in hosting events can pose a negative concern to the event industry in the future and Jones (2011) noted some of these concerns to include the presence of stakeholders with varied interest, goals, inexperience and approaches to event planning. If these concerns are not adequately handled, it is less likely to achieve the success of any event. Hence, a lack of experiences by the event tourism stakeholders can affect the development of the event industry. Apart from these negative concerns, the nature of demand and supply determines the future of the tourism industry (Dieke, 1989). Based on this perception, the nature of demand and supply can determine the growth of event tourism development in Nigeria in the future.

In addition, Rick (2015) highlighted four important methods to avoid failures but record success when planning a sustainable event. These include ‘making a compelling case for change; engaging people in meaningful conversations; making sure the right people are involved and, ensuring that the people who need to be influenced trust you’ (p.14). Given these points highlighted, it could be inferred that planning is essential in any event. Thus, to maintain the four significant methods suggested, considering planning as a continuous process should be a prerequisite in the order of preference. The order of preference should consider the locals on whose domain the event is hosted. Therefore, sensitising the people and providing an enabling environment for full involvement will bring positive change to the community and the event tourism industry.

Hosting events can provide opportunities for local people to develop and share their culture, create a sense of shared values, beliefs and perspectives within their community (Raj et al., 2013). This informs why Yolal, Gursoy, Uysal, Kim & Karacaoglu (2016) averred that hosting festivals create a sense of community among the local people and provide opportunities for cultural exchange between hosts and visitors. Although events could vary in themes as well as contexts, they offer some influences and benefits to both the host and the visitors. Such benefits include image enhancement, bringing celebration in a community, quality of life improvement of the community people, providing exposure to cultural experiences and opportunity in learning new things (Raj et al., 2013; Yolal et al., 2016). These benefits are necessary for the success and development of any event be it local, regional or international. Thus, using well-informed personnel during the planning process is vital and could serve as a benchmark for the development of event tourism in any destination especially in the case of emerging economies including Nigeria where event tourism is still developing.

Research context

Abia State is one of the five major states inhabited by the Igbo speaking people of South-eastern Nigeria. The State has rich cultural heritage which reflects the people’s traditional life, especially cultural festivals and practices. One of such festivals is the *Ekpe* Cultural Festival which was introduced from Cross-River State of South-South part of Nigeria. Oral tradition showed that the word ‘*Ekpe*’ is not an Igbo word but, instead, a festival which initially belong to the Cross-River people but was adopted and modified by the people of Abia State. The festival was passed down from one generation to another and comprised three phases- the eve (nchichi *Ekpe*), the primal celebration day (igba *Ekpe*) and the final day (azu *Ekpe*). The two communities used as case studies- Umunkpeyi and Isingwu- celebrate the festival annually for entertainment and to re-affirm the cultural values of the people.

Umunkpeyi community is in Isiala Ngwa South Local Government Area (L.G.A) of Abia State. The history of Umunkpeyi is traced to a man called Nkpeyi who lived with his three sons in a place called ‘Okahiaukwu’. Okahiaukwu was formerly occupied by the migrated *Ibibio* people (the then Cross River State) who were chased away by Nkpeyi at the time to have enough land and space for his children. Presently, in Umunkpeyi community, the three sons make up the three hamlets namely: Okpuala, Eluama, and Umunka (Pers. Comm. 28 December, 2017).

On the other hand, Isingwu is an autonomous community in Ohuhu clan of Umuahia North L.G.A of Abia State. The eight hamlets of Isingwu, in order of seniority are Umuda, Umuoriehi, Umuokoro, Umuoka, Amaafor, Ihungwu, Umuagani and Umuada-Okpuala. Isingwu has a population of about 8,000 (eight thousand) people and is on a hill which made expansion difficult, because of its unfriendly terrain. The community is bounded to the north-east by Isiukwuato/Okigwe L.G.As and Okaiuga-Nkwoachara communities and in the east and south by Ibeku and Umuopara clans respectively (Pers. Comm. 14 January, 2018).

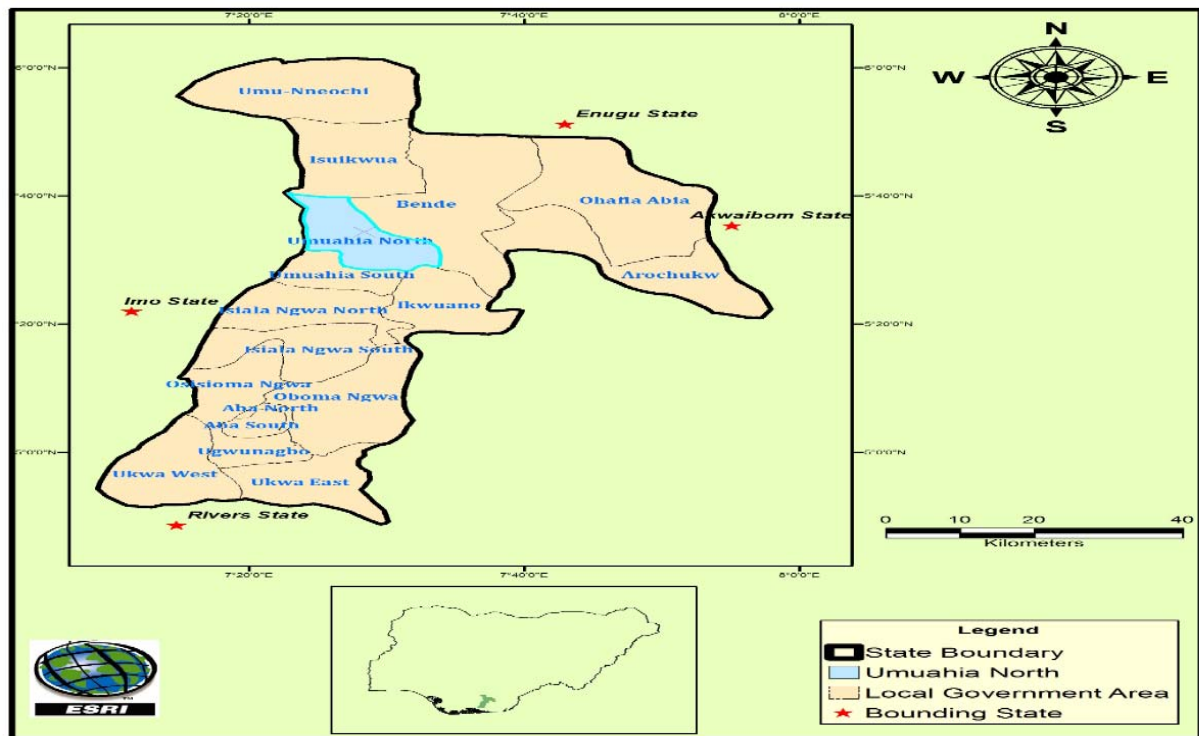


Fig 1: Map of Abia State

Methods of data collection

This paper adopts a qualitative research design, using an ethnographic approach to data collection. Ethnography, which has its root in anthropology and is the oldest form of qualitative data collection technique (Holloway, Brown, & Shipway, 2010), was used in collecting data. Using ethnography gives a better and deeper understanding of events research (Holloway, Brown, & Shipway, 2010). The fieldwork lasted six months from November, 2017 to May, 2018 for the data collection. Semi-structured in-depth interviews (IDI), focus group discussion (FGDs), participant observation and documentary sources were used in the study. These methods are vital in qualitative research (Picken, 2017; Roller & Lavrakas, 2015).

Fieldwork was conducted to enable the researcher to interact with the local people and the tourism agencies to elicit vital information that will help address the research questions and to obtain first-hand information from the respondents. Purposive sampling technique was employed to identify participants who are knowledgeable on the research topic, including people who play active roles in event-related activities both in the communities and in Abia State tourism agencies. The idea is to represent categories of people within a sampling universe in the final sample (Robinson, 2014). A total of 30 informants were interviewed during the fieldwork. Out of the 30 participants, 12 people participated in the one-on-one interview sessions including staff of the tourism agencies as well as some of the local people drawn from Umunkpeyi and Isingwu communities. 18 other local people participated in the FGDs in both communities and are denoted as FGD 1 and FGD 2.

The data collected were analysed using content analysis (CA). Content analysis is one of the qualitative data analytical approaches used to systematically assess the content of various forms of recorded communication such as interview transcripts, minutes of meetings, photos and audio-visuals (Bhattacharjee, 2012). CA helps in identifying themes, patterns, prejudice, biases and

meaning via a systematic approach to compare and summarise a given data (Camprubi & Coromina, 2016). Thus, CA helps in understanding who said what and why during the process of data collection. The data collected were thematically analysed to identify emerging themes and categories. Unit codes were selected, condensed and unit names developed. The next step was to identify categories and patterns emerging from the data to make sense of the responses from participants by grouping data based on similarities and differences.

Results and Discussion

Event tourism is a new field of research in the study area; thus, its development needs the involvement of the government and other stakeholders to support its sustainability. However, from the emerging themes, some interesting issue areas must be noted. First, the Nigerian government practices an autocratic ruling structure. This has sometimes led to adopting a top-down approach to development which neglects the views and contributions of the local people (Oluwatuyi & Ileri, 2016). Thus, community involvement in tourism and event tourism development has not been taken seriously. A possible explanation could be because most of the local people are not well educated and sensitised about tourism. Bello, Lovelock & Carr (2017) averred that such a lack of information and understanding deter most community people from participating in tourism activities.

Secondly, there is the issue of poor accessibility to most tourist sites including event arenas in the study area. The deplorable nature of many Nigerian roads has prompted authors including Akume (2016) to describe most of the roads as 'death trap'. This issue could be linked with the Nigerian government's nonchalant attitude toward using her natural resources for economic development. This attitude should be addressed for the development of event tourism to occur. Besides, funding is another issue that affects event tourism development which is peculiar to many emerging economies including Nigeria. Failure to make funds available to attend to development projects in Nigeria has left the tourism industry underdeveloped. That said, observations made during the study indicate a willingness by the local communities and the tourism agencies to develop event tourism in Abia State.

The analysis of data identified six themes that could act as critical success factors for developing event tourism in Abia State using *Ekpe* Cultural Festival. The themes include the need for collaboration, community involvement, sensitisation of the local people, establishing good road network, addressing the nonchalant attitude of the Nigerian government and provision of funds.

Need for collaboration

Abia State has many cultural festivals that could be harnessed for event tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. Therefore, there is the need for collaboration amongst the various stakeholders, including the government, the local people, the tourism planners and the tourists. Collaboration emerged as one of the critical strategies for event tourism development in the study area because many of the respondents, especially the local people noted that although they are willing to work with the other stakeholders, there is no collaboration currently. Results also showed that the tourism agencies in Abia State- Department of Tourism (DoT), Abia Tourism Board (ATB) and the Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture (MoTAC) are available for collaboration, to help bring significant changes in the State's tourism industry. As some participants noted:

We do not know much about using Ekpe festival for event tourism development in our community. Therefore, we would like the government to get involved in the festival to market our culture to other towns in Abia State and even the world; so they can appreciate how our Ekpe festival is celebrated (Participant 2 from FGD1).

This festival is so dear to us because it has been passed down from one generation to another regardless of the impacts of civilisation and Christianity. Thus, we want the government to collaborate with us so that the festival will be harnessed just as the Calabar carnival in Cross-River State (Respondents 12 & 13, Isingwu community).

Currently, we do not play any role in celebrating Ekpe festival because of some difficulties that affected our collaboration with the local communities while making efforts to manage some tourism sites in the past. However, we would like to collaborate with them but, that might not be achieved without sensitising them about tourism. In fact, we all, including the government need the sensitisation so that collaboration will be more effective. This is because, without the government providing the funds and the local communities getting involved in tourism activities, event tourism will not thrive in the State (Respondent 15, ATB).

The quotes above explain why collaboration is crucial for event tourism development in Abia State. Although event tourism is still new in Nigeria, collaboration can facilitate its development if taken seriously. Collaboration will also ensure that stakeholders work together to achieve a set goal (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Whilst stakeholder collaboration is time-consuming, has power limitation and mistrust (Jamal & Getz, 1995; McComb, Boyd & Boluk, 2016; Saito & Ruhanen, 2017), it helps in sharing of ideas in a tourism destination (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). Studies have shown that when a tourism destination begins to mature, dialogue among stakeholders with the intent of generating a collective vision, decision-making, reaching a consensus about planning and achieving goals become very necessary (Richins, 2009; Waayers, Lee & Newsome, 2012). In this sense, collaboration is one of the crucial pre-requisites for event tourism development in Abia State.

Community participation

One of the crucial ways of developing tourism in destinations is through the involvement of the local people. This explains why community participation in the establishment and development of event tourism should be given considerable attention especially in an emerging economy such as Nigeria. Thus, the local people who are the original owners of festivals should be actively involved in the planning process. Most of the local people noted that as the owners of *Ekpe* festival, they should be made part of the planning process to support a successful development. The rationale for community participation in the tourism literature is because all events take place within a community; which could be local, international, business or a cultural community (Raj, Walters, & Rashid, 2013). Respondents from the two communities commented thus:

for the festival to become a success, it requires the involvement of people of various age brackets coming from all works of life within the community. The participation of these people would bring fun to the entire celebration and harness Ekpe festival for event tourism development. (P2 – FGD1, Umunkpey community).
participation in the festival is segmented and exquisite preparations are solely for men who are active members directly involved in the

festival. Such participation is where decisions are made, and duties shared among members to ensure that the festival is a huge success. More participation is needed to encourage other people (Respondent 13, Isingwu community).

Community participation is, in fact, part of tourism development. The rationale for this is because most tourism activities take place in their domain. Therefore, getting the local communities involved and allowing full participation in tourism activities by taking some key roles will boost event tourism development in Abia State (Respondent 15, ATB).

From the above quotes, it can be argued that participation of the local people in event tourism development cannot be over-emphasised. The more community members participate in the event planning process, the most likely the event will become a success in the end (Rogers & Anastasiadou, 2011). Such participation will positively affect other tourism activities that take place in their environment. This also explains why Rogers & Anastasiadou (2011) argued that ‘community involvement through participation, sponsorship and attendance is necessary for the long-term viability of festivals including their economic and social sustainability’ (p. 388). Hence, it is crucial that the Nigerian government develop their event tourism by adopting a bottom-up approach which supports equality amongst stakeholders, especially the local people.

Sensitisation of the local people

Most of the respondents noted that they have not heard about event tourism, even the educated ones amongst them. An explanation could be that event tourism as part of tourism is still nascent in Nigeria and yet to be introduced into many Nigerian universities. Introducing the subject as a course of study at the tertiary level as well as sensitising the local will increase the level of awareness in the country. This will indirectly contribute to creating awareness about event tourism development in Abia State. This strategy is also a prerequisite that could be used in addressing the challenges facing event tourism development not only in Abia State but also in Nigeria. As a respondent noted:

Our community has been celebrating Ekpe festival from the days of our forefathers to the present. We grew up and met our people celebrating the festival, and most items we use during the celebration are localised. Despite this, there isn't much we know about tourism or developing our festival for event tourism in our community. This is quite unfortunate (Respondents 1&9, Umunkpeyi community).

The above quote captures the importance of the government and the tourism agencies in sensitising the local people. Their participation will support organising of sensitisation programmes and awareness campaign to educate the local communities about event tourism development. Such awareness will position the local people for making decisions about developing event tourism in Abia State. In other words, sensitising the people to embrace innovative or creative ways of approaching event tourism development is necessary (Zulu, n.d). Tosun (2000) also noted that

empowering and educating the local people in the tourism development process is crucial for community participation.

Establishing good road network

This theme is key to event tourism development, not just in Abia State but also in many states in Nigeria. Many of the respondents noted the challenges of inaccessibility to important event tourism venues because of bad road. Inaccessibility has posed a serious hindrance to many tourism activities in Abia State. Poor road networks have in most cases also affected the visitation of tourists to interesting sites in the study area. Most respondents explained that if there are access roads to the festival venue, *Ekpe* festival possesses great tourism potential to draw visitors from around the world. The people believed that when there are good roads within and outside the State, event tourism will thrive in the State. Some respondents highlight this point when they noted:

the visitors are drawn from various communities, neighbouring villages and towns, just to witness the Ekpe Cultural Festival. Some years back, say in 2015, we experienced the attendance of international tourists in this Isingwu community. Neighbouring communities such as Obowo in Imo State, Ngwa people, Aba, as well as our sons and daughters in the Diaspora were in attendance because it is a big event that surpasses Christmas. I believe that if there are good roads constructed by the government, more people would be in attendance next year (Respondent 13, Isingwu community).

Most of the tourist sites are dilapidating because of bad access roads leading to these sites, thus, resulting in poor tourist visitation. This could be attributed to the lackadaisical attitude of the Nigerian government. Abia State is blessed with a plethora of cultural events that could be harnessed for event tourism development. Thus, the government taking up responsibilities by providing us access roads to these sites would contribute to event tourism development in the State. This would make Abia State become the envy of other states in Nigeria (Respondent 16, MoTAC).

Addressing the nonchalant attitude of the Nigerian government

The nonchalant attitude of the Nigerian government toward tourism development in the country has raised many concerns over the years; and this emerged as one of the themes from the research findings. The respondents also expressed their disappointment with the State government because of their attitude toward tourism. Some of the people believed that such nonchalant attitude has affected the development of event tourism in the State. This explains the need for the government to change its approach to event tourism development and develop a positive attitude. Some respondents believed that the positive support from the government would turn tourism into a money-spinning industry in the State. This comment captured this point thus:

if both the government and private sectors will support tourism, the industry will thrive because the State boasts of both natural and cultural resources. The Ministry had organised some cultural events in the State in the past such as 'Ugwu Abia' Carnival and Enyimba

Carnival held in 2016. But, there is no continuity in the celebration of these events in the State because of lack of government interest in developing tourism. However, if the attitude of the government toward tourism changes, there would be a sustained development of events in the State (Respondent 14, DoT).

Comments from some respondents also showed that the government of Abia State had supported tourism through the formulation of sound tourism policies which could help in transforming the industry. However, the implementation of these tourism policies is a serious concern in the State and this has affected the development of event tourism in the study area. The implementation issue is neither peculiar to the tourism sector nor Abia State but is prevalent in other sectors and states in Nigeria. A respondent from one of the tourism agencies explained thus:

We have sound tourism policies in Abia State which could help in the development of event tourism, but the implementation has been an issue of concern. For instance, many of our tourism sites have not been adequately developed because of poor implementation of policy recommendations and government insensitivity to tourism. However, we pray and hope that in future, someone who understands the importance of tourism will be in governance to help implement these policies to develop the industry (Respondent 16, MoTAC).

The above quote showed that with good governance and the support of community members, events will be sustainable. This point was noted by Higgins-Desbiolles (2018). The respondents are hopeful that *Ekpe* festival will be harnessed and bolstered effectively for event tourism development in Abia State. Every event tourism stakeholder including the non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in the area should be supportive of its development. Government involvement and intervention helps in tourism development at all levels (Bello, Lovelock & Carr, 2016); Dieke, (1989); and their investment and support are crucial to obtaining infrastructural development for both the tourists and the locals (Avgousti, 2012).

Provision of funds.

Ekpe festival is an annual event celebrated for entertainment and to re-affirm the culture of the people in the two communities. Observations made during the fieldwork showed that *Ekpe* festival requires enormous funds. This explains why funding emerged as a theme from the responses of the participants. Respondents noted that poor funding has been a significant concern to most sectors in Nigeria; including the tourism industry. More worrisome is that the government seem to be doing nothing to remedy the situation; resulting in emergency-related approach to development. Some respondents cited an example with the *Ugwu Abia* Carnival which was abandoned because of lack of funds. Many respondents from the two communities and the tourism agencies noted that the provision of funds would help in the development of *Ekpe* festival and other cultural events in Abia State. A respondent noted thus:

limited funds have affected the proper planning of Ekpe festival to meet international standard. We do not get enough funding from our sponsors to execute adequate preparations before the festival. We want the government to accord us their full support by financing the

festival. That way, Ekpe festival will be developed as the Calabar carnival in Cross-River State and the Argungun fishing festival in Kebbi State (Respondent 13, Isingwu community).

The festival is an old cultural tradition of our people and we have a unique way of planning. We have also recorded some successes in the end. However, if the event organisers and the government will be able to help us financially, then, the festival will undoubtedly be hosted well to attract more visitors in our community (Respondent 6, Umunkpeyi community).

Several authors have noted funding constraint as impediments to tourism development especially in some emerging economies (Bello, Lovelock, & Carr, 2017; Dieke, 1989). Hence, addressing this theme is an essential key to developing event tourism in Abia State. This is because tourism is a business; and in the absence of an improved and attractive destination to match the expectations of tourists, it may be difficult for the destination to survive. The motivation to visit a destination may be affected because of how the image of the destination is packaged, which is a function of proper funding. Thus, as noted by Dieke (1989), the image a destination portrayed affects demand efficiency and effectiveness. In other words, adequate funding for tourism activities makes a place, and in turn, determines the influx of tourists.

Conclusion and Implications

This paper has discussed the ways for developing event tourism in Abia State. The findings of this paper would hopefully, help to highlight the problems facing event tourism in the study area and inform policymakers on how to support its sustainability. The points discussed can be achieved when governments' support (Avgousti, 2012; Dieke, 1989) and the local communities' participation (Muganda, Mgonja, & Backman, 2013) is integrated into event tourism development process. The results of the paper have shown some critical success factors which should be considered for successful development of *Ekpe* Festival for event tourism. One of such important factors is the need for community participation which helps to meet up with the local needs (Cole, 2006). Therefore, the local people should be part of event tourism development in Abia State.

This paper also discussed the importance of event as a strategy for developing tourism in Abia State of Nigeria using *Ekpe* Cultural Festival as a case study. From the literature, events are potential contributors in developing destinations be it local, regional and national, especially where adequate planning is involved and stakeholders' intervention is strong. Conversely, this is not the case in many emerging economies including Nigeria, with particular reference to Abia State; where there are limiting factors, which were probably created out of ignorance and lack of interest by the tourism stakeholders in the area. However, from the themes identified, there is hope for developing event tourism in Abia State if the critical success factors discussed in this study are considered by the stakeholders; especially the government.

As the findings of this paper suggest, active collaboration, community participation and constant communication between key event tourism stakeholders including the government, tourism agencies, event organisers, the local people and the NGOs are needed for event tourism development. The findings also suggest that event tourism will develop in Abia State when sensitisation and creation of awareness, good accessibility, addressing the attitude of the Nigerian government and making funds available are taken seriously. Whilst these points are very vital to

developing event tourism in the study area; support is also needed from the local communities. The tourism policies should also be implemented by every tourism establishment charged with tourism development in the State

This paper has made some contributions to knowledge, especially as regards research focused on developing event tourism in an emerging economy using Nigeria as a case study. Therefore, further research is needed to help highlight the context of event tourism development in other regions of the country. Since event tourism is still a new subject in Nigeria, more effort is also needed from the government, researchers and other interested stakeholders to promote the subject. Until then, the emerging themes which serve as prerequisites and crucial success factors continue to be working blueprints and progressive framework toward event tourism sustainability in Abia State and Nigeria in general.

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MIAMI, FLORIDA: A DESTINATION STUDY OF CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS ON TOURISM

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Abstract

This article seeks to identify the risks to the community of Miami-Dade County of climate induced weather events. The risk issues of population displacement, and disease epidemics, caused by climate change impacts by rising temperatures and seawater inundation are addressed. Recent major impacts of climate change influences are valued as to their economic impacts on the 24 billion dollar tourism industry in Greater Miami. The triple event and health disruptors for tourism between 2016 and 2018; Hurricane Irma, Zika virus, and the harmful algal bloom known as 'red tide' are evaluated as to their economic impacts on the tourism industry.

Keywords: Sea level rise, Economic risk, Adaptation

Introduction

The development of the South Florida area, particularly that of Miami-Dade County has historically been driven by the real estate speculation of developers and investors. Beginning in the mid-1920's Miami has seen a progressive series of real estate 'booms' and 'busts'. Most recently the financial downturns of 2008 and the accompanying drop in real estate prices provided the opportunity for the boom in real estate development currently being experienced in Miami-Dade County. The threat of sea level rise to both assets and population in this southern most part of Florida appears to be going unheeded by local governments as development proceeds in most communities despite the need for actions to mitigate the irrefutable impacts of sea level rise.

Methodology

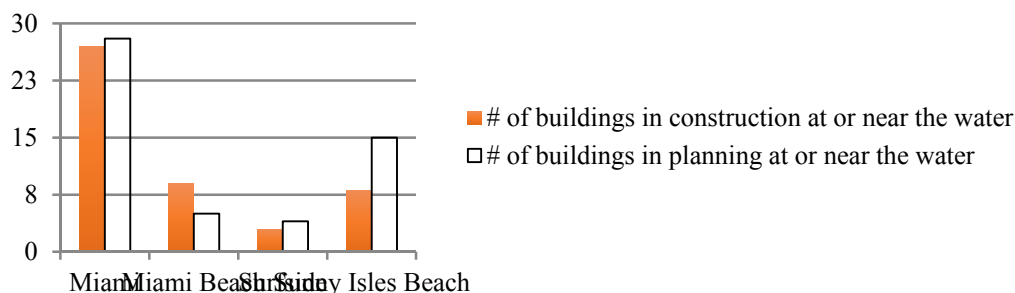
The research described in this document is based on qualitative research methods. A variety of methods to achieve triangulation to increase the validity of the results are used. These include key informant interviews, direct observations, academic journals, existing data of the area from local government and previous academic research results for sea level rise from University of Miami and Florida International University.

DEVELOPMENT TRENDS

At issue here is the scarcity of land adjacent to the Biscayne Bay area, Miami Beach, the Atlantic Ocean and Intra-Costal waterway going north along the Atlantic coast to the Miami-Dade County border. This area includes the cities and towns of downtown Miami, Miami Beach, Surfside-Bal Harbour and Sunny Isle. The April 2015 issue of *The Economist* notes that "The cause for this rush to build ... is not overall scarcity, but scarcity in specific places" ("The Paradox of Soil", 2015, p. 21-23).

Miami-Dade County offers an interesting contrast of development in ‘specific places’. The Miami City downtown area of Brickell has become an offshore center of banking for Latin America. Identified as a secure place to operate financial centers in the face of political and economic unrest in many of the South American countries, banks from that region have established operating centers in Miami. High rise office buildings, apartments and hotels are being built in concentrated development projects in the center of the Brickell area. In contrast, Miami Beach development is primarily focused on new hotels and condominiums driven by the demand expressed in growing tourism numbers. This is also true for the smaller communities of Surfside-Bal Harbour and Sunny Isles, where the demand is for both investment condominiums and tourism short stay accommodation.

Figure 1 Properties Planned and in Construction in Greater Miami Area



Source: The Next Miami Index

According to The Next Miami Index, in Miami-Dade County there are presently, in construction, 44 buildings between 24 and 82 floors high. In Miami-Beach 9 buildings are being added to the already overcrowded sky-scape. Located slightly north in the small city of Surfside three ocean front buildings, all hotels, are rising on the oceans’ edge. In Sunny Isle Beach, north of Surfside, 5 ocean front hotels and condominiums are rising between 24 and 57 floors high. This includes the 57 story Porsche Design Tower that allows owners to park cars directly outside their residence front door and features an elevator for the cars in the core of the building. Downtown Miami has 27 buildings in construction as investors scramble for air rights. To further compound the challenges already being posed to these communities for infrastructure and utilities, an additional 28 buildings are in the planning stages for Downtown Miami, 5 buildings more for Miami Beach, 4 buildings for Surfside and 15 more buildings for Sunny Isle. A total of 60 additional mid-level to high rise buildings which, if all are completed, will bring the current construction frenzy of to 104 buildings by 2020 (The Next Miami, 2015).

The development continues at breakneck speed despite the fact that the Florida Department of Environmental Protection has determined that most of Miami-Dade County’s barrier island coast is critically eroded and that the northern 5.1 miles of coastline in Miami-Dade County has critical erosion threatening development in the area of Sunny Isles (Tompkins & DeConcini, 2014).

PORT OF MIAMI

Construction is not limited to land based projects. Cruise ships with capacities of over 6000 passengers and crew have established Miami as their home port. One of the largest passenger cruise ships in the world, Royal Caribbean’s ‘Allure of the Sea’, carries a maximum of 6437 passengers. The Miami River Harbor will welcome six million cruise ship passengers annually by the year 2035 (Miami-Dade Government, 2011). The majority of these passengers arrive by air into Miami Airport requiring a transportation infrastructure to accommodate groups from 2000 to 6000 people during limited time periods to arrive and depart from Miami, as one group disembarks a ship while

another group waits to board. There are often five to six ships in port simultaneously from Friday morning to Sunday evening year-round.

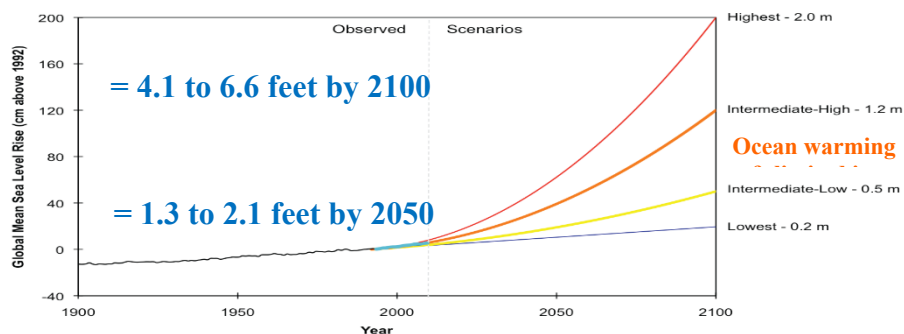
Demands for better access for both cargo and cruise ships have resulted in dredging efforts, to create a deeper harbor. The Port of Miami is the closest U.S. port to the newly widened and deepened Panama Canal which can accommodate the mega size cargo vessels that require minus 50/52 foot harbor depth when loaded to full capacity. Deep dredge efforts have deepened the main Miami harbor channel from a minus 42 foot depth to the minus 50/52 feet depth required by these cargo ships. More than 1 billion dollars of capital infrastructure improvements were completed to meet the deadlines for Port of Miami improvements.

The project to deepen the Port of Miami channel by ten feet moved six million cubic yards of sediment from the bottom of the channel. The sediment raised and spread out through the mouth of the river channel into the ocean is forecast to cover seven acres of now exposed coral reef. By removing a source of oxygen to the reef and its marine life this major component of stabilizing marine life in the area directly off of the coast of Miami Beach will die (Staletovich, 2014). This natural underwater barrier for ocean surge coming onto the beaches will be rendered ineffective, increasing the risk of flooding over the dunes and into the community of Miami Beach. With the loss of this barrier comes the risk of elevating water levels in Biscayne Bay, the Miami River and the densely populated upstream areas built to the rivers' edge whose only protection are aging sea walls.

SEA LEVEL RAISE IMPACTS

On the western coastline of Greater Miami are The Everglades. A river of grass that holds back the water from Miami's western shore is growing weak at the roots as fresh water turns brackish by encroaching salt water from Florida Bay to the south creeping northward. In its wake marine life adapts, dies or flees. This is a fitting example for the 2.4 million people that populate the 2,431 square miles known as Miami Dade County; 1,898 square miles of which is land area and 533 square miles water. Miami, surrounded on three sides by water, is at risk from rising sea levels. As seen in Figure 2, recent U.S. government projections in the area are for sea level rise of 4.1 to 6.6 feet by 2100 (NOAA, 2012).

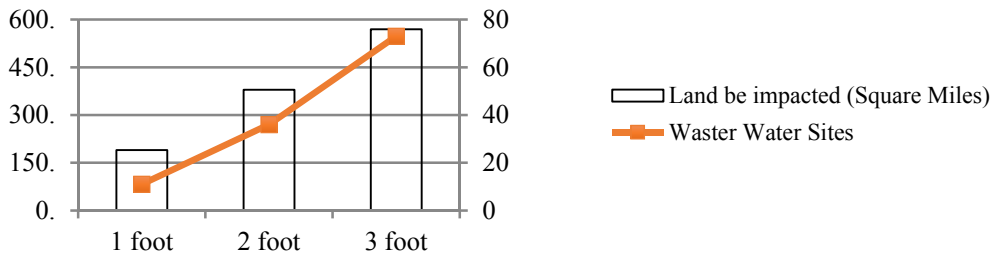
Figure 2 NOAA Projections For Sea Level Rise



Source: NOAA

PHYSICAL ASSETS AT RISK

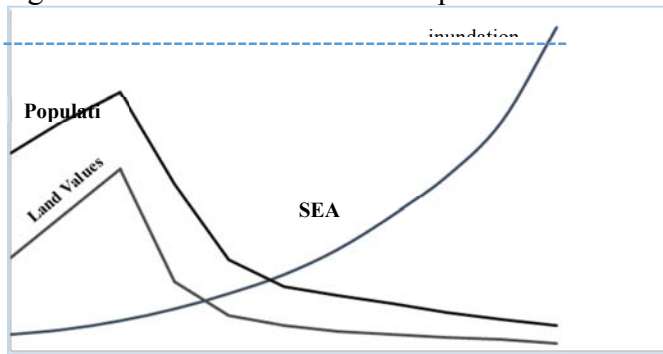
Figure 3 Land and Waste Water System Inundation by Sea Level Rise



Source: World Resources Institute; NOAA

Figure 3 shows the number of square miles of land in Miami Dade County and the number of waste water plants that will be inundated by rising sea water levels. This is where the population is most at risk from sea level rise as the projections up to 3 feet rise by 2050 are accelerated by increasing impacts from climate change conditions.

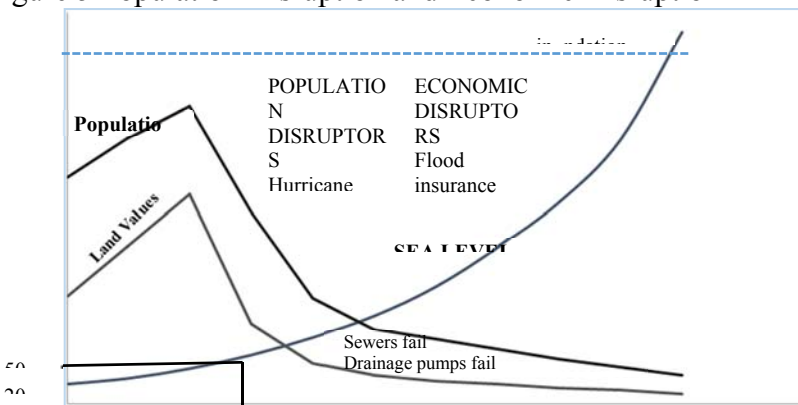
Figure 4 Sea Level Rise Curve Impacts



Source: Dr. Philip Stoddard (personal communication, March 10, 2014)

Figures 4, developed by Dr. Philip Stoddard of Florida International University, illustrate that on the sea level rise curve there is a point of limited or no financial return. At some point real estate values drop and the infrastructure fails, impacting the general population.

Figure 5 Population Disruption and Economic Disruption



Source: Dr. Philip Stoddard (personal communication, March 10, 2014)

The graph in Figure 5 shows that sea level rises in Miami is currently at 20 cm or 7 feet 7/8 inches. At 50 cm or 1 foot 7 1/2 inches, sewer systems will begin to fail and there will be a loss of fresh

water as saltwater fills the Biscayne Aquifer, a major underground source of fresh water for Greater Miami. Extreme weather, hurricanes and storms will create increased levels of storm surge. The economy will become disrupted as business and individuals experience soaring insurance rates, or lack of; and loss of mortgage lenders. State and local governments will experience the loss of taxable properties and the funding from this tax base. Population disruption, disease and migration along with economic disruption are the results of the loss of homes, employment and community infrastructure.

MIAMI BEACH APARTMENT EFFORTS

In the City of Miami Beach one of the most visible of these efforts in adaptation is the installation of pumping stations. The Miami Beach barrier island is one of the most at risk areas from flooding and storm surge in the continental United States. Miami Beach has a land area of 1.2 miles in width, 18.7 square miles total and 7 miles of beach shoreline. The deterioration of Miami Beach as a tourism and visitor destination would have wide reaching economic impacts. These economic impacts for the tourism and visitor industries compiled by the City of Miami Beach are identified in the Miami Beach Economic Indicators Report: 58.5% of the 15.85 million visitors to Greater Miami stayed in Miami Beach and spent \$25.97 billion in the 2017 year.

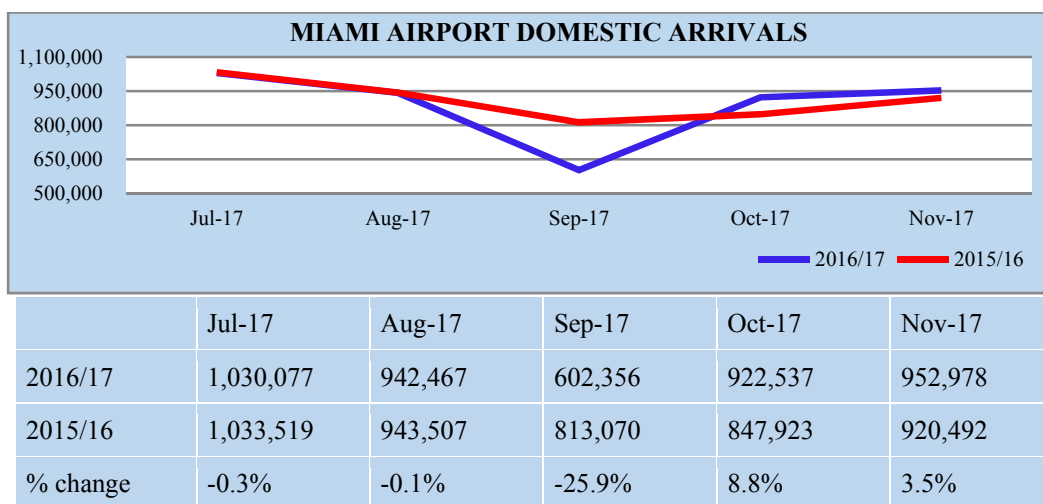
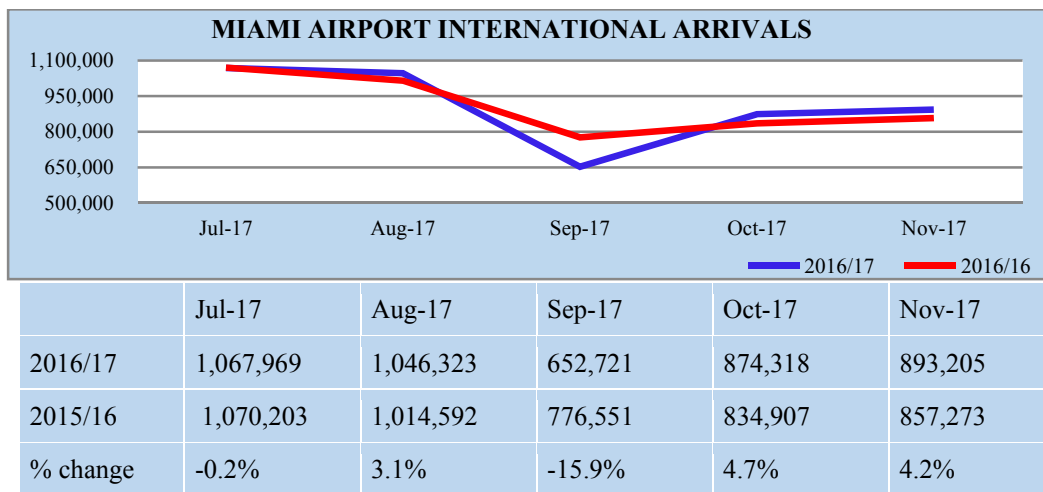
TOURISM ECONOMIC IMPACTS CAUSED BY CLIMATE CHANGE RELATED EVENTS

Tourism is one of the primary economic drivers in Miami-Dade County welcoming 15.86 million visitors who spent \$25.97 billion between January and December 2017 according to the Greater Miami Convention and Visitors Bureau. Three weather related events took place between September 2017 and January 2019: Hurricane Irma, the mosquito borne Zika Virus and the inundation of shore line waters by the 'red tide' algae bloom. The climate related influences on these three events ranged widely but with no less severity.

HURRICANE IRMA

Hurricane Irma was the most powerful Atlantic Hurricane in recorded history. It was a category 5 storm when it made landfall in the Barbados on September 6, 2017 with sustained winds of 185 miles per hour for some 37 hours. The influencing climate related factors that contributed to this storm were centered on record warm ocean temperatures of 86 degrees Fahrenheit. The formation of hurricanes depends on two primary factors, warm ocean waters and increased wind velocity. As the rate of evaporation of the warm ocean water rises to meet the over water winds, the clouds soak up the moisture and the wind velocity increases. If the ocean waters are cool then the opposite result takes place and the over water winds slow down without the increased pressure of moisture filled clouds. Dr. Harold Wanless, in his paper "The Coming Reality of Sea Level Rise: Too Fast Too Soon" notes that "Hurricane scientists suggest that the Atlantic may not have increased hurricane activity with atmospheric and ocean warming however, they project that, of those that so form, more will become major hurricanes and acting at higher sea levels, will become nearly exponentially more damaging."

Figure 6 Hurricane Irma Impact to Arrivals



Source: Great Miami Convention and Visitors Bureau

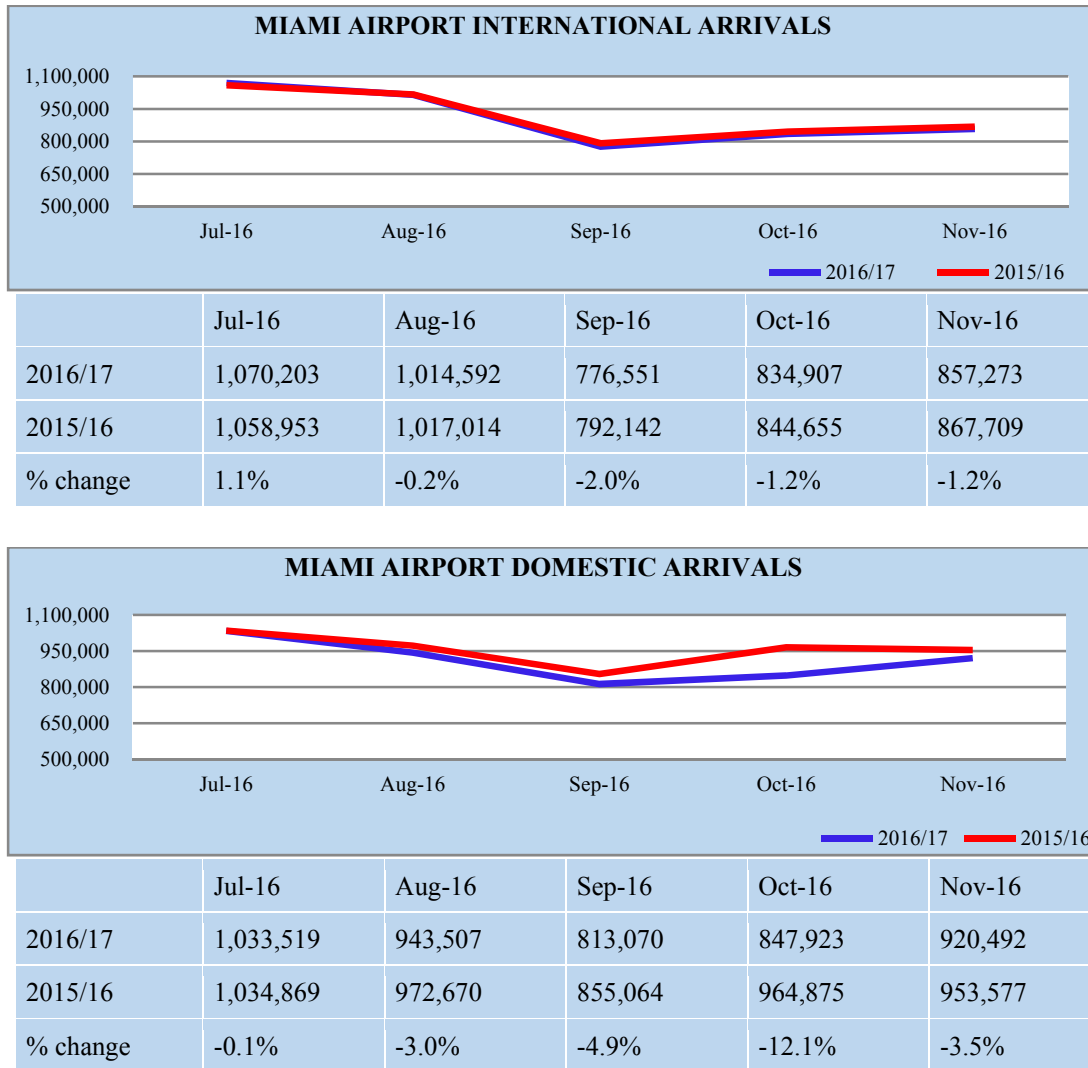
The greatest overall measure of the economic impact of Hurricane Irma to tourism in Miami-Dade County is evident in a comparison of international and domestic arrivals to Miami Airport within the time line of the storm from September 1, 2017 to September 28, 2017. The lowest point of international arrivals, seen in Figure 6, for 2017 as compared with the same time in 2016 shows a total decrease of 15.9% representing 123,830 arrivals. For the same time period for domestic arrivals into Miami Airport there is a drop of 25.9% representing 210,714 arrivals. According to the Greater Miami Visitors Bureau, the average visitor stay has a value of \$1,637.26 per visit. The decrease of combined Domestic and International arrivals indicates a combined decrease of 334,544 arrivals for a total loss value of \$547,725,509.00 in visitor spending.

ZIKA VIRUS

The Zika Virus is mosquito borne and entered the Greater Miami area in July of 2017. The virus was transferred by people arriving from infected locations outside of the United States who were then bitten by local mosquitos which then transferred the virus to people within the range of infection. The critical outcome of transmission of the virus to people of childbearing age and pregnant women is the possibility of children being born with a neurological birth defect causing swelling of the brain and mild to severe disabilities.

The major cruise lines, Carnival Cruise Line, Royal Caribbean International and Norwegian Cruise Line reported no impact from Zika. All offered alternate itinerary options or cancellations for pregnant women traveling to Zika-affected areas.

Figure 7 Zika Virus Impact to Arrivals



Source: Great Miami Convention and Visitors Bureau

The greatest overall measure of the economic impact of the Zika Virus to tourism in Miami-Dade County is evident in a comparison of international and domestic arrivals to Miami Airport within the time line of the identified presence of the virus from August 2016 to November 2016.

The lowest point of international arrivals, seen in Figure 7, for 2016 as compared with the same time in 2015 for August shows a total decrease of 0.2 % representing 2,422 arrivals. A comparison of international arrivals in September 2016 with 2017 shows a total decrease of 2 % in September representing 15,591 arrivals and -1.2% in October representing 9,748 arrivals for a total of 27,759 international arrivals. For the same time period for domestic arrivals into Miami Airport there is a drop of -3% for August representing 29,163 arrivals, - 4.9% for September representing 41,994 arrivals and October -12.1% representing 116,952 arrivals for a total of 188,109 domestic arrivals. Using the Greater Miami Visitors Bureau metric of the average visitor stay having a value of

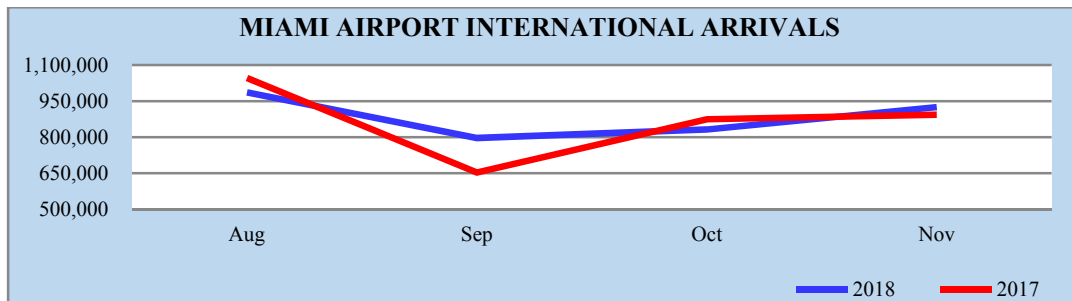
\$1,637.26 per visit, the decrease of combined Domestic and International arrivals indicates a combined decrease of 215,870 arrivals for a total loss value of \$353,435,316 in visitor spending.

RED ALGAE BLOOM

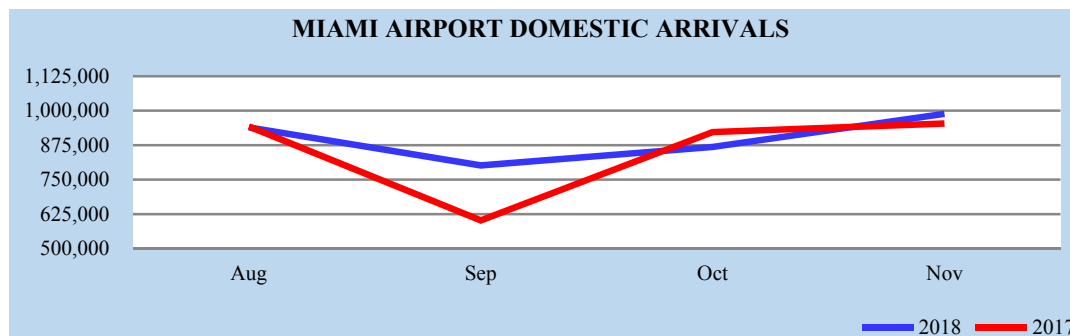
Red Algae Bloom produce toxins that can kill fish, shellfish, birds and cause rashes, stinging and numbness in humans who come in contact with the water borne algae. These algae blooms can be harmful to marine ecosystems as algae die and decompose in large amounts depleting the oxygen supply in the water and killing marine animals. The dead fish and other marine life come onto the beaches with the tide and are left decomposing. Swimmers, surfers and others who are in the water can also be affected by the algae blooms. The algae are a common and natural plant life that live in both fresh and ocean waters. However, when waters become too warm as they did this summer, the algae accelerate growth and create the problems that have been seen along the Florida coast the late summer and fall of 2018. The Greater Miami area was not as impacted as the west coast of Florida but ocean currents flowing from the south and fresh water algae flowing into the ocean and the northeast coast combined to create a tourism challenge with beaches being closed and swimmers impacted in Miami-Dade County.

The greatest overall measure of the economic impact of Red Algae to tourism in Miami-Dade Country is evident in a comparison of international and domestic arrivals to Miami Airport within the time line of the identified presence of the water born algae from August 1, 2018 to October 31, 2018

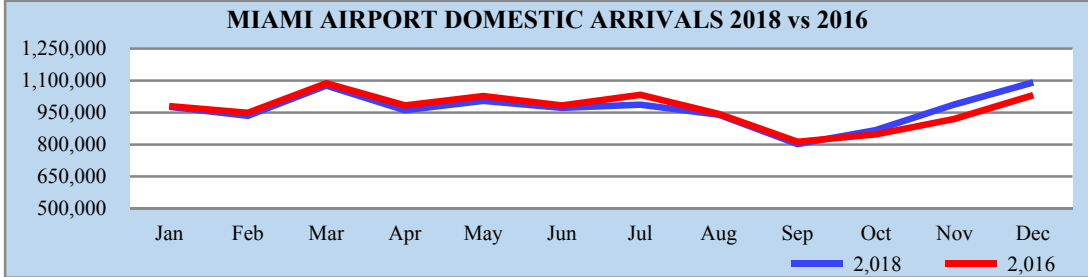
Figure 8 Red Tide Algae Bloom Impact to Arrivals



	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov
2018	986,233	796,259	831,668	925,114
2017	1,046,323	652,721	874,318	893,205
% change	-5.7%	22.05%	-3.95%	3.6%



	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov
2018	939,244	801,637	868,380	988,496
2017	942,467	602,356	922,537	952,978
% change	-0.3%	33.1%	-5.9%	3.7%



Source: Great Miami Convention and Visitors Bureau

The lowest point of international arrivals, seen in Figure 8, for 2018 as compared with the same time in 2017 shows a total decrease of -5.7 % in August representing 60,090 arrivals and -3.95% in October representing 42,650 arrivals for a total of 102,740 arrivals. For the same time period for domestic arrivals into Miami Airport there is a drop of - 0.3% for August representing 3223 arrivals and October -5.9% representing 54,157 arrivals for a total of 57,380 arrivals. Using the Greater Miami Visitors Bureau metric of the average visitor stay having a value of \$1,637.26 per visit, the decrease of combined Domestic and International arrivals indicates a decrease of 60,603 arrivals for a total loss value of \$99,222,111 in visitor spending. The month of September 2018 compared to September 2017 for both international and domestic arrivals shows a sharp increase of 22% and 33% respectively. However, this is compared to the decrease in arrivals for September 2017 as a result of Hurricane Irma. It is more accurate to estimate the impacts of red algae by comparing September 2018 with September 2016.

For the months of September 2018 and September 2016 the lowest point of international arrivals, seen in Figure 8, for 2018 as compared with the same time in 2016 shows a total increase of 0.9 % representing 19,708 arrivals. For the same time period for domestic arrivals into Miami Airport there is a decrease of 1.01% for September 2018 representing 11,433 arrivals, as compared with September 2016. Using the Greater Miami Visitors Bureau metric of the average visitor stay having a value of \$1,637.26 per visit, the decrease of combined International and Domestic arrivals indicates a decrease of 11,433 arrivals for a total loss value of \$18,718,793 in visitor spending. This amount added to the August and October 2018 decrease of 60,603 arrivals value of \$99,222,111 is \$117,940,904 in total visitor loss value.

Figure 9 Comparisons of Hurricane Irma, Zika Virus, and Red Tide Algae Bloom

	Timeline	Decrease in Arrivals	Total Value
Hurricane Irma	09/01/2017-- 09/28/2017	334,544	547,735,509
Zika Virus	06/01/2016-- 11/01/2016	215,870	353,435,316

Red Tide Algae Bloom	08/01/2018-- 10/31/2018	60,603	99,222,868
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Source: Great Miami Convention and Visitors Bureau

Conclusion

The impacts of climate induced events such as hurricanes and severe weather, combined with rising sea levels, are the results of both the over development of Greater Miami and the location and geology of the tip of the South Florida peninsula. As ocean water temperatures rise, the inability of government to find any protective barrier against rising waters presents a calendar for sea level rise impacts over the next 50 years which both the public and the private sector must face the reality of. The race to take financial advantage of the economic rewards of Greater Miami is overshadowing the need to preserve the natural resources that could possibly provide a slowing down against the inevitable flooding, economic devastation and population migration that will ensue. The recent financial impacts of Hurricane Irma, the of the Zika virus and the effects of warmer waters on the algae blooms only begins to illustrate what will continue to occur. Planning for climate induced events is difficult in that, while hurricane weather events are predictable in a forecasted calendar season, the importation of new viruses and the acerbation of naturally occurring water

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VIDEO GAMES, VIRTUAL REALITY AND AUGMENTED REALITY APPLICATIONS IN TOURISM PROMOTION AND MARKETING

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Abstract

Video games and extended reality applications have become ones of the largest segments in the world entertainment sector. Since 2000s, together with the increased technical capacity and proliferation of the desktop and laptop computers, game consoles, smart devices and virtual reality tools; both the standards of the video games and the size of the population they reach have been on the rise. In a similar manner, the means of tourism promotion and marketing are shifting from conventional mediums to digital media, utilizing the opportunities developing technologies present. In this study, the possibility of successful promotion and marketing of tourism via video games, VR devices and AR applications will be discussed.

Keywords: Tourism promotion, tourism marketing, virtual reality, augmented reality, video games, computer games.

Introduction & Definitions

In this study, the possibility and feasibility of using games, virtual reality applications and augmented reality applications in tourism promotion and marketing will be discussed. First, the magnitude of gaming and VR/AR sectors will be examined. Then, the actual examples of tourism promotion and marketing activities through game and virtual reality applications in the world will be presented. Finally, the potential areas of use for game and VR/AR applications in tourism promotion and marketing activities will be discussed.

Video game is defined as a game that may contain a storyline which is perceived through visual and auditory technological equipments (screen, speaker, headset, etc.), played by interacting with the device (Esposito, 2005). Being within only children's field of interest in the past, this digital entertainment platform is no longer as today's "game", it has been transformed into a gigantic field penetrating into many areas of human life on par with the movie industry. Video games can be played in several platforms such as computers, game consoles, tablets and smart phones.

Virtual reality (VR) can be defined as a realistic world simulation created with computer graphics. This artificial world is not fixed and stable, it responds to the user's reaction through the devices used. People enjoy seeing the world changing according to their reactions on the screen (or their glasses) and they can get caught up into simulation (Burdea ve Coiffet, 2003: 2).

Augmented reality (AR) is often described as a branch of virtual reality. An "augmented reality app" is an interactive and real-time software application that works in three-dimensional platform combining the real world with the virtual one. Augmented reality applications usually work on a wearable computer, mobile phone or tablet (Azuma, 1997). Through the cameras and screens of these devices, it becomes possible to make virtual additions to the world we see with our bare eyes and to improve our perception of reality through augmented reality technology.

Mixed reality (MR) involves real time interaction between the virtual content and the real world. Extended reality (XR) is an inclusive term for all reality altering technologies, namely VR, AR and MR.

COMPUTER AND VIDEO GAME INDUSTRY

At present, spreading over a wide range of types and platforms, it is stated that there are 2.3 to 2.6 billion people playing computer and video games in the world (Takahashi, 2017; Newzoo, 2018). Modern computer and video games have reached to some point that will appeal to everyone by breaking cultural stereotypes and eliminating young/old, male/female differences. According to a study conducted by the ESA in the United States, the gender distribution of a typical game-playing human profile became almost equal (39% female / 61% male). The average age of the gamer is identified as 34 (ESA, 2018).

The financial size of the global gaming market is estimated to be 137.9 billion US dollars as of 2018. The global game and interactive application market is expected to surpass 200 billion US dollar mark by 2025 (Newzoo, 2018).

In order to have a better understanding of the magnitude of these figures, a comparison with the the cinema sector can be made. In 2018, the global box office receipts of the movies released increased by 9% compared to 2017, reaching at US \$ 41 billion (MPAA, 2018).

Although these figures indicate that the global game market is 3.3 times the global movie industry, this comparison needs to be done carefully. The box office receipts cover only the ticket revenues at movie theaters; however, the revenues from the sales of DVD, broadcasting rights and physical objects (clothes, toys, souvenirs, etc.) are not included. On the other hand, not only the revenues from games and applications themselves but also the revenues from the sales of the devices (virtual reality devices, etc.) are included in the figures of the computer and video game industry. However, the revenue only from digital products (games, applications, etc.) in the computer and video gaming industry constitutes 87% of the total revenue (\$ 94.4 billion). In this case, it would not be wrong to say that the total financial size of the box office receipts and the revenues from broadcasting and other digital movie rights is still lower compared to the financial size of the computer and video game and interactive application market (Newzoo, 2017). It should be also noted that the computer and video game industry is growing at a much faster rate than the cinema industry. The games and interactive media industry grew 13% in 2018 (Superdata, 2018).

It should also be noted that computer and video games can have a long lasting effect on people's lives. Whereas a movie has an impact duration that only lasts for a while, computer and video games are designed to be played for weeks, months, or even years. Especially the emerging of smart devices such as mobile phones that can be carried all day long increases the time people spend while playing games. Verto Analytics' research on this topic revealed that 49% of US citizens are playing mobile games and their average daily playing time is 24 minutes. It was found out that the average playing time of the "real" players (core gaming community) is 1 hour 40 minutes. (Hwong, 2016). Another research shows that players have spent 12% of an ordinary week by playing games (Nielsen, 2017).

Considering this economic impact, it can be argued that the video game industry is encompassing the world and have a significant impact in the daily life of the modern society. This medium with a wide audience and high immersion rate can be a major arena for tourism branding.

VIRTUAL REALITY MARKET

As of 2018, about 26 million VR devices are sold throughout the world. The annual sales are expected to occur at 14 million in 2019 and close to 50 million in 2022 (CCS Insight, 2019).

Between the 2015 and 2018 period, the revenues of the VR market (hardware and software combined) surpassed US\$ 8.5 billion (Superdata, 2018). According to these statistics, virtual reality devices hit the markets a short time ago but already are becoming a standard home entertainment system technology such as DVD players, game consoles and music systems. Wireless headsets such as Facebook's Oculus Go and Oculus Quest are good examples of the future of VR (CCS Insight, 2019). Oculus Go sold 1 million units after its May 2018 launch, paving the way for standalone VR headsets (Superdata, 2018).

As the technology advances, the VR technologies are expected to depend less on other devices like PCs and gaming consoles and profit from other emerging technologies like cloud computing. This will make the VR headsets less complicated to use and more common for the average consumer which will increase the amount of devices owned and used by the world population.

GAMING VIDEO CONTENT AND GAME CHANNELS

The impact of the game industry is not limited to the people playing games. "Gaming video contents" can be described as shared videos on how to play a game or how to be successful in playing it while creating a platform for discussions and an enjoyable experience. Millions of users spend hours on watching other people play games and usually speak to the audience at the same time. Some of those viewers are not gamers themselves but people who want to watch someone else people play games (Petrova and Gross, 2018).

The amount of people watching video game related videos is astonishing: The total number of subscriptions on the channels that broadcast game related videos in Youtube and Twitch was higher than the sum of the audiences of the world's largest television networks such as HBO, Netflix, ESPN and Hulu in 2017 (Superdata, 2017). Accordingly, the financial size of the gaming video content market soared to US\$ 5.2 billion in 2018 (Superdata, 2018). As a result of this rapid growth of the gaming video market naturally created its own superstars and influencers.

A well known example of those superstars is Swedish Youtube personality Felix Arvid Ulf Kjellberg whose online alias is PewDiePie. He has been uploading videos to YouTube since 2010, and his gaming channel was specializing in "let's play..." style videos but has branched out to internet culture commentary in recent years, accumulating 94 million subscribers and 21 billion video views, making it the most subscribed user channel on Youtube as of April 2019 (Bambrough, 2019). Standing at the highest spot of the Youtube ecosystem, PewDiePie is a great example of how much attention gaming draws all over the world and the size of its sphere of influence.

e-SPORTS MARKET

eSports is as a form of sports where the primary aspects of the sport are facilitated by electronic systems; the input of players and teams as well as the output of the eSports system are mediated by human-computer interfaces (Hamari ve Sjöblom, 2017).

Competitive e-sports emerged 20 years ago, when the real time strategy game StarCraft became an obsession in South Korea. At the time, in response to the Asian financial crisis, the South Korean government focused on telecommunications and Internet infrastructure. As a result, a vibrant community of gamers was formed around the year 2000 (Mozur, 2014). Television channels like OGN (Ongamenet) specializing in broad-casting video content and e-sports matches (mainly StarCraft) emerged. The government also became involved, creating the Korean e-Sports Association to manage e-sports. The Korean e-Sports Association (KeSPA) established by the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism in South Korea and the UK eSports Association are some of the examples of national associations (Gaudiosi, 2015).

This new venue of interest spread from South Korea to the globe during the 2000s. Today, revenues from e-sports in 2019 are expected to surpass US\$ 1.1 billion worldwide with a year-on-year

growth of 26.7% (Newzoo, 2019). E-Sports are already ahead of “real” sports like golf and tennis behind and making their way among the top betting sports in the world.

As in “real” sports, there are tournaments with big money prizes, sports shows on television, sponsors covering athletes' expenses, discussions on performance-enhancing drugs regarding e-sports. Already the prize pools of top tier e-sports tournaments like *Dota 2 International* and *LoL Championships* are on par with legendary sports tournaments such as Wimbledon, Daytona, U.S. Gold Open and Tour De France and the number of peak viewers of distinguished e-sports events can surpass the mentioned traditional sports tournaments (Ingraham, 2018).

Colossal companies like Coca-Cola and Gillette are signing partnership agreements with game tournaments and sponsorship deals with e-sports athletes (Gillette Newsroom, 2019; Nemer, 2017). FOX Sports has secured U.S. television and streaming rights to the finals of multiple FIFA19 Global Series events (Fox Sports, 2019). These companies treat e-sports as an equal of traditional sports due to its public relations and marketing value and make significant investments on the e-sports market.

Based on this data, it can be considered that tourism marketing and promotion activities carried out through traditional sports events can be adapted to e-sports events as well. Advertising in e-sports also bear an advantage in user interaction and determining customer profile: The online platforms which allow users to watch e-sports (Twitch, Youtube, etc.) acquire detailed data about the users including interaction characteristics and demographics. Thus, advertising in e-sports event can be more effective in terms of targeting the right customer segments.

DESTINATION PROMOTION IN COMPUTER AND VIDEO GAMES

Although video games are often the subject of fictional worlds and environments, real-world environments can also be recreated in those mediums.

For example, *Grand Theft Auto V* which is arguably the most successful computer and video game of all time, has sold over 100 million units in all platforms, is set in the cities of Los Santos and San Andreas which are closely based on real-life Los Angeles and Southern California (Seeking Alpha, 2018). Similarly, there are other big budget productions such as *Watchdogs* (Chicago, San Francisco), *L.A. Noire* (Los Angeles), *Yakuza* (Tokyo), which were designed on real-world cities and locations.

Assassin's Creed is an interesting case for tourism, which is a big budget and world-renowned video game series that takes place in the past centuries of historical cities like Jerusalem, Rome, Venice, Istanbul, London and Paris as well as ancient Egypt and Greece. The game allows the players to roam in the streets and immerse in the atmosphere of those historical locations which is an unmatched way of connecting a potential tourist to a location. Some tourists learn about those cities and historical landmarks in them by playing the games. There are guided tours based upon the *Assassin's Creed* franchise (TripAdvisor, 2019). The series already started to present non-competitive (without enemies or combat), educational versions of the game which transforms the gaming experience into a virtual tourism event (Ubisoft, 2019). A recent study is carried out to determine whether these aspects of *Assassin's Creed* induce tourism activity among the players and the results suggest a connection between video games and travel (Dubois and Gibbs, 2018).

There have been attempts to promote cities with smaller scale productions as well. For example, released in 2011, a special installment of *Angry Birds* (one of the world's most popular mobile game series), *Angry Birds: Rio* was set in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Pomerantz, 2011). *Angry Birds* is a casual mobile game, so it is not possible to visit or tour the city in the game; however, it drew potential tourists' attention to Rio de Janeiro brand by increasing the awareness and familiarizing its culture to the players.

DESTINATION PROMOTION WITH AUGMENTED REALITY APPLICATIONS

Augmented reality is a technology based on adding visual content to the image seen on the device's camera, as a result of this, it is often used in tourism-oriented mobile device applications such as city and museum guides. AR information systems can help tourists in accessing valuable information and improving their knowledge regarding a touristic attraction or a destination, while enhancing the tourist experience and offering increased levels of entertainment throughout the process (Fritz et al., 2005). Mobile AR applications allow users to explore the world by adding new layers to their reality, thus resulting in a new interactive and highly dynamic experience. Since these applications are mostly accessed over mobile devices with GPS functionalities, tourists can gain additional benefits and navigate themselves interactively with the help of the direct annotations of the selected locations (Kouvanis et al., 2012).

An early example is *Tuscany+* which helps tourists find their way in Tuscany, Italy, while obtaining detailed information of the city. The tourists can view surrounding restaurants, historical districts and entertainment venues as well as their reviews (Visit Tuscany, 2018). *Tuscany+* was world's first AR tourism application but it paved the way for many other stand-alone AR applications in the tourism field.

In 2019, Google Maps has announced a new experimental feature on iPhone and Android that shows the users exactly where to walk when trying to get to a destination. Holding the camera towards the street, the users can see which direction to go and which turn to take in order to reach their designated destination (Haselton, 2019). This technology will be at the reach of almost every tourist due to Google's vast user base and supposedly make AR technology a standard for all destinations and tourists all around the world.

It is possible with AR technology to virtually reconstruct damaged or destroyed cultural heritage sites or buildings with the help of the three-dimensional models rigged on top of real images via applications such as *CityViewAR*, *Streetmuseum Londinium*, *Archeo Guide AR*, *Layar*. Thus, tourists can see iconic structures such as a ruined temple or the demolished Berlin wall positioned on the actual camera image. It has been observed that such practices attract users' attention to the extent the application's ability to use storytelling and interaction (Tscheu and Buhalis, 2016; Lee et al. 2012). This ability of AR apps definitely improves the tourism experience and adds a new layer to cultural touristic activities.

Applications such as *Google Translate*, *Word Lens* and *Intelligent Eye* offer a solution to linguistic problems that tourists may face while communicating with the locals of the destination they are visiting. Tourists can instantly see the translation of a text on their own phone screens while holding their phones towards the signboards written in a foreign language (Buhalis and Yovcheva, 2013). Combined with translator applications powered by voice recognition technologies, this will greatly reduce language barriers and include larger amounts of people to the tourism sector as customers. Augmented reality applications also enable the gamification of tourism experience. Gamification, which can be adapted to tourism in such form of a treasure hunt in the city visited or a destination quiz, provides rewarding interactions and a high level of satisfaction on the tourist while increasing brand awareness and developing loyalty for the destination (Xu et al., 2017).

Sometimes, the games might help improve tourism as a positive side effect. *Pokémon Go* is an augmented reality game in which players use their smartphone's camera, touch screen, and geolocation to track, catch, and battle Pokémon. Pokémon (short for "pocket monsters") are fictional creatures from the popular series of video games, anime, and trading cards. Players are using the game to explore their environments in new ways and local businesses are benefiting from the increased foot traffic (Ong et al., 2016). Destination management offices, hotels and museums are reportedly creating "lures" and "pokéstops" to draw tourists who are *Pokémon Go* players

(Holder, 2016; May, 2016). This is an indication of how more institutions and establishments will embrace the opportunities games and AR offer in the near future.

DESTINATION PROMOTION VIA VIRTUAL REALITY APPLICATIONS

Compared to traditional promotional materials, virtual reality provides tourists with more accurate and reliable information for a lower cost, time and effort (Buhalis, 1998). The fact that image and sound are very important elements for tourism and that the tourists' experiences in a destination are connected to visual and auditory stimulation, virtual reality can be considered to form a very suitable match with the needs of tourism marketing (Gutiérrez, 2008; Guttentag, 2010; Jacobious, 2016). Research shows that people informed about a destination through virtual reality applications have higher tendencies to do more research and share more information with their network compared to those who receive information via 2-D videos and photos (Griffin et al., 2017).

During ITB Berlin 2017, several countries promoted their destinations with virtual reality applications, and especially Mexico and Ireland's 360 degree videos received impressive feedback (Lisnevskaya, 2017). In 2019 ITB is announcing that a new platform for Virtual and Augmented Reality called ITB Virtual Reality Lab is being created. ITB Virtual Reality Lab is a platform for providers and users of virtual and augmented reality applications in the fields of Tourism and Marketing. Following market insights into the latest technologies and projects on stage, exchanging ideas and trends in the networking area and experiencing technologies at the exhibitor booths are the main goals of the initiative (ITB Berlin, 2019).

The hotel and airway offers of Thomas Cook, one of the most established tour operators in the world, have been provided to customers via virtual reality applications in some travel agencies in Europe. Thomas Cook acknowledges that virtual reality is a great way of experiencing products from customers and allows holidaymakers to experience the holiday without needing to set foot on a plane. VR helps to make the intangible seem physical and real; VR goggles can provide a 3D view into hotel rooms, a look around destinations and help increase the booking rates of different experiences like helicopter or cruise ship tours. (Thomas Cook, 2017; Thomas Cook, 2018).

There are several high quality 360 degree video contents on tourism destinations in such platforms like *YouVisit*, *Ascape VR: 360° Virtual Travel*, *Jaunt*. The videos mentioned, allow the users to experience tropical beaches or untouched forests, see the takeoff of an airplane from the pilot cabin, witness the depths under the oceans, watch the performances of a great artist from the stage, and enjoy them from your virtual reality glasses during their lunch break and are often free of charge. The Oculus platform also features travel related 360 degree content on destinations such as Egypt, Austria, Greece, Finland and Australia (Oculus Store, 2019).

Australia's national tourism agency, the *Tourism Australia*, added 360 degree videos shot in 17 different impressive locations in Australia to their promotional campaigns in January 2016 (Tourism Australia, 2019). Dublin AR project initiated by Dublin City Council aims to utilize AR as an enhancement tool for tourists as well as to promote the city of Dublin as an urban heritage tourist destination (Dieck and Jung, 2018). Similarly, the tourism agencies selected by TVG which is a subsidiary of the Munich-based tour operator FTI Touristik, present virtual reality content on their products. Hotel chains like Alltours, Rixos, Best Western, Kempinski, Gloria and cruise companies like Sea Cloud, Hapag Lloyd, MSC supply 360 degree video contents to this operator (DiginetMedia, 2019).

Due to their large number, all virtual reality initiatives used in promotion, guidance, sales and image studies for destinations could not be mentioned in this study. These examples are given to point out to the fact that virtual reality is accepted as a globally valid medium for tourism marketing.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The statistics presented throughout this study reveals that video game industry, AR/VR platforms and related industries have reached a sheer size in fiscal terms and customer base. Several examples on the use of virtual and augmented reality applications by tourism institutions, OTAs and destination in the world were also mentioned. This emphasizes the untapped potential of these relatively newer channels to make publicity and image work in the field of tourism.

Film-induced tourism is a well documented area however the effect of video games on tourism is not studied in depth yet (Dubois and Gibbs, 2018). Thus, there is a need for more research on how video games can be used for tourism marketing. The tendency to disregard video games as “childish” should be faced with hard truth and statistics.

Like many other sectors, the future of tourism lies in the digital era but there are several studies have focused on privacy concerns of the users over the use of their personal data that causes a decrease in the use of mobile applications by tourists. A reluctance towards mobile application use in tourism activities is also noted (Dorcic et al., 2019). Although further research is needed to confirm this hypothesis, it can be argued that past generations were hesitant on using new technologies in daily life but members of the Generation Z will perceive mobile applications, AR and VR as common tools during their travel and tourism activities. If this is the case, all the tourism industry stakeholders will have to focus deeper into these technologies and try to implement the opportunities they present to their services in the near future.

This being said, there are also some problems awaiting the video game and AR/VR platforms and their potential partnership with tourism. Since technology is constantly evolving, it is always a challenge for stakeholders and service providers to invest in solid products and continue to develop software and generate content as the product continues its life cycle. In the world of information technologies, what may seem as the next big thing might be forgotten within months. Thus, developing lasting and successful projects on tourism products within the aforementioned mediums can only be achieved by a clear understanding of both new technological advances and the fundamental dynamics of traditional tourism sector. Tourism authorities should look forward to working with academics and professionals who are able to manage the communication between the software developers, creative content designers and administrative institutions & organisations that are in charge of the project. Coming from different backgrounds and working methods, these stakeholders are in need of a “translation” mechanism through successful project management to achieve their goals.

It should also be noted that, all platforms mentioned in this paper have different strengths and challenges due to their nature. So, the opportunities they might offer for tourism marketing and promotion activities will be covering different areas. A few examples of potential applications are:

- Video games can be an important tool for creating destination awareness and inducing tourism. Tourism boards might offer incentives to video games or mobile games that feature and promote their destination(s). Legal regulations on incentivizing movies and other visual products which support tourism can be extended to include video games.
- Game related videos and e-sports events should be recognized as a fresh platform for millions of young viewers who will be travelling the world in the near future. To construct a motivation in this group; hotels, destination management offices, government bodies, OTAs and other actors can advertise in e-sports platforms. However, young generation of people who are interested in watching gaming videos or e-sports events will have different interests and criterias compared to the conventional tourist. For this reason; correct cultural references and audio-visual language should be used in such commercials.

- VR applications are better suited for showing the tourists a glimpse of what they are buying. Travel destinations usually have a wide range of tourism products that can not be properly expressed with brochures, posters or even videos. With the help of VR, it would be easier and quicker for OTAs, airlines, other agencies to describe the experience offered by each destination to the potential tourists without leaving the comfort of the sales office or their homes. The destination management offices and agencies can generate and distribute VR content to promote their tourism products.
- AR technology on the other hand is more potent on guiding tourists and improving their travel experience while they are physically in the target destination. Today, there are several museums which offer an improved experience by employing AR technology (Radsky, 2015). It is possible to improve the audio and visual guide services in almost every museum with AR. Pieces of exhibitions that could not be completely preserved can be virtually restored, understaffed museums can be supported with virtual assistants that appear on smart device screens. Also, AR technologies are gaining a great importance on the virtual reconstruction of historical monuments, helping curators, archaeologists or historians to reproduce on site historical places as they were in their golden period (Fritz et al., 2005). For example, standing in the designated “AR spots”, tourists can witness the daily life in Roman Forum or Ephesus as it were hundreds of years ago from today. Legendary battles in world history, ancient rituals held in mystical spots like Stonehenge & Göbeklitepe and highlights from the lives of historical figures can be visually presented to the tourists on their original spots.

Apart from the opportunities presented for tourists, AR, VR and other gamified applications can be used in the training of the staff working in the tourism sector. Among firms that utilize VR in their business, training is the biggest driver of enterprise VR adoption, with 71% of firms using VR to develop their workforce, for example Walmart agreed to purchase 17,000 Oculus Go headsets to train retail employees in September 2018 (Superdata, 2018). This potential of VR can be used in the service side of tourism to train the employees in the sector and improve service quality as a result. To conclude, AR/VR technologies and the world of video gaming has a lot to offer for tourism marketing and promotion. Many initiatives have already taken steps to utilize this potential but there is still a lot of way to go. Tourism authorities and sector leaders are expected to examine the evolution of those mediums and foster the collaboration of tourism and technology to improve global tourism experience.

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Abstract

The factors that influence cableway demand, business profitability and competitiveness are explored. Core determinants are identified and validated through SEM, where continuous indicators are used as observed or latent variables. In Aosta Valley (Italy), the cableway sector is financially supported by the public agent. In line with the Lindhal equilibrium, it sets a price lower than the free market equilibrium price. A loyal and price elastic segment of demand is identified. Online consumers' satisfaction has a negative impact on competitiveness, implying the need for adequate yield management. Climate changes represent a threat given the reduction in tourism attractiveness of a destination.

Keywords: cableways; demand; business profitability; competitiveness; public intervention; SEM

Introduction

Cableway and ski lift firms, in mountain areas, often experience difficulties in generating balanced economic and financial profiles. On the supply side, amongst the main causes that raise either break-even points or losses at the operational level, are not only high costs for initial investments in the infrastructure, personnel costs, but also additional costs related to artificial snowmaking. Glacial melting and reduced amount of snow, due to climate change, is challenging even further private financial constraints (Falk and Hagsten, 2019). Business profitability also depends on the external setting composed by a holistic-virtual system, made of transport nodes and residential logistic, that influences the firm ability to gain market competitive advantage. From the demand side, firm business profitability depends on users and customers' attitude, motivation, needs, life style, and purchasing propensity given their budget constraint. Notably, this niche of transport sector experiences low levels of demand by locals, especially in more remote areas, and as a further threat, the ski product, at a global scale, is characterised by a maturity life cycle stage (Macchiavelli, 2006). The overall economic status - estimated by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, average price of fuel, household expenditure - can also drive firms profitability and market shares. Given these financial constraints, public intervention, either as a direct provider, or through tax incentive, venture capital, participative loans is often crucial to support high infrastructure costs as well as maintenance costs of transport plants but also to revitalise demand,

mostly connected with the hospitality sector (see Cobo-Soler et al., 2018, for the case of the hospitality sector in Spain).

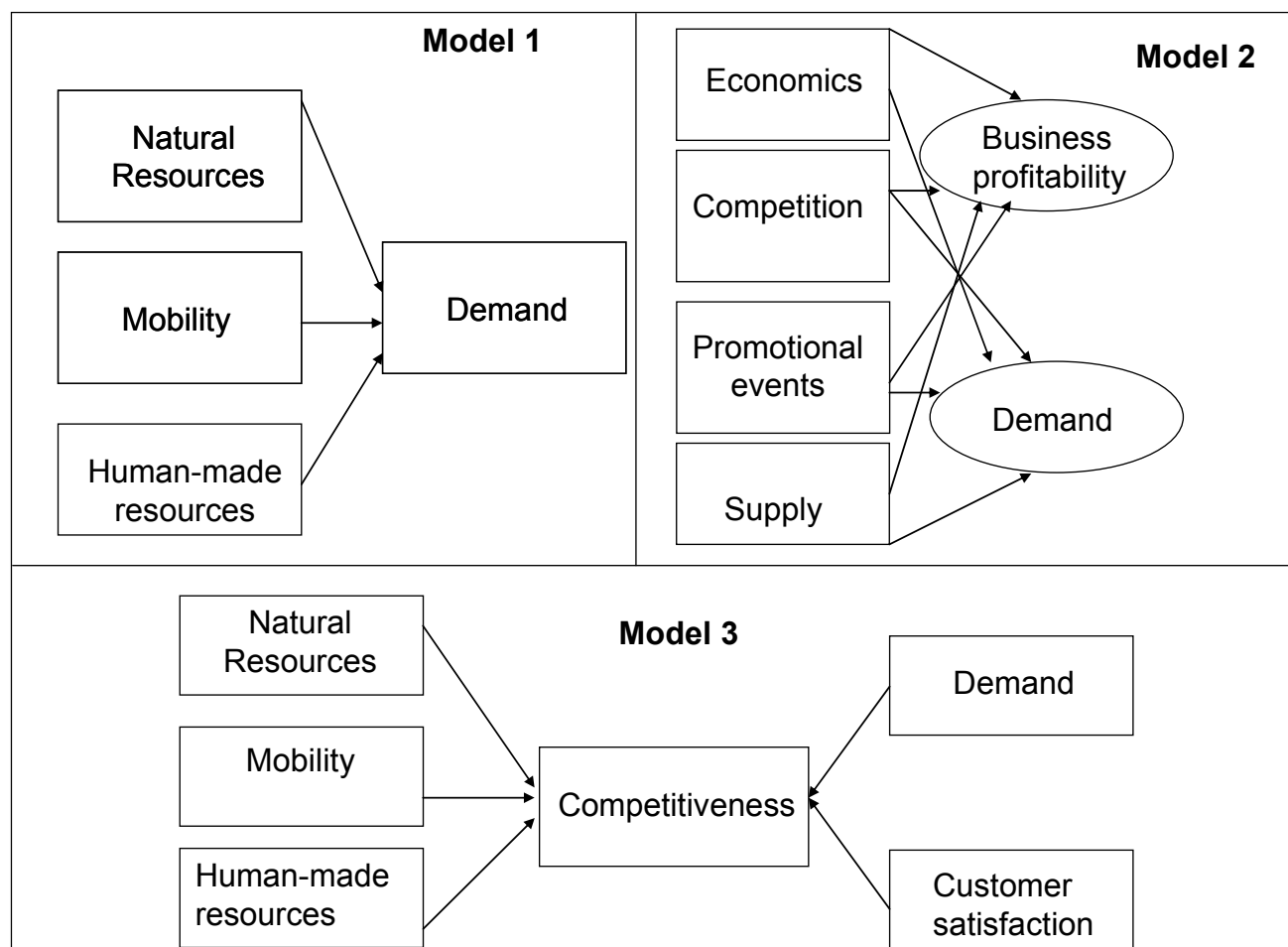
In this paper, a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is run to assess the factors that influence cableway demand, supply, and competitiveness amongst mountain districts, with the aim to identify key factors of strength and weaknesses. This quantitative tool provides a simultaneous approach able to identify short run and medium run investment opportunities, both for the private and public agents, with the aim to minimise business risks, and to balance benefits and economic/financial costs. The case study is the Italian region of Aosta Valley (North-West, Italy), the first alpine region to hold vast protected areas in percentage of the total land area, endowed with a high biodiversity value, that enriches the destination image and represents an attraction for domestic and foreign tourists (European Union, 2013).

Conceptual Framework And Methodology

Through an in-depth literature review (Lim, 1997; Golob, 2003; Gössling and Hall, 2006; Falk, 2010; Brida et al., 2014; Falk and Hagsten, 2016; Falk and Lin, 2018), core determinants that are assumed to influence winter tourism are identified (see Figure 1). Winter *tourism demand* (Model 1) is assumed to be influenced by natural and human-made resources, and mobility. Besides, *tourism demand and business profitability* in winter resorts (Model 2) is assumed to be affected by economics determinants, competition, promotional events, as well as supply (Castro-Nuño et al., 2013; Dwyer and Kim, 2005; Franch et al. (2010). The third theoretical construct (Model 3) presents the factors that are assumed to influence cableway competitiveness amongst districts within the region, that is. natural resources, mobility, human-made resources, demand as well as customer satisfaction.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework. Demand, Business Profitability And Competitiveness



These theoretical models are further validated through a SEM, where continuous indicators are used either as observed variables or as latent variables, built on a Factor Analysis (Van Acker and Witlox, 2010). Hence, this multivariate statistical approach includes two steps of analysis. 1) a structural model, that is a causal relationship between dependent and independent variables, and 2) a measurement model (Bollen, 1989, Golob, 2003, Nachtigall et al., 2003).

The latent (unobserved) variables are obtained as linear combinations of the observed variables and are identified by employing a priori iterated principal factors (IPF) analysis, with no rotation. Specifically, the uni-dimensionality of the latent variables is assessed using a two-step procedure. In the first step, the Chronbach's Alpha is employed as a reliability measure of the factor. In the second step, a factor analysis with a IPF method is employed. As a threshold for the factor loading, a 0.40 lower boundary is adopted (Stevens, 1992). This statistical analysis is performed using the IPF procedure in STATA 15.1. Finally, all the latent variables are standardized in order to be further employed in the SEM.

The SEM is then estimated with the LISREL 8.80 software (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993). As a pre-processor for LISREL, the program PRELIS was used to build the correlation matrices (KM method), to control for the variables multivariate and kurtosis normality, and to build the correlation matrices that were used to fit the models with the maximum likelihood method (Byrne, 1998). To assess the goodness of fit of the theoretical model, and compare the observed variance-covariance matrix to the predicted variance-covariance matrix, a Chi-square is computed. The theoretical value ranges from zero, that indicates a perfect fit, to infinity that indicates a poor fit,

and the null hypothesis should be accepted. However, as shown in Bollen and Long (1993), this measure is highly influenced by the sample size. A further measure relates to the Chi-square degrees of freedom (df); the Chi-square is regarded as satisfactory when in medium-sized samples ($100 < N < 200$), the df is less than 2.5, and with small samples ($N < 100$) the df is less than two. Besides, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is also considered as a further measure, and the value is expected to be close to zero for a good fit.

The advantage of a SEM, with respect to other parametric specifications, such as time series and panel data, is the possibility to analyse, within a series of simultaneous estimated structural (i.e. regression) equations, not only the relationships amongst different endogenous and exogenous variables, but also to identify the reciprocal causal influence amongst endogenous variables.

The Case Study And Empirical Data

The present case study focuses on the autonomous Region of Aosta Valley in the North-West of Italy. The intervention of the public agent, mainly through provisions and subsidies by the regional public finance of FinAosta, within the planning policy, promotes and implements a series of activities that bring socio-economic benefits not only to the mountain communities but also to the whole Italian economy, through direct and indirect taxation revenues.

Furthermore, as reported in Massarutto et al., 2002, a multiplier of 5 to cableway firms added value is obtained, a figure rather conservative if compared to other studies in the literature (for example, the French association and the Piedmont Region (Italy), in terms of cableway turnover operators estimate multipliers values equal to 10 and 8, respectively).

The empirical data were collected from various statistical offices of the autonomous Region of Aosta Valley (i.e. *Assesneurat de Tourisme, Sports, Commerce, Agriculture et Biens culturels* (Tourism, Sport, Trade office); *Assesneurat de Affaires européennes, Politiques du travail, Inclusion sociale et Transports* (Cableways infrastructure Office); *Centre fonctionnel régional* (Civil Protection and Fire Brigade Office); *Observatoire économique et social* (Social and Economics Observatory of Aosta Valley). The relevant data were retrieved on the following web site http://www.regione.vda.it/amministrazione/struttura/default_f.asp, and the main variables are constructed over the time span 2009-2016, given the data availability as well as controlling for homogeneity of collection and missing data.

Results: Factor Analysis

An account on the factor analysis is provided in Table 1. The Chronbach's alpha suggests for the reliability of each factor that present a value higher than 0.70. The first latent variable, *Natural resources*, includes three observed variables (i.e. resort downstream altitude (in meters); winter average maximum temperature (in C°) at the skiing resorts; winter average minimum temperature at the skiing resorts (in C°), where the resort downstream altitude presents the highest loading value (0.93).

The second latent variable, *Human-made resources*, includes the number of daily bus return transfers (*bus*, loading value 0.72), skiing length of the slopes (loading factor, 0.72), *beds* in official accommodations (with a loading factor 0.71), amenities and promotional activities, such as events and festivals (loading factor 0.48), days of artificial snowmaking that presents the lowest loading value (0.41). The third latent variable, *economics indicators (Italy)*, includes the Italian GDP and household income that present a loading value 0.76, respectively. The fourth latent variable, *economic indicators (Aosta Valley)*, includes the consumer price index and household expenditure that show a loading value of 0.87, respectively.

Finally, the last latent variable, *supply*, includes three observed variables as follows. the number of days cableways are open to the public that presents the highest loading value (0.99); maximum

price for a cableway pass (loading value 0.77); and the maximum price paid for an accommodation nearby the skiing resort (loading value 0.75).

Table 1
Iterated Factor Analysis (No Rotation, STATA 15.1)

LATENT VARIABLES	CHRONBACH'S ALPHA	VARIANCE 1st FACTOR	VARIABLES	VAR. FACT. LOADING
NATURAL RESOURCES	0.75	100%	Resort downstream altitude (mt.)	0.93
			Maximum Temperature	0.71
			Minimum Temperature	0.52
HUMAN-MADE RESOURCES	0.75	77%	Bus	0.72
			Skiing slopes (Km)	0.72
			Beds (accommodation)	0.71
			Amenities/promotional activities	0.48
			Artificial snow (days)	0.41
ECONOMICS INDICATOR (ITALY)	0.86	100%	GDP (Italy)	0.76
AOSTA VALLEY ECONOMICS INDICATOR (<i>econ.vda</i>)	0.74	100%	Income (Italy)	0.76
			Consumer Price Index	0.87
SUPPLY	0.85	92%	Household expenditure	0.87
			Winter Days Open	0.99
			Ticket Maximum Price	0.77
			Accommodation Maximum Price	0.75

Results: The Demand Construct

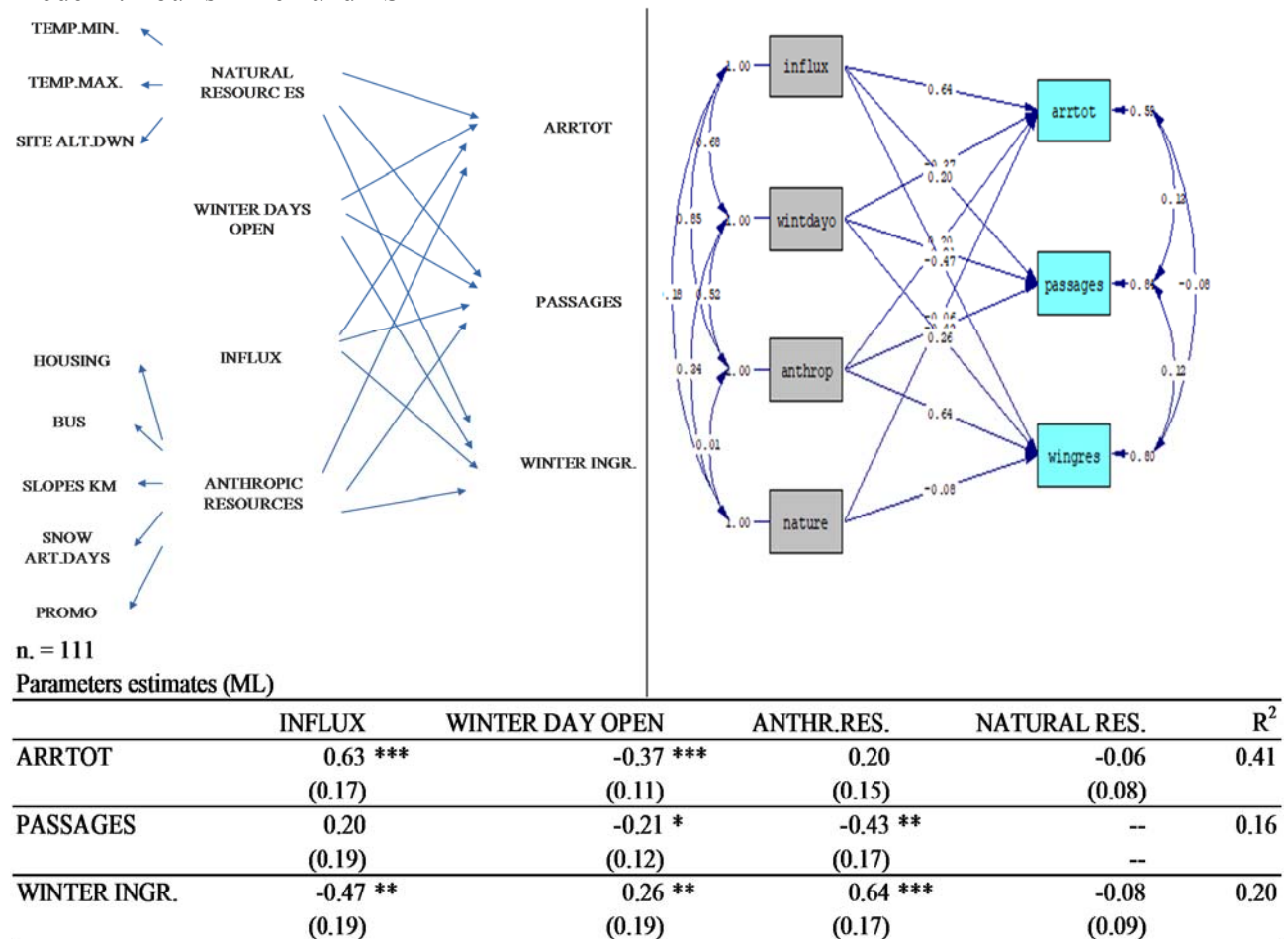
In Figure 2 a path diagram is presented together with detailed parameters estimates and the measures of model fit are provided (i.e. Chi-square, df, RMSEA). Aosta Valley attractiveness, as a destination, (i.e. *arrtot*) positively depends on cableway flow (i.e. *influx*). This variable represents cableways maximum capacity; arguably, the fastest cableways in the collective imagination are likely to attract a higher number of tourists. Yet, the number of days cableways are open to the public (i.e. *winter day open*) exerts a negative impact on the number of tourist arrivals in the region. This inverse relationship may be explained by two main features. first, the morphological conformation of the region constrains internal mobility; second, the higher number of opening days, given fixed snowing days, implies a lower distribution of the skiing loyal market share.

Model 1 further assesses the determinants that influence skiing resorts attractiveness, expressed in terms of passages and arrivals (i.e. *wint ingr*), respectively. On the one hand, passages in skiing resorts is negatively influenced by the number of days cableways are open to the public (i.e. *winter day open*). This negative correlation may be explained by the fact that the more cableways are open to the vast public, and also to less skiing loyal customers, the less the infrastructure can be used by the skiing loyal market share. A negative relationship is also detected between passages and infrastructure (i.e. *anthr res*), included as a latent variable, that may reflect a substitution effect between the use of the infrastructure and the actual consumption of the skiing facilities. Besides, a possible supply surplus may also exist.

On the other hand, skiing resorts attractiveness positively and strongly depends on human-made resources (i.e. *anthr res*), as a latent factor, and the number of days cableways are open to the public (i.e. *winter day open*) that tends to attract both winter ski trippers as well as ski loyal customers.

Yet, cableway flow (i.e. *influx*) has a negative impact on the number of arrivals at the resorts. A possible explanation of this outcome is that, at the skiing resort, the registration is based on a unique record for a family group, namely on the principal skiing user, hence the number of arrivals at the skiing resort is likely to be highly underestimated. Furthermore, the supply may be not adequately calibrated through nesting techniques, and an adequate revenue management does not seem to be present; hence, the demand negatively correlates with the speed of the cableway system. The destination demand model is the best specification with a R-squared of 0.41, while the skiing resorts demand models are able to explain a lower amount of variance. The Chi-square is computed and the null hypothesis is accepted and df is less than two which implies an overall satisfactory model fit, also confirmed by the RMSEA close to zero.

Figure 2
Model 1: Tourism Demand - SEM



Chi-square = 0.00, df = 0, P = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.000

Notes:

- **Dependent variables:** a1) **Arrtot**=total tourists arrivals in Aosta Valley at official accommodation; a2) **Passages**: number of passages at the skiing resorts; a3) **Winter Ingr**: number of arrivals at the skiing resorts;
- **Explanatory variables:** b1) **Influx**: influx per hour; b2) **Winter day open**: number of days cableways are open to the public; b3) **Anthr.res.:** human-made resources, a latent variable that includes the following observed indicators: 1.housing: i.e. number of beds in official accommodation; 2.number of daily bus return transfers; 3. skiing length of slopes (km); 4. artificial snowmaking (days); 5.amenities & promotional activities (e.g. events, festivals); b4) **Natural resources**: a latent variable that includes the following observed indicators:1.Winter minimum temperature (C°) at the skiing resort; 2.Winter maximum temperature (C°) at the skiing resort; 3. resort downstream altitude (metres).

Results: Demand And Business Profitability

In terms of business profitability, cableways total gross revenues (*winter inc*) and operating margins (*marg. oper.*) of skiing firms are positively and strongly influenced by the economics variable (*econ. vda*), as well as by the degree of competition (*competit*) between ski resorts (amongst ski-districts) in Aosta Valley (Figure 3). These skiing firms are leaders or tech technological co-leaders of a special commodity, the snow that according to the economics theory can be regarded as a public good that is neither excludable nor rival, unless regulated. These firms also have their own Total Quality Management (TQM), which enter into a competitive scheme linked to market prices and the provision of services as a network (Venturi, 2015), with the aim to expand the ski area and the resort. A more general explanation can be based on the marginal fruition of a public good, where at the Lindhal equilibrium, the consumer attains Pareto-efficient provided equality between marginal benefits and marginal costs, under the Samuelson's condition. Hence, the snow, as a public good, becomes rival when a socially satisfactory optimization in terms of efficiency and equity is not achieved.

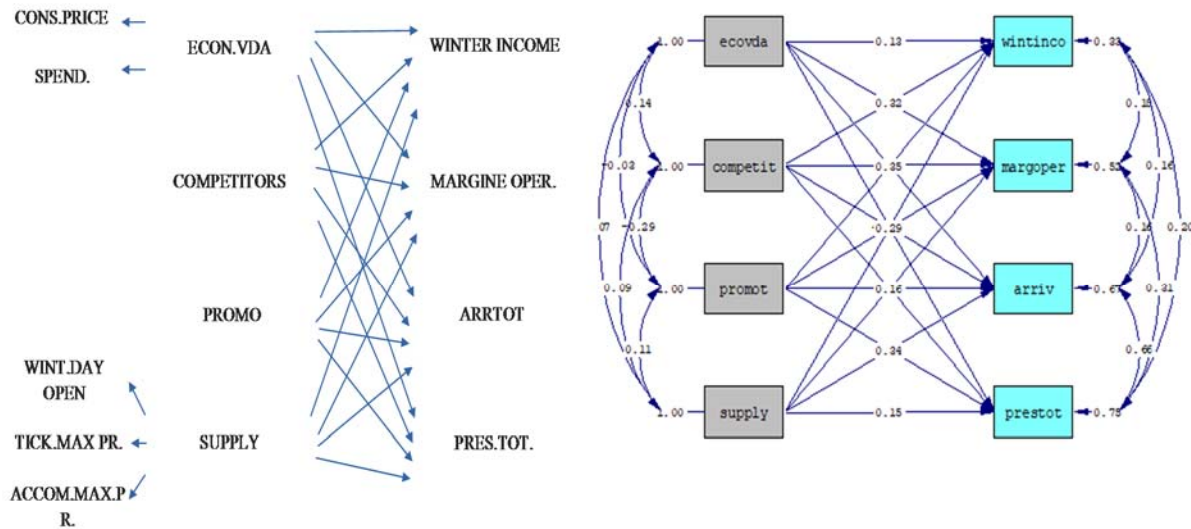
Promotional activities do not exert a specific impact on business profitability, that indicates an issue in terms of lack of a network between cultural tourism and skiing resorts as a further attraction in the region.

Tourism demand, expressed in terms of tourism arrivals (*arrivals*) and nights of stay (*pres. tot*) in Aosta Valley, is positively and strongly influenced by the economics factor, as well as by the promotional activities able to increase the appealing of the destination and the winter resorts in the region. Yet, supply shows a rather marginal effect only on tourism nights of stay. Besides, the number of competitors while is negatively correlated to destination attractiveness (*arrivals*), is positively correlated to the retention capacity of the region (namely *pres.tot*, i.e. length of stay). This outcome may be explained by the distribution effect of the arrivals with respect to location and length of the ski season within the region. While, ski firms competition is able to increase the degree of retention within the region as a loyal segment of ski demand.

The first two models show the best specifications with a R-squared of 0.67 and 0.48, respectively; while the nights of stay (*pres. tot*) model is able to explain the lowest amount of variance (0.25). From the Chi-square the null hypothesis is accepted and df is less than two which implies an overall satisfactory model fit, also confirmed by the RMSEA close to zero.

Figure 3

Model 2: Tourism Demand And Business Profitability – SEM



n. = 109

Parameters estimates (ML)

	ECON.VDA	COMPETIT	PROMO	SUPPLY	R ²
WINTER INC.	0.13 ** (0.06)	0.12 ** (0.06)	-0.08 (0.06)	0.78 *** (0.06)	0.67
MARG.OPER.	0.32 *** (0.07)	0.50 *** (0.07)	-0.08 (0.07)	0.17 *** (0.07)	0.48
ARRIVALS	0.36 *** (0.08)	-0.22 *** (0.08)	0.36 *** (0.08)	0.04 (0.08)	0.33
PRES.TOT.	0.30 *** (0.08)	0.16 ** (0.09)	0.34 *** (0.09)	0.15 * (0.09)	0.25

Chi-square = 0.00, df = 0, P = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.000

Notes: 1) - **Dependent variables:** a1) **Winter inc.:** cableways gross revenue; a2) **Marg. oper. =** cableways gross operating margin (in euro); a3) **Arrivals:** number of arrivals in official accommodation in Aosta Valley; a4) **Pres.tot.:** nights of stay at official accommodation in Aosta Valley;

2) - **Explanatory variables:** b1) **Econ. VDA:** a latent variable that includes the following observed indicators: 1. consumer price index; 2. resident and non-resident household expenditure in Aosta Valley (in euro); b2) **Competit:** number of competitors between ski resorts amongst districts in the region; b3) **Promo:** amenities & promotional activities (e.g. events, festivals, etc.); b4) **Supply:** a latent variable that includes the following observed indicators: 1. number of days cableways are open to the public; 2. Maximum price for a cableway pass; 3. Maximum price paid for an accommodation nearby the resort.

Results: Public Intervention on Supply

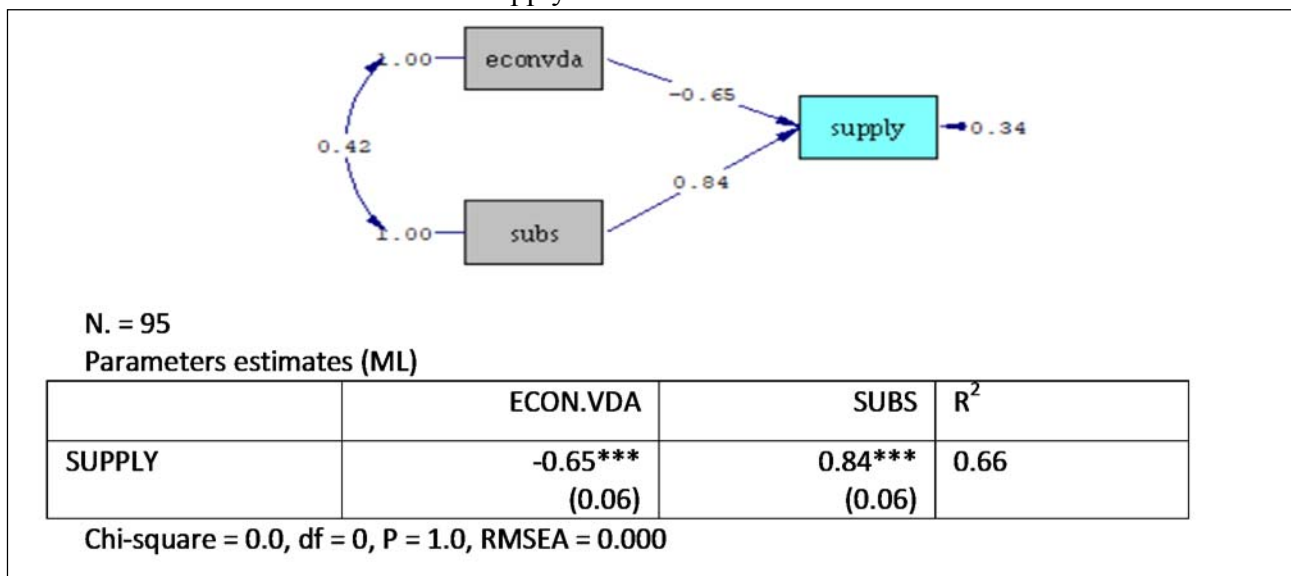
In Aosta Valley, cableway plants are owned either by private firms (also with public capital participation) or by the public agent (which, in medium-sized districts, would guarantee an adequate maintenance and upgrading of the plants). The region accounts for the highest number of cableways and ski lifts (214) and 700 kilometres of downhill slopes. Given the financial constraints and possible default of key private firms, the Region through FinAosta directly intervened in the cableway sector. According to Bobbio et al. (2017), in the last two decades, the investments and maintenance of the system accounted for euro 230 billion; 73 billion were devoted to mountain rescue facilities, while 64 billion were spent for snowmaking due to dry weather conditions. The latter figure is rather variable along the span time, and the highest costs occurred in 2011-2012 (euro 747 thousand). In 2017, the public intervention guaranteed euro 81 billion of revenues and the cableway system experienced a balance and, in some cases, a profit (Marinet, 2017).

An explorative analysis is run to assess the impact exerted by public intervention (expressed in terms of public *subsidies*) and by economics indicator (*econ.vda*) on the latent variable *supply* (see Table 1 and Figure 4).

The SEM reveals that subsidies have a positive and strong impact on the dependent variable, that comprises three main indicators: the number of days cableways are open to the public, the maximum price for a cableway pass and the maximum price paid for an accommodation nearby the ski resort. This outcome further confirms the key role exerted by the public agent in financing and managing cableway plants in Aosta Valley. Besides, the coefficient of the economic latent variable (*econ.vda*), that includes consumer price index and household expenditure in the region, shows a negative sign implying that the ski activity can be regarded as a luxury good.

The R-squared of 0.66, hence the model is able to explain a rather large amount of the variance. Moreover, the fit of the model is adequate as assessed by the Chi-square, df and RMSEA. It is worthwhile to remark that, given the high number of missing observations in the *subsidies* variable (overall 58), subsidies were not included into Model 2, because of convergence issues.

Figure 4
Model 2.A: Public Intervention And Supply – SEM



Note: □□□ coefficient statistically significant at the 1% level.

Results: Competitiveness

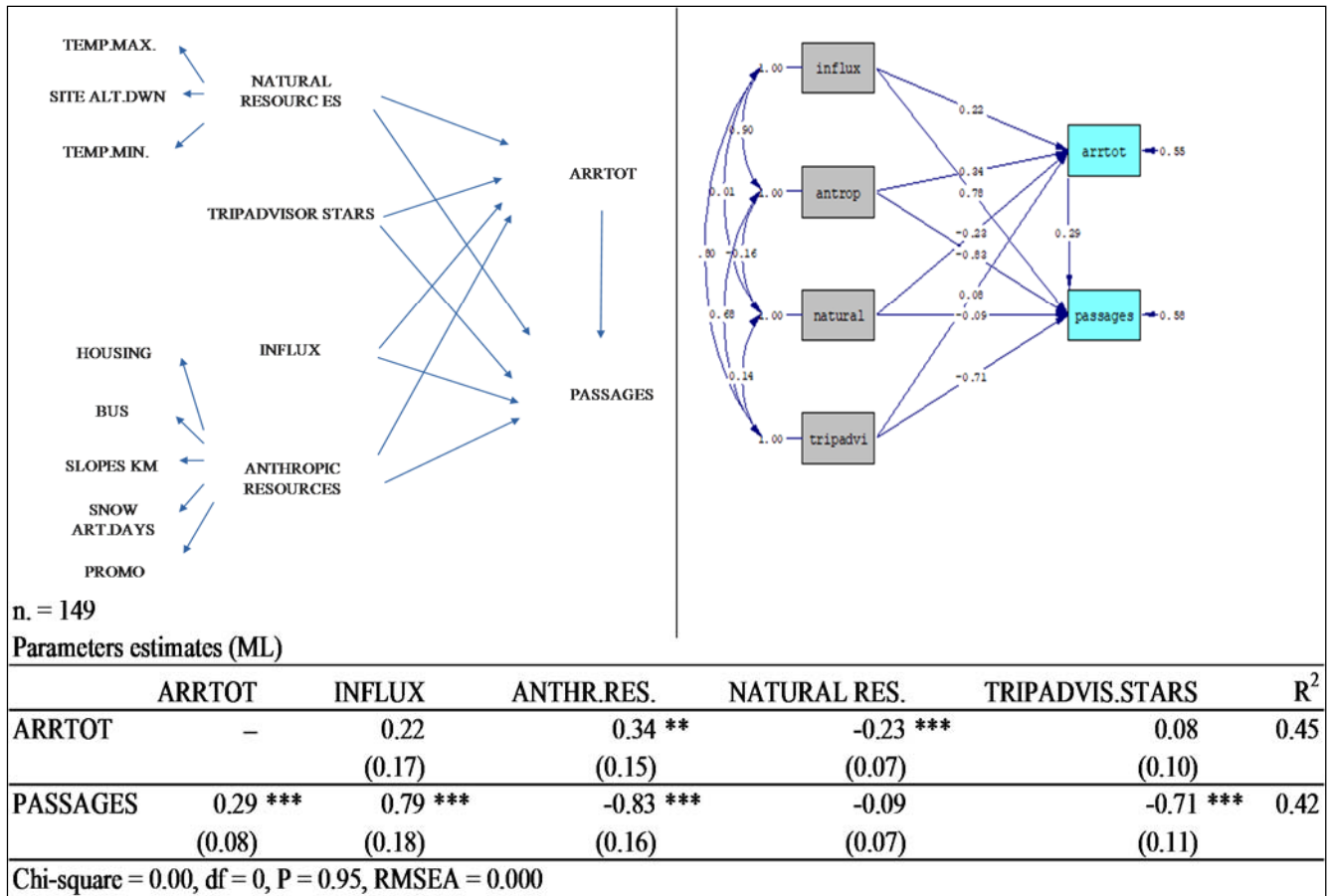
The last construct assesses the degree of competitiveness amongst the districts in Aosta Valley. In this case, the dependent variables are defined in terms of district and ski resort quotas (i.e. *arttot* and *passages*), respectively, with respect to the total. On the one hand, natural resources (*natural res*), included as a latent variable, has a negative impact on the quota of arrivals. This outcome reflects that those districts characterised by relatively higher temperature and located at a relatively lower height may be able to attract lower quotas of tourists.

On the other hand, human-made resources (*anthrop res*), defined as a latent variable, exerts a positive impact. This implies that the availability of infrastructure and services in a specific location has a important role on the destination competitiveness.

Furthermore, district competitiveness (*arttot*) positively and strongly influences ski resort competitiveness (*passages*). Besides, the higher the influx per hour the higher ski resort competitiveness. As in Model 1 (Figure 1), a negative relationship is detected between passages and human-made resources (i.e. *anthr res*), that may reflect a substitution effect between the use

of the infrastructure and the actual consumption of the skiing facilities. Finally, customers' evaluation released on the social media has a negative effect on competitiveness.

Figure 4
Model 3: Competitiveness – SEM



Notes: 1) **Dependent variables:** a3) Arrtot=quota of tourists arrivals in each district at Aosta Valley official accommodation; a4) Passages: quota of passages at the skiing resorts;
2) **Explanatory variables:** b1) **Natural resources:** a latent variable that includes the following observed indicators: 1. Winter minimum temperature (C°) at the skiing resort; 2. Winter maximum temperature (C°) at the skiing resort; 3. resort downstream altitude (metres). b2) **Consumer satisfaction** = number of stars gathered from tripadvisor.com b3) **Influx:** influx per hour b2) **Anthropic resources,** a latent variable that includes the following variables: 1.housing: number of beds in official accommodation; 2.number of daily bus return transfers; 3. skiing length of slopes (km); 4. artificial snowmaking (days); 5.amenities & promotional activities (e.g. events, festivals);

Conclusions

This paper explored the cableway system from different perspectives and, based on the mainstream literature review, three main models were identified: demand, supply and competitiveness. From an empirical perspective, the analysis was based on two distinct methodological steps, that is a PCA to identify a set of latent variables, then used within a structural equation modelling, where all the indicators were continuous variables.

The case study is the autonomous region of Aosta Valley (Italy) that offered an interesting investigation because of its geographic setting, where accessibility and mobility is rather constrained. In this region, tourism is an important economic activity and the paper also assessed the impact that public intervention has on the cableway system.

From the empirical analysis, and the descriptive statistics, it emerged that the ski demand segment in Aosta Valley belongs to the middle-class, with an income of less than euro 40,000 per capita. This segment of demand is rather loyal to a specific destination and ski resort, and tends to spend their holidays with a family made up of three-four people, and only one of them is a ski loyal and elastic to prices. The family members who do not ski are likely to exploit other services and facilities as also emerged by the positive correlation found between promotional activities & festival (i.e. *promo*) and demand expressed both in terms of attraction and retention (i.e. arrivals and nights of stay). Yet, the empirical findings showed that there is a poor network between event organizers and ski resorts, that would need to be implemented in order to attract new segments of demand beyond the loyal ski enthusiasts.

On the one hand, ski resorts seem to be attentive to consumers' need with the adoption of protocols of TQM but, on the other hand, do not seem characterized by an adequate yield management. As a novel investigation, the findings unveiled that consumers' satisfaction, expressed in terms of number of stars in the social network, have a strong and negative impact on the competitiveness of ski resorts. Hence, there is empirical evidence that ski plants need to be more aware about the impact that electronic word of mouth has on their business and profitability. The most recent literature shows that online reputation plays a relevant role in pricing policy and hospitality operators should adjust prices, quality and overall management in accordance to customers' needs and their evaluation about the service (Abrate and Viglia, 2016). As emphasised by Melis and Piga (2017), in the hospitality sector, the adoption of revenue management practices is more constrained by entrepreneur culture and lack of technological skills, rather than financial constraints.

From the empirical analysis also emerged that demand is not positively correlated with supply, which seemed to be oversized. The public agent intervenes in the cableway sector, especially on operating costs, through public subsidies. In line with the Lindhal equilibrium, the empirical findings revealed that the public agent has a key impact on the sector, in terms of setting a tourism price lower than the free market equilibrium price. This policy action is aimed at decreasing outbound migration and, consequently, reducing socio-economic disadvantage for local communities, located in less accessible mountains and v type valleys. Notably, the ski supply was found to be negatively correlated to the economic indicator (i.e. consumer price index and household expenditure), implying the ski activity can be regarded as a luxury good, and possibly affordable to either high profile consumers or the ski loyal segment (see also Pechlaner and Manente, 2002; Ciset, 2009).

A further issue emerged from the analysis, related to climate changes. Lack of snow, melting glaciers and permafrost represents a threat in the short run because of the uncertainty of weather conditions and an increase in operating costs for artificial snowmaking. Moreover, extreme conditions also represent a threat in the medium run given the reduction in tourism attractiveness of a destination, in line with Bürki et al. (2003).

Despite the present analysis is based on regional case study, the paper further expanded the mainstream research, by adopting a structural equation modelling where several indicators are included. In this manner, it was possible to assess the linkage not only between the exogenous and endogenous variables, but also between the endogenous variables. The findings offered a novel framework and a useful guide to private and public agents in monitoring, design and planning a winter tourism destination.

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HOSPITALITY, EXPERIENCE AND SATISFACTION IN BRAZILIAN RESORTS: A STUDY FROM CRITICAL INCIDENT ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The debate on hospitality has widened since the 1990s and much is still being discussed about its role in the commercial scope, primarily with the focus being on food, drink and hosting. Data from the Brazilian Association of Resorts and *Hotelaria em Números* (2017) show a demand increase for resorts concerning to the services offered and the possibility of obtaining, for the whole family, different activities in a single space with security. The article aimed analyzing the perception of satisfaction of 255 resort users, as well as evaluating the experience of the guests towards the service provided and the concepts of hospitality. The research methodological procedures targeted an exploratory objective and qualitative-quantitative approach. The research tool was developed based on the Critical Incident Analysis methodology in which respondents reported their satisfaction and dissatisfaction during the resort experience. The results pointed out that the main reason for satisfaction is the infrastructure and services functionality (18%) due to the diversity of activities offered, including the security aspect. Other issues related to hospitality were also pinpointed as satisfaction factors, among them helpfulness (12%) and zeal (10%). The survey also indicates that most respondents were satisfied with the resort experience, displaying that 64% would return and 61% would recommend the resort. On the other hand, the most reported dissatisfaction reason (15%) was the gap on providing all services to all guests. Another interesting result is that 13% of respondents had no dissatisfaction to report. The main contribution of the study lays on proposing a research instrument that holds the possibility to evaluate the hospitality related to the service provided and the experience lived by the guest during their period of staying.

Keywords: Hospitality; Satisfaction; Services; Resort; Critical Incident Analysis.

Introduction

The great demand for hotels that offer leisure options has spurred the resorts, establishments that offer large areas with services of meal and leisure keeping the guest in the hotel.

Customer satisfaction is not an end in itself, but the means to achieve competitive advantage. Customer satisfaction is highly profitable for companies since highly satisfied customers become a source of positive information, more resilient to competitors' approach and in the event of a failure, the recovery chances are greater.

Promoting satisfaction with services is not an easy task as it may seem. The quality of services is one of the main factors considered by the consumer when assessing their degree of satisfaction. This parameter results from the evaluation of the expectations that the clients have before experiencing their performance. Such expectations are internal standards that customers use to judge an experienced service.

Hospitality is strongly related to providing services and it requires an intense relationship between hosts and guests. Hospitality studies in the commercial field have advanced significantly, especially in the hospitality industry, with research that relates service concepts to consumer experience and the relationship with hospitality and its fundamentals (Moretti, 2015). It is, as defined by relationship marketing, an attempt to build a long-term association by intentional cooperation and mutual dependence as well as characterized by the development of social and structural bonds. Therefore, the human component is one of the most important ingredients for the perception of a positive experience (Guimarães & Camargo, 2018).

In a survey conducted in 2016 by the Brazilian Association of Resorts (ABR, 2017), the overall guest satisfaction index in 2016 was 87.9, and among the nine items evaluated, the ones with the best performance in terms of satisfaction were: location (89.5%), service (89.2%) and cleaning (88.8%); while the ones that had the worst evaluation were: gastronomy (82%), decoration (80.1%) and cost / benefit (78.6%). These indicators imply that resorts are more concerned with managerial dimensions and quality of service, while the social, emotional and experiential dimensions experienced by the guest had lower concern.

According to (Guimarães & Camargo, 2018) hospitality is relationship and has the welcome as a result. It is to accept or at least not reject the other. This other will be accepted if it is perceived as similar and not as strange and threatening. This evaluation is done in affective and cognitive processes, in empathic perception. The proposition is that empathy, and some behavioral characteristics associated with it, are related to one's being more or less hospitable.

In the provision of hospitality there is the involvement of tangible and intangible elements, which can be perceived as in the case of food, drink, accommodation and, the atmosphere that surrounds all services provision will contribute to the evaluation of the product or service offered (Marques et al., 2018). In this context (Moretti, 2015) contributes on consumer experience, especially in relation to services since the relationship between the client / guest holds all stages of the process, from the idealization of the service contracting service to its use. Hence, the author argues that the services encounter should not be analyzed only at the delivery stage itself, but throughout its *continuum*, since the perception about quality starts from the reservation by the site, eg. and, it extends until after the service has been experienced.

In this context, this study extends the academic discussion about the emotional and experiential dimensions that lack as object of study and, in the case of the resorts, it presents that the positive experience is a fundamental factor for the sustainability of the business. The purpose of this article is to understand and analyze the perception of satisfaction of 255 users of Brazilian resorts on leisure trips by evaluating their experiences regarding the period of lodging and the role played by hospitality. Also, it aims to identify what these guests take into consideration when choosing a resort.

To achieve these objectives, a qualitative approach was used through a questionnaire with open questions about the satisfaction and dissatisfaction aspects of the guests' experiences in Brazilian resorts on a leisure trip. The data were analyzed through analysis of critical incidents.

HOSPITALITY, EXPERIENCE AND SATISFACTION

Hospitality is a term that has been developed and deepened as tourism studies have been advancing. It is a word that encompasses the meaning of all the receptivity and structure that a place possess in order to welcome visitors. Studies on the subject are emerging to a scenario where the guest does not seek only a room or a meal, in fact they move as a result of professional needs, where they seek to take advantage of their leisure time. Thus, the activities are related to customer satisfaction, which requires skilled and enlightened workforce (Cooper, Shepherd, & Westlake, 2001).

Hospitality can be understood through four concepts that are integrated: human relation, virtue, ritual and exchange; and the connection between these concepts is the interpersonal relation in a rite through exchanges based on a virtue (Camargo, 2015). Considering that hospitality is a process involving exchange and reciprocity between those involved (guests and hosts) and that the basic component of a hospitable scene is the interpersonal relationship, it can be said that the level of hospitality affects the perception of the service. Moreover, hospitability must be true and meeting different levels of need, making consumers feel welcomed, safe, loved and respected (Marques, Yamashita, & Stefanini, 2018)

Although there is a distinction between the supply of food, beverages and shelter as well as entertainment within commercial transactions, (Lugosi, 2008) states that hospitality is also a means of achieving social and political goals. The author innovates by bringing the concept of meta-hospitality, that is, a temporary state of mutuality that is different from the rational manifestations of hospitality.

Some definitions of hospitality and its commercial forms highlight the provision of food, drink and shelter, but they minimize another critical dimension of hospitality: entertainment and social relations. In this context, Lashley (2004) compares the goal of private hospitality of converting strangers into friends with the purpose of commercial hospitality by converting clients into friends. As for the question of whether hospitality and entertainment are the same things, (Telfer, 2004, p.72) states that "hospitality is associated with meeting needs, entertainment with pleasure"; however, this difference is "just a matter of nuance" and uses the word entertainment in an interchangeable way with the provision of hospitality.

Providing hospitality by the front-line staff to clients can involve a degree of entertainment, and some food service organizations place humor and informal interaction at the center of the service encounter, but such entertainment is not a necessary part of the service. However, within many commercial hospitality environments, guest interaction and entertainment are a key part of the experience (Lugosi, 2008). (Wada, 2004) questions whether hospitality would not be an almost obvious competitive differential in consumer offerings.

An important contribution to widen the scope of the reception was proposed by (Telfer, 2004) who brings the concept of "hospitability" as a characteristic of hospitable people when exercising hospitality in the private sphere. Thus, " hospitability " encompasses the practices and ways of practicing hospitality, by hospitable people, those who have the "hospitability" characteristics often welcome by one or more of these reasons, or by a mixture of motives, where one of them is predominant "(Telfer, 2004, p.62).

The concept of hospitability is also addressed by (Lashley & Morrison, 2004) and (Lashley, Lynch, & Morrison, 2007) in defining that "Hospitality can be understood as a fundamental characteristic, ubiquitous in human life and, hospitability itself would indicate the willingness of people to be genuinely hospitable, with no expectation of reward or reciprocity "(Lashley et al., 2007; Lashley & Morrison, 2004).

In the corporate world filled by a scenario of fierce competition due to globalization processes, being aware of the opinion of customers becomes an advantage, since products, processes and certain services are considered as practice. Since the quality of the products and services acquired is considered as a basic and mandatory condition, the satisfaction from the created expectative and overcome with the competitive differentials of each company, is a key point for differentiation and the beginning of a customer relationship process, especially when it comes to hosting at resorts. In the meantime, previous experiences are highlighted as parameters for quality perception and evaluation. The environment in which the client is inserted shapes their perception that, along with the experiences and expectations created by publicity, advertisements or any other form of promotion, build the concept of quality for a given product or service.

According to (Tasci & Semrad, 2016) hospitality can be defined as a construct to generate an emotional response in guests based on the traits of the host and their attitudes and behavior in dealing with guests. "The importance of identifying, recruiting, training and empowering individuals to be hospitable will be essential in establishing a consistent basis of loyal customers." (Lashley, 2004, p.20).

The quality and impact of satisfying customer needs are presented as topics of interest to the company's success. The hard competition within a scenario of globalization, opening of markets and increase of competition lead companies to watch their relationship with customers, as well as the progress of their processes within established standards. Therefore, the intention of companies towards their relationship with their customers is to have their products and services perceived as quality in the same way that they meet their needs.

The first studies on consumer satisfaction / dissatisfaction began with Cardozo (1965), which identifies the consumer's post-purchase response. The satisfaction according to Oliver (1980, p.13) is "the judgment that one aspect of a product or service, or the product or service itself, offers a pleasurable level of fulfillment related to consumption, including low and high levels."

Promoting satisfaction with services is not an easy task as it may appear. Ribeiro and Fleury (2006) emphasize that the quality of services is one of the main factors considered by the consumer when evaluating their degree of satisfaction. This parameter results from the evaluation of the expectations that the clients have before experiencing their performance. Expectations refer to internal standards that customers use to judge a service experience.

Another issue to be addressed is the relationship between the experience lived by the guest and their relationship to the satisfaction and hospitality aspects. A great challenge is to be able to accurately assess the consumer's feelings (Ferreira & Teixeira, 2013). A very important point to consider when dealing with experience in services is personalization, after all, each consumer should be treated as unique, with different feelings and expectations. In a study conducted by Jaakkola et al., 2017, four types of service were identified: routine intensive, technology intensive, contact intensive and knowledge intensive. The study also identified specific resources, practices, methods and services for each of these types, corroborating that it is impossible to satisfy all consumers at a single degree.

By approaching the importance of creating memorable experiences, (Hemmington, 2007) points out five key dimensions from which the hospitality experience should be planned: the relationship between host and guest; generosity; theater and performance; many little surprises and protection and security. When studying customer satisfaction and loyalty in relation to their experiences, the literature on the perception of quality in services is vast and several studies point to the importance and consequences of customer satisfaction. The aspects of quality perception and even the intention to repurchase the product as a result of this satisfaction are usually present in these studies (Stefanini, Alves, & Marques, 2018). Considering that dissatisfied clients seek another service provider, identifying the factors that lead the customer to the acquisition of the service and their

satisfaction is fundamental to the success of the companies, so satisfaction and loyalty are closely related and loyalty is a consequence of satisfaction.

Another important aspect to be considered in the consumer experience refers to the establishment staff. (Hennig-Thurau, 2004) points out that the level of employee orientation to the customers is considered an important lever for the success of service companies. Social skills strongly affect the key variables of service marketing, thus it is recommended that service companies apply sufficient energy and resources to the recruitment of future employees, employee knowledge has a significant impact on customer satisfaction in relation to other service variables. Service employees must have sufficient skills that match customers' expectations through regular training.

When mentioning experiences with products or services by consumers, it is worth mentioning some concepts of satisfaction. From the perspective of (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990) satisfaction is described as the evaluation made by the client towards a product or service that contemplates or not their needs and expectations. If their expectations and needs are met, the customer will be satisfied, otherwise they will be dissatisfied.

Customer experience has become increasingly important for service organizations as a source of sustainable competitive advantage, and for service designers, who see it as central to any service design project. (Teixeira et al., 2012) state that the customer experience will be the next competitive battleground. The authors define the customer experience as an internal and subjective response from customers who have any contact (direct or indirect) with a company.

Critical Incidents Analysis

The customer experience is a holistic concept that encompasses all aspects of a company offer, in this sense (Chell & Pittaway, 1998) refer to CIA as a method of qualitative interview that has the characteristic of facilitating the investigation from the perception of significant occurrences identified by the respondent. The cognitive, affective and behavioral elements are considered, since the individual's perception of a given event is analysed.

According to (Byrne, 2001) in the 1950s, much scientific research focused on human behavior studies. Behaviorists sought to analyze and synthesize observations from a set of relationships that could be quantified, validated and generalized independent of conscious experience. Universally, researches of that time turned to the scientific method, and psychology acted as a framework for the observation and categorization of human behavior. With the rapid industrial growth of the time, the purpose of this type of research was to facilitate selection procedures, training and validation of the performance standards of specific occupational groups such as dentists, pilots and nurses. In this context the CIA technique emerged from the hypotheses that this scientific method could facilitate the observation and categorization of human behavior.

As stated by (Tontini, 2007), CIA encourages participants to tell their stories. The situations that are explored are those that are memorable, the first ones to be remembered and true to the facts. In line with (Cougo, 2001) the technique of the critical incident consists of asking the person to remember the positive or negative elements that catch their attention and that arise from their experience of purchase and consumption. This technique may prove useful in the case where minority phenomena threaten to be shrouded in the center of a dominant wave of high satisfaction scores. The determinant categories were delimited in research performed by (Johnston & Silvestro, 1990) and (Robert Johnston, 1995) totaling 18 aspects as follows:

Table 1 Critical Incidents Categories

Access	physical access to the service location, including ease of being in the service environment and the clarity of the route;
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Aesthetics	the extent to which the components of the service package are agreeable and pleasing to the customer, including both the appearance of the service environment, the appearance and presentation of the facilities, services and personnel;
Prestativity, Promptness / Help	the extent to which the service, particularly the contact staff provides help to customers or the impression of interest in the client and shows a willingness to serve;
Availability	the availability of service facilities, staff and goods for the customer. In the case of the contact team, this means both the team / consumer ratio and the time each team member has available to spend with each client. In the case of merchandise services, availability includes both the quantity and diversification of products available to the consumer;
Zeal, Care For	the concern, consideration, sympathy and patience shown to the consumer. This includes the extent to which the client is put at ease by the service and makes them feel emotionally (rather than physically) comfortable;
Cleaning/Cleanliness	the clean, tidy appearance of the tangible components of the service package, including the service environment, facilities, merchandise and staff;
Comfort	the physical comfort of the service environment and facilities;
Commitment	apparent commitment of the team, including the pride and satisfaction they appear to have in their work, their diligence (zeal), and the feeling of doing the complete thing and well done;
Communication	the ability of service providers to communicate with customers in a way that they will understand. This includes the clarity, perfection and accuracy of the verbal and written information communicated to the clients and the ability of the staff to listen and understand the clients;
Competence	skill, expertise and professionalism on the service performed. This includes the development of correct procedures, correct execution of customer instructions, level of knowledge of the service or product displayed by staff, delivery of goods, assertiveness in advising and general ability to do a good job;
Courtesy	the education, respect and accuracy shown by the service, usually the staff in dealing with customers and their properties. This includes the ability of being discreet and non-interfering when appropriate;
Flexibility	the willingness and ability of service workers to change the nature of the service or product to meet customer needs;
Friendliness	the warmth and personal (rather than physical) approach of service providers, particularly the staff, including attitudes of joy and the ability to make clients feel welcome;
Functionality	suitability for use of facilities and services, including convenience of services;
Integrity	honesty, fairness, fairness and trust on how consumers are treated by the organization of the service;
Reliability	reliability and consistency of service, product and staff performance. This includes timely delivery of the service and the ability to maintain agreements with the consumer;
Responsiveness / Ability to Respond Fast	speed and suitability of the service delivery moment. This includes the speed and ability in which service providers respond promptly to customers' wishes, with a minimum waiting time and queue;
Security	personal security of the clients and their property or possessions while benefiting from the service provided. This includes maintaining confidentiality.

Source: (Byrne, 2001)

Therefore, investigating the perception of quality can be an interesting factor for companies in terms of taking strategic actions regarding customer service and relationship with their customers. Critical Incident Analysis - CIA: a qualitative interview method that aims to facilitate the investigation of significant occurrences identified by the user of a particular product or service, in order to understand the incident from the perspective of the individual through cognitive, affective and emotional elements (Chell & Pittaway, 1998).

The Resorts Sector in Brazil

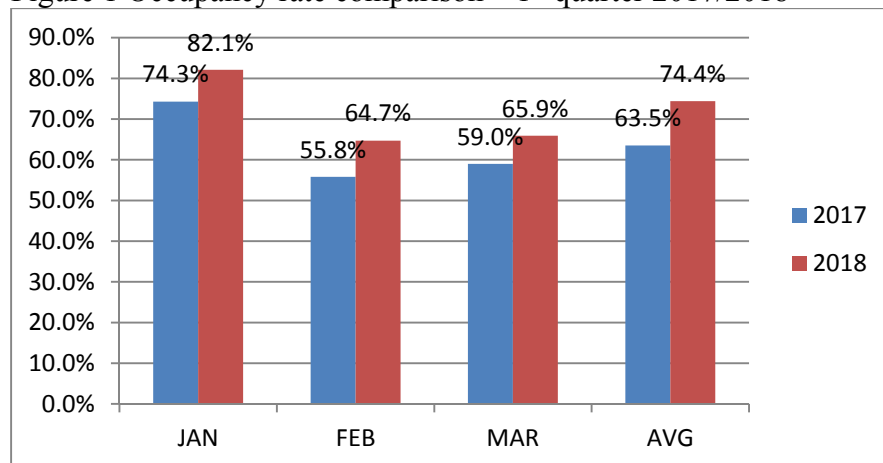
Association of Resorts (2012) defines the resorts as "a high-standard hotel development in facilities and services, heavily geared towards leisure in an area of great natural conviviality, in which the guest does not have to depart to meet their needs of comfort, food, leisure and entertainment". As for the World Tourism Organization (WTO), "resorts are integrated and relatively independent tourist destinations offering a variety of facilities and activities for tourists."

In order to emphasize the importance of the resort market in the Brazilian economic activity, some data were collected on the performance of this year's category, with growth in the occupancy rate and the number of guests per housing unit compared to the same period of the previous year (Figure 1).

According to the publication *Hotelaria em Números* (2017), hotel segment performance in Brazil was negatively impacted for the second consecutive year by the worst and longest economic recession in the country (Hotels, 2017). Some factors such as the return of economic growth, the stability of the foreign currency and the vacation period with Carnival are some of the factors that may have contributed to this growth, according to the Brazilian Association of Resorts (2018)

The hotel industry, and in particular the resorts, is quite important in Brazilian economic activity, being essential for the development of tourism. Tourism involves a large number of services, both directly and indirectly. A study by Sebrae (2017) identified that the most impacting factors in the tourism sector are economic aspects, political situation and infrastructure of the country. Therefore, it is necessary to plan and anticipate the trends in order to meet the national and international tourists. In the face of uncertainties, entrepreneurs need to obtain information that brings greater security in strategic decision making. Through prospective scenarios, which are descriptions of future situations conceived from analyses between existing real relationships, the entrepreneur can be led to plan their business and face future challenges.

Figure 1 Occupancy rate comparison – 1st quarter 2017/2018



Source: Associação Brasileira de Resorts (ABR) 2018

Methodology

The research used the qualitative approach through the technique of Critical Incident Analysis - CIA, in order to display the quality perception of the resort users. It is a description of (Byrne, 2001) a set of procedures for collecting observations based on human behavior to solve practical problems and to develop psychological principles. (Chell & Pittaway, 1998) highlight CIA as a method of qualitative interview that has the characteristic of facilitating the investigation from the perception of significant occurrences identified by the respondent. The cognitive, affective and behavioral elements are considered, since it analyzes the individual's perception of a given event. The sample was characterized as non-probabilistic by convenience and intentional, according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2010). The intentional sample consists of the selection of a subgroup of the population that can be considered representative of the entire population based on the available information.

The data collection accomplished the answers of 255 people who had the experience of traveling leisure to resort in Brazil. The data was collected through the GoogleDocs® platform and the form was available from March to June 2018. The link to the questionnaire was sent to a group of contacts who had the experience of change due to a professional opportunity, and they were requested to send to their contacts, besides being made available in social networks, technique that Creswell (2013) defines as snowball.

As per the CIA methodology, respondents had to describe two situations. The first one, in which they had been satisfied at a resort and why they felt that way. The second one, a situation in which they had been dissatisfied at a resort and the reason. In addition, they answered questions about travel frequency to resorts, return intention and factors that they consider important in a resort. Despite the qualitative approach, the data were quantified for better visualization.

Discussion

Considering the total number of respondents, 66% were female, with a predominant age group between 50 and 55. As for marital status, they are mostly married (70.9%) and having children (66%), the majority of respondents having two children (55.9%) followed by 35.5%:1 child and only 8.8% three or more children. Regarding the frequency of lodging at resorts, it was identified that 61% of the respondents attend them once a year followed by 8.7% attend twice a year and the others attend eventually.

The most relevant aspects of the research come from the analysis of satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors according to the analysis of the critical incidents. The analysis of the results indicated 397 affirmatives, being 239 of satisfaction and 158 of dissatisfaction. The data from the survey were tabulated and are presented and analyzed in Table 2.

Table 2 Factors of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Resorts

Category	Satisfaction		Dissatisfaction	
	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
1 Access:	8	3%	5	3%
2 Aesthetics:	4	2%	3	2%
3 Prestativity, Promptness, Help:	28	12%	6	4%
4 Availability:	24	10%	23	15%
5 Zael, Care for:	23	10%	10	6%
6 Cleaning, Cleanliness:	5	2%	11	7%
7 Comfort:	16	7%	2	1%
8 Commitment:	13	5%	6	4%
9 Communication:	1	0%	9	6%
10 Competence:	13	5%	5	3%

11 Courtesy:	13	5%	6	4%
12 Flexibility:	8	3%	12	8%
13 Friendliness:	13	5%	1	1%
14 Functionality:	42	18%	12	8%
15 Integrity:	8	3%	2	1%
16 Reliability:	9	4%	10	6%
17 Responsiveness/ Ability to Respond Fast:	4	2%	11	7%
18 Security:	7	3%	4	3%
None dissatisfaction			20	13%
Total	239		158	

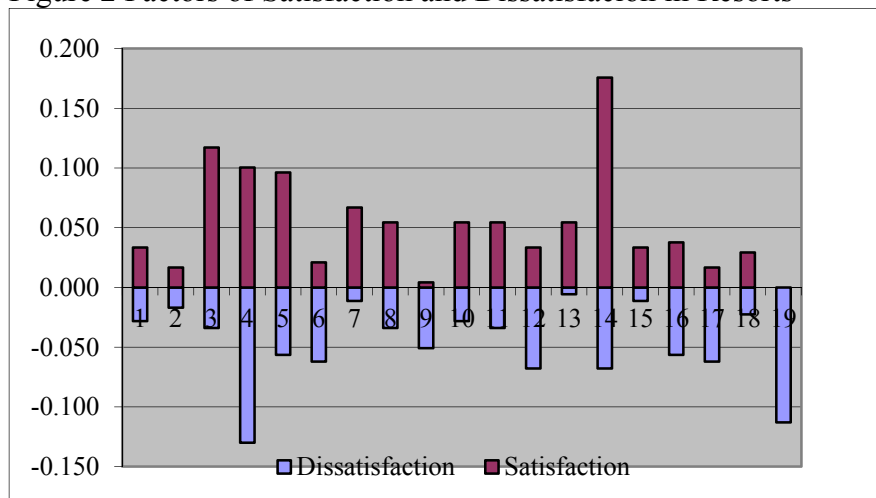
Source: Research Data (2018)

It is possible to identify that the main reason for satisfaction in a resort (18%) is related to the functionality of having several options of activities in a single space, for the whole family, in a safe space, which is in consonance with the proposal of value of a resort, however, the lack of availability of all the resources offered to all guests, when they need it, generates the high degree of dissatisfaction (15%), followed by service reliability (8%), and lack of ability and fast response (8%).

Hospitality aspects such as friendly attendance, promptness, zeal and caring and comfort add up to 33% of respondents, characteristics of hospitable people (Telfer, 2004, Lashley & Morrison, 2004, p 42, Lashley et al., 2007) and, 15% of respondents report no dissatisfaction during the stay period. The satisfaction of the users was reinforced when asked about recommending the resort, 64,1% would recommend the resort and 61,2% would return to stay in the establishment, Only 18,4% would not recommend and 24,3% would not return to the resort mentioned.

As for the aspects that they consider important when choosing a resort, the results have shown some competitive market advantages: hygiene, quality of attendance, room comfort and structure of the resort, convenience of services offered, and resort location. Once again the concepts related to hospitality are present in the respondents' speech, such as: "quality (in the service, in the meals) and entertainment", as pointed out by Lugosi (2009) a hospitable space is the ideal base for the service encounter with the hospitality and Camargo (2004) when addressing the host's ability to entertain the guest.

Figure 2 Factors of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction in Resorts



Source: Research Data (2018)

It is suggested for this research to broaden the field of action and compare the expectation and the aspects of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the guests by location (beach or countryside), in order to construct a map of information for the management team to enhance and provide competitiveness by improving service in the relationship, providing a better experience to the guest. In this way, the methodology is valid, especially for companies willing to create differentials to conquer and retain the customer who is increasingly demanding and aware of the offers.

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THE ROLE OF EMBODIED VIRTUAL REALITY TECHNOLOGIES IN USERS' ENGAGEMENT AND RECOMMENDATION IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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Abstract

Virtual reality technologies have increased the integration between devices and human senses. Despite the increasing interest in embodied technologies, few studies analyze the effectiveness of virtual reality in the hospitality sector. Results from a lab experiment show that embodied virtual reality devices lead to higher emotional stimulation, engagement and intention to recommend the hotel than low embodied devices. Additionally, emotional stimulation and engagement mediate the impact of embodied virtual reality devices on the intention to recommend the hotel. Researchers and managers should consider the role of technological embodiment to design effective hotel pre-experiences with the most suitable technology.

Keywords: virtual reality, hospitality, technological embodiment, emotional stimulation, engagement, intention to recommend.

Introduction

Recent technological developments are changing dramatically the way technologies mediate users' experiences. New devices are featured by a high level of intertwining with the human body, becoming integrated with their senses and shaping their behaviors (Tussyadiah, Jung, & tom Dieck, 2017; Verbeek, 2015). Among them, virtual reality (VR) is one of the top 10 strategic trends for 2019 (Gartner, 2018). Despite the VR market outlooks are positive and expectations about its growth are optimistic (MarketResearch, 2019), recent reports highlight the irregular adoption of VR head-mounted displays (HMD) (IDC, 2018). Therefore, there is a need for a better understanding of the underlying mechanisms that VR experiences produce on consumers to make use of these technologies effectively.

Tourism goes traditionally together with cutting-edge technologies to attract potential visitors (Hudson, Matson-Barkat, Pallamin, & Jegou, 2018). Its particular features (e.g., service-intense industry, experiential nature, Guttentag, 2010; Scott, Laws, & Boksberger, 2009) position VR as an important technology for disseminating information about these services (Yeh, Wang, Li, & Lin, 2017; Yung & Khoo-Lattimore, 2017). In view of the decreasing effectiveness of traditional media for promoting products (Fransen, Verlegh, Kirmani, & Smit, 2015), marketers can apply VR

to generate more effective messages and offer valuable experiences during all the stages of the customer journey (Bec et al., 2019; Flavián, Ibáñez-Sánchez, & Orús, 2018).

Despite the increasing interest in these flourishing technologies, there is a lack of research on the role of VR in the particular field of tourism (Yung & Khoo-Lattimore, 2018). In addition, the scarce literature about VR in tourism focuses on destinations (e.g. Tussyadiah, Wang, Jung, & tom Dieck, 2018), museums (e.g. Jung, tom Dieck, Lee, & Chung, 2016), heritage sites (e.g. Marasco, Buonincontri, van Niekerk, Orłowski, & Okumus a, 2018) or theme parks (e.g. Wei, Qi, & Zhang, 2019). However, few studies empirically analyzes the effectiveness of VR in the hotel industry (e.g. Bogicevic, Seo, Kandampully, Liu, & Rudd, 2019). We focus on the pre-experience stage of the customer journey (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016), since for experiential products (hotels) customers tend to perform an exhaustive information search before making their decisions (Gursoy, Bonn, & Chi, 2010). Therefore, consumers need tools to reduce its intangibility (Hyun & O'Keefe, 2012). In this way, VR technologies can help potential guests to obtain pre-experiences that resemble how it would be to stay in the real environment (Kim & Hardin, 2010; Tussyadiah et al., 2018), empowering them in their final decisions and experiences (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009).

Technological embodiment refers to situations in which technologies mediate users' experiences by becoming integrated into their bodies and, consequently, supporting their sensorial and bodily functions (Ihde, 1990). Taking into account that technological embodiment is one of the main features of VR as body-worn devices (Tussyadiah et al., 2017), this research analyzes the process by which technologies with different levels of embodiment (VR HMD, smartphones –SM– and desktop computers –PC–; Flavián et al., 2018) affects the consumer's pre-experience with a hotel room. We examine the impact of technological embodiment on emotional stimulation, engagement and intention to recommend the hotel. By better understanding the process through which embodied devices enhance customer pre-experiences, managers can use the appropriate technology to offer high value propositions to customers.

Theoretical Development

The human-technology mediation process has recently changed as new devices are gradually embedded in human bodies (Tussyadiah et al., 2017). The theory of technological mediation (Ihde, 1990) considers embodiment as states in which technologies become an extension of users' bodies and allow them to perceive, interpret and interact with their immediate environment (Tussyadiah et al., 2017). At the extreme, technologies may evolve in a way that they will be unnoticeable for users, reaching a state of human-technology symbiosis (Verbeek, 2015).

The National Research Council (2012) classifies technologies ranging from no or minimum embodiment (e.g. stationary external devices as PC) to fully integrated devices (e.g. smart contact lenses). Along this continuum, technologies are placed according to their level of technological embodiment. At intermediate levels, we can find portable external devices (e.g. smartphones), and advanced internal devices (e.g. VR HMD) which are closer to the maximum level of embodiment (Tussyadiah et al., 2017). In addition, the EPI (Embodiment-Presence-Interactivity) cube (Flavián et al., 2018) argues that embodiment is the technological cornerstone of VR technologies, and considers that VR HMDs are more embodied than smartphones, while desktop PCs represent the lowest level of technological embodiment. Thus:

H₁: VR HMDs (high) generate higher levels of technological embodiment than smartphones (medium), and smartphones generate higher levels of technological embodiment than desktop PCs (low).

Emotions are states or feelings that arise as reactions to experiences (Mehrabian & Rusell, 1974). Emotional stimulation is related to the sense of feeling emotions during the experience (Marasco

et al., 2018). Technological embodiment is related to the generation of immersive and sensory experiences due to the closeness to the human body (Flavián et al., 2018). In this way, previous research states that immersion can generate emotionally stimulating experiences (Visch, Tan, & Molenaar, 2010), and providing rich sensory experiences can elicit emotional reactions (Ghosh & Sarkar, 2016). Therefore, as VR HMDs are highly embodied to human senses, they may generate intense emotional processes (Kim, Lee, & Jung, 2019; Petit, Velasco, & Spence, 2019). We expect embodied devices to positively influence the emotional aspects of users' pre-experiences (Marasco et al., 2018):

H₂: High vs. medium vs. low levels of technological embodiment have a positive effect on emotional stimulation.

Engagement is the quality of an experience featured by users' cognitive, temporal, affective and behavioral investment when interacting in a virtual environment (O'Brien, Cairns, & Hall, 2018). Previous research has established that videos watched by means of embodied VR HMD generate more engagement than watching the same video on a flat screen (Nielsen, 2016). In tourism, embodied VR devices have a great potential to engage tourists (Jung et al., 2017). Highly embodied devices serve to increase the effectivity of promoting a destination by engaging potential tourists in comparison to more traditional less embodied devices (Griffin et al., 2017). In addition, behavioral intentions are the main antecedent of actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). In this way, intention to recommend consists of the presentation of a particular product to others (Casaló, Flavián, & Ibáñez-Sánchez, 2017). Experiences with VR HMD are useful since they allow potential tourists to have "try-before-you-buy" experiences, improving the information diagnosticity by creating a realistic image in their minds and fostering behavioral intentions (Tussyadiah et al., 2018). In addition, using embodied devices favors the intentions to share and suggest the displayed information about a destination to friends and family (Griffin et al., 2017). Therefore, we expect that, compared to less embodied devices, pre-experiencing a hotel room with VR HMDs will result in higher levels of engagement and intentions to recommend the hotel:

H₃: High vs. medium vs. low levels of technological embodiment have a positive effect on (a) engagement and (b) the intention to recommend the hotel.

In addition, users can experience a sense of engagement (Mollen & Wilson, 2010), and develop favorable intentions to recommend a product (Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh, 2013), when they have emotionally stimulating experiences. When customers feel an intense emotion while having pleasurable and arousing experiences online, their engagement with the company increases (Blasco-Arcas, Hernandez-Ortega, & Jimenez-Martinez, 2016). In the context of tourist pre-experiences with a destination, feeling positive emotions and reaching a state of emotional involvement in technology-mediated environments leads to positive behavioral intentions and recommend the displayed destination (Huang, Backman, Backman, & Moore, 2013). Given that embodied VR devices are able to provide emotionally stimulating experiences (Kim et al., 2019; Riva et al., 2007), we expect that emotional stimulation will mediate the effects of these technologies on engagement and intention to recommend:

H₄: The levels of emotional stimulation mediate the effect of technological embodiment on users' (a) engagement and (b) intention to recommend the hotel.

Finally, high levels of engagement positively influence the intention to recommend a focal product (Van Doorn et al., 2010). When customers are engaged with a specific content, they are more prone to eventually recommend that content to others (Oh & Sundar, 2016). The positive relationship between engagement and willingness to recommend has been shown in hospitality (Bilro, Loureiro, & Guerreiro, 2018). As VR HMDs can generate higher states of engagement, compared to less embodied devices (Nielsen, 2016), potential tourists may be more likely to recommend the featured content with these technologies (Griffin et al., 2017). Thus:

H₅: The levels of engagement mediate the effect of technological embodiment on users' intention to recommend a hotel.

Methodology

Data to test the hypotheses was collected from a lab experiment. The sample consisted of 141 participants (61.7 % female; mean age = 20.62) who were asked to imagine that they were planning to visit Venice and they were looking for an accommodation. In the experiment, participants had a pre-experience with a real hotel room by watching a 360-degree video with technologies with varying degrees of technological embodiment. First, participants entered in a room where the researchers gave them a brief introduction about the study (context and instructions). After that, they answered several control questions: preference for city tourism (from 1 = I do not like it at all, to 7 = I like it very much), previous experience in the destination (yes or no), previous experience with the device (from 1 = I have never used it, to 7 = I am very used to it), and their degree of technological innovativeness (six items adapted from Bruner & Kumar, 2007; Thakur, Angriawan, & Summey, 2016; Appendix).

Participants were then randomly assigned to go the experimental condition. In all the conditions, participants watched the same 360-degree video showing a real hotel room. The experimental treatment consisted on different levels of technological embodiment: low (desktop PC), medium (smartphone; SM), or high (VR HMD). The video showed the parts of the room (e.g. bed, desk, bathroom). After watching the content, they answered the questionnaire including scales previously validated in the literature and adapted to the study context (Appendix): emotional stimulation (Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005), engagement (O'Brien et al., 2018) and intention to recommend the hotel (Algesheimer, Dholakia, & Herrmann, 2005; Casaló et al., 2017). Three items were developed to check the manipulation of technological embodiment (based on the theory of technological mediation; Ihde, 1990). Seven-point Likert scales were used.

Results

Scales validation was carried out through a confirmatory analysis using SmartPLS 3.0. All the items loaded higher than the recommended benchmark of 0.7 in the corresponding scales (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009), with a few exceptions which were removed³. Additionally, Cronbach Alphas were higher than 0.7 and composite reliabilities exceeded the value of 0.65 (Bagozzi & Yin, 1998; Steenkamp & Geyskens, 2006). Finally, average variance extracted of the variables (AVEs) were superior to the benchmark of 0.5 and the square foot of the AVEs were greater than correlation among constructs, proving convergent and discriminant validity, respectively (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Once the scales were validated, the average values of the items was calculated and submitted to a one-way ANOVA with the experimental treatment as the independent factor. The descriptive statistics and the results of the ANOVA are shown in Table 1. Results show that the device had a

³ Two items of the technological innovativeness scale did not meet this criterion.

significant effect on all the variables considered. Post-hoc HSD Tukey test allowed us to verify the significance of the differences between conditions. Specifically, participants in the VR HMD condition significantly reported the highest values in all the variables: technological embodiment, emotional stimulation, engagement and intention to recommend the hotel room. In addition, watching the 360-degree video with SM lead to higher technological embodiment, emotional stimulation and engagement than with a desktop PC, and these differences were significant. However, the difference was not significant for intentions to recommend the hotel room (Table 1). Altogether, support for H₁, H₂ and H_{3a} is found, whereas H_{3b} is partially supported.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics and results of the ANOVA

	VR HMD		SM		Desktop PC		<i>F</i> _(2, 138) (sign.)	Post hoc Tukey test*
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Technological embodiment	5.63	0.99	4.09	1.15	2.84	1.31	67.948 (0.000)	1-2; 1-3; 2-3
Emotional stimulation	5.66	1.02	4.62	1.09	3.74	1.04	39.267 (0.000)	1-2; 1-3; 2-3
Engagement	6.03	0.68	4.84	1.03	4.06	1.05	52.732 (0.000)	1-2; 1-3; 2-3
Intention to recommend	5.43	0.94	4.54	1.20	4.07	1.30	16.408 (0.000)	1-2; 1-3

Note: F values correspond to the Brown-Forsythe test.

* 1 = VR condition; 2 = SM condition; 3 = Desktop PC condition. Significance at 95% level.

The macro PROCESS v3.1. for SPSS (Hayes, 2018) was used for testing the mediating effects proposed in H₄ and H₅. The PROCESS macro can be particularly useful due to the specific features of our research: two sequential mediators and one multicategorical independent variable. The macro allows researchers to analyze direct, indirect and total effect simultaneously with the total sample, so it does not require to perform subgroup analysis (Hayes, 2018). We ran a model with the PROCESS macro (model 6). We used sequential coding (Hayes, 2018) to create two dummy variables from the independent variable (X₁ → 0 = desktop PC, 1 = otherwise; X₂ → 1 = VR HMD, 0 = otherwise). The control variables related to the destination and the technology were included as covariates. The results of the path analysis are shown in Table 2. Regarding control variables, we found significant effects of the participants' previous experience in the destination: participants who had already been in the destination were more emotionally stimulated and had more intentions to recommend the hotel than those with no previous experience (Table 2). In addition, the degree of technological innovativeness had a negative impact on emotional stimulation and engagement. No other effects were found (Table 2).

After controlling for these variables, the analysis revealed that the degree of emotional stimulation had a significant impact on participants' engagement. The bootstrap results (5,000 samples) for the indirect effects revealed full mediation in the case of desktop PC (vs. otherwise) (effect = 0.577; 95% bootstrap confidence interval: 0.306 – 0.875), and partial mediation in the case of VR HMD (vs. otherwise) (effect = 0.582; 95% bootstrap confidence interval: 0.247 – 1.003). Hypothesis H_{4a} is supported. Furthermore, emotional stimulation did not affect intentions to recommend the hotel, which is opposite to H_{4b}. However, engagement did influence intention to recommend significantly (Table 2). The results of the indirect effect analysis showed that the paths Device – Engagement – Intention to recommend, and Device – Emotional stimulation – Engagement – Intention to recommend were significant. Therefore, H₅ is supported.

Discussion

Given that hospitality relates to services that cannot be tested in advance (Guttentag, 2010), new technologies can provide potential customers with better “try-before-you-buy” experiences (Tussyadiah et al., 2018). Specifically, VR devices appear as an ideal technology for offering this

type of experiences, allowing potential consumers to make better decisions by obtaining rich virtual pre-experiences (Tussyadiah et al., 2018). Furthermore, VR technologies are highly integrated into the human body, which can empower these experiences (Flavián et al., 2018). Although previous research has been undertaken in the tourism field regarding VR effectiveness (e.g. Marasco et al., 2017; Tussyadiah et al., 2018), few studies have examined the impact of VR in the hotel industry. This research is grounded on the theory of technological mediation (Ihde, 1990) to analyze the role of technological embodiment in consumers' pre-experience with a hotel room.

Table 2
Results of the analysis of the mediation model on intention to recommend

Predictor	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Emotional stimulation						
Constant	3.574	0.53	6.724	0.000	2.523	4.625
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.936	0.21	4.381	0.000	0.514	1.359
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.945	0.23	4.151	0.000	0.495	1.396
Preference for city tourism	0.119	0.08	1.548	0.124	-0.033	0.271
Experience in the destination (Venice)	0.532	0.18	2.910	0.004	0.171	0.893
Experience with the device	-0.047	0.05	-0.867	0.388	-0.155	0.061
Technological innovativeness	-0.209	0.07	-3.187	0.002	-0.339	-0.079
Model fit	R² = 0.446; F_(6, 134) = 17.987, <i>p</i> < 0.001					
Engagement						
Constant	2.283	0.39	5.787	0.000	1.503	3.064
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.198	0.15	1.348	0.180	-0.092	0.488
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.601	0.16	3.927	0.000	0.303	0.917
Emotional stimulation	0.616	0.06	11.107	0.000	0.506	0.726
Preference for city tourism	-0.044	0.05	-0.885	0.378	-0.142	0.054
Experience in the destination (Venice)	0.104	0.12	0.858	0.392	-0.136	0.343
Experience with the device	0.032	0.04	0.912	0.363	-0.038	0.102
Technological innovativeness	-0.121	0.04	-2.764	0.007	-0.208	-0.034
Model fit	R² = 0.746; F_(7, 133) = 55.824, <i>p</i> < 0.001					
Intention to recommend						
Constant	1.792	0.68	2.623	0.009	0.441	3.143
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.114	0.23	0.499	0.618	-0.338	0.566
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.269	0.25	1.059	0.291	-0.233	0.771
Emotional stimulation	-0.107	0.12	-0.899	0.370	-0.343	0.129
Engagement	0.589	0.13	4.394	0.000	0.324	0.855
Preference for city tourism	0.075	0.08	0.971	0.333	-0.078	0.228
Experience in the destination (Venice)	0.622	0.19	3.316	0.001	0.251	0.994
Experience with the device	-0.014	0.05	-0.249	0.803	-0.122	0.094
Technological innovativeness	-0.122	0.07	-1.748	0.083	-0.259	0.016
Model fit	R² = 0.439; F_(8, 132) = 12.958, <i>p</i> < 0.001					
Relative total effects of X on Y						
	<i>Effect</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	LLCI	ULCI
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.471	0.23	2.027	0.045	0.012	0.929
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.871	0.25	3.519	0.001	0.381	1.359
Omnibus test of total effect of X on Y	R² change = 0.179; F_(2, 134) = 17.711, <i>p</i> < 0.001					
Relative indirect effects of X on Y						
	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>BootLLCI</i>		<i>BootULCI</i>	
Device → Emotional stimulation → Intention to recommend						
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	-0.100	0.13	-0.340		0.183	
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	-0.101	0.14	-0.369		0.199	
Bootstrap results for indirect effects						
	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>BootLLCI</i>		<i>BootULCI</i>	
Device → Engagement → Intention to recommend						
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.117	0.09	-0.068		0.319	
X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.359	0.16	0.096		0.704	
Device → Emotional stimulation → Engagement → Intention to recommend						
X1 (desktop PC vs. otherwise)	0.339	0.11		0.143		0.587

X2 (VR HMD vs. otherwise)	0.343	0.13	0.130	0.643
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Note: n = 141. Confidence interval calculated at 95% of significance. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. BootLLCI: lower limit confidence interval; BootULCI: upper limit confidence interval.

The results contribute to the current knowledge about the affective processes underlying the effectiveness of embodied VR devices in the hospitality sector. Arousing positive emotions can be critical to engage users in technology-mediated experiences. First, the analysis reveals that high VR HMDs generate higher levels of technological embodiment than smartphones and desktop PCs. Users perceive that VR HMDs are more integrated into their bodies and close to their senses than other devices with less bodily contact. This result is in line with previous propositions regarding theoretical differences in technological embodiment (Flavián et al., 2018). We empirically demonstrate these differences. Second, results show that increasing degrees of technological embodiment generate emotionally stimulating experiences. This may be due to the immersive and sensorial capacities of embodied VR devices (Petit et al., 2019). Third, embodied VR technologies produce more engaging pre-experiences with the product, compared to less embodied devices. This is consistent with previous research noting that users become engaged in virtual experiences when they use high embodied technologies (VR HMD; Griffin et al., 2017; Nielsen, 2016). Finally, embodied VR devices generate higher intentions to recommend the displayed content (i.e., hotel room) than less embodied devices.

Regarding the mediating effects, emotional stimulation with the experience partially mediates the effect of VR HMDs on engagement. Users thus can be more engaged in VR HMD experiences due to the emotional connection developed (Barnes, 2016). However, the direct effect of the VR HMD on engagement still remains even after including emotional stimulation. Consequently, other variables may serve to further explain this effect (e.g. sensory stimulation, immersion, mental imagery). For less embodied devices, emotional stimulation fully mediates the effect of the device on engagement. Additionally, emotional stimulation does not mediate the effect of the device on the intention to recommend the hotel; however, this effect is established through engagement, since the path Device → Emotional stimulation → Engagement → Intention to recommend is significant. Marasco et al. (2018) find that emotional stimulation is not able to directly generate favorable behavioral intentions with a destination, but other indirect variables can affect this relationship. Our results stress that emotional stimulation needs to produce engagement with the virtual experience, and this engaging experience determines behavioral intentions. Results also confirm the mediating effect of engagement in the relationship between the device and the intention to recommend the hotel. Therefore, users need to be engaged in the virtual experience, either through emotional stimulation or other mechanisms, to increase their intentions to recommend the content shown (Choi, Hickerson, & Lee, 2018), particularly with embodied VR devices.

Implications

Our results offer implications for researchers and managers. This research contributes to the literature about the underlying processes that explain the impact of VR technologies on consumers' pre-experiences with touristic products. Specifically, we analyze the affective route that leads to higher efficacy of VR devices. Our findings highlight that generating emotionally stimulating and engaging experiences with highly embodied devices can promote favorable behavioral intentions toward companies. Taking into account the hedonic nature of VR technologies (Tussyadiah et al., 2018), our research stresses the affective processes that take place when these devices are used by users. In addition, following the theory of technological mediation (Ihde, 1990), we point out the influence of technological embodiment in virtual pre-experiences with products; the closeness

between technology and human body has the potential to generate more powerful marketing experiences.

As for managerial implications, marketers should consider the potential of embodied VR devices as a new way of promoting their products in an emotional way (Hays, Page, & Buhalis, 2013). VR HMDs are able to generate more emotionally stimulating and engaging experiences, compared to smartphones or desktop PCs. These devices differ in their integration with the human body, which, in turn, lead to positive behavioral intentions. Our results also show significant differences between smartphones and desktop PCs, so that medium levels of embodiment generate higher emotional stimulation and engagement than low embodied devices. Therefore, generating high-quality 360-degree videos that can be watched with smartphones can serve hotel managers to offer effective pre-experiences, which can be especially effective with more embodied devices as VR HMD. Managers are encouraged to use VR technologies in their communication strategies. In fact, although research has not paid much attention to VR applications in the hotel industry, some of the largest hotel chains (e.g. Best Western Hotel & Resorts; Best Western, 2016) are using this technology to offer information about their hotels, what reinforces the future potential of this technology in the hospitality industry. Booking sites and travel agencies (online or offline) can also offer the possibility of using embodied VR devices to elicit more emotional and engaging experiences in customers, which may result in positive behavioral actions. As potential guests are given the opportunity to pre-experience the room by themselves, they obtain valuable information that can help them to make decisions with more confidence (Flavián, Gurrea & Orús, 2016).

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the interest of the results, this study has several limitations that open avenues for future research lines. First, the empirical study consisted of artificial laboratory experiments to ensure environmental control and increase internal validity. However, future studies are needed to test these relationships in real settings in order to extend and generalize our findings. Second, the convenience nature of the sample who took part in the experiment must be noted. Although the youngest generations are a suitable target since they are highly most interested in VR technologies (Greenlight, 2015), it would be interesting to broaden the scope of the sample and use probabilistic sampling procedures to obtain a more complete vision of the effectiveness of VR technologies. Third, the analysis included only one room from a hotel chain. Further studies should include different stimuli (e.g. standard versus premium rooms; different areas of the hotel) to compare the effectiveness of embodied technologies on potential guests' behavioral intentions (e.g. intention to upgrade the room). Fourth, this research focused on the use of VR in the pre-experience stage of customers' journey (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). These technologies can be applied in all the stages of the journey, and companies are already using them during the customer's stay in the hotel with beneficial results (e.g. Marriott; Medium, 2018). Thus, future research should analyze the impact of VR devices at the experiential stage of the journey. Finally, the analysis of the control variables in our study showed that the previous experience in the destination positively affected emotional stimulation and intention to recommend the hotel; this may be due to spillover effects of previous real experiences on subsequent pre-experiences. On the other hand, technological innovativeness was negatively related to emotional stimulation and engagement with the technology-mediated experience. Technological innovators may react more negatively than common users as the time passes and the novelty effect of a technology fades (Rogers, 2010). These results point to the need for future research to consider these and other personal variables (e.g. immersive tendency, capacity to imagine) to better understand customer experiences with VR technologies.

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APPENDIX: Scales used in the questionnaire

Please rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) the extent to which you agree with the following sentences.

Technological innovativeness (adapted from Thakur et al., 2016; Bruner & Kumar, 2007)
I get a kick out of buying new high tech items before most other people know they exist.
It is cool to be the first to own high tech products.
I get a thrill out of being the first to purchase a high technology item.
Being the first to buy new technology devices is very important to me.
I want to own the newest technological products.
When I see a new technology in the store (web), I often buy it because it is new.

Please rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) the extent to which you agree with the following sentences in relation to your hotel experience with (technology).

Technological embodiment (based on the theory of technological mediation; Ihde, 1990)
The (technology) technology is nearly integrated into my body.
The (technology) technology becomes part of my actions.
The (technology) technology is an extension of my body.
Emotional stimulation (adapted from Bigné et al., 2005)
During the (technology) experience, I have felt...
Disappointed 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Delighted
Calm 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Excited
Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very pleased
Unaroused 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Aroused
Engagement (adapted from O'Brien et al., 2018)
I lost myself in the (technology) experience.
I was absorbed in the (technology) experience.
The time I spent in the (technology) experience just slipped away.
The (technology) experiences was attractive.
The (technology) experience was aesthetically appealing.
The (technology) experience appealed to my senses.
Using the (technology) in the experience was worthwhile.
My experience with the (technology) was rewarding.
I felt interested in the (technology) experience
Intention to recommend (adapted from Algesheimer et al., 2005; Casaló et al., 2017)
After the (technology) experience, I would be willing to recommend the hotel to those planning to visit Venice.
I would likely recommend the hotel to friends and relatives interested in visiting Venice after the (technology) experience.
I would seldom miss an opportunity to tell others interested in visiting Venice about the hotel after the (technology) experience.
I would probably say positive things about the hotel after the (technology) experience.

TERRITORIAL MARKETING AS A MEAN OF REGIONAL VALORISATION AND DEVELOPMENT, BASED ON RELIGIOUS TOURISM – THE ORDO CHRISTI CASE

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Abstract

Territorial marketing potentiates an effective and efficient development of a region. Consequently, it's possible to define territorial brands to convey territory value and show their benefits. Brand creation enhance touristic routes, that coupled with strategic marketing, become an instrument of territorial development in the tourism-culture relationship. Within Ordo Christi project, it was possible to pursue these goals of valorisation, communicating and promoting the artistic heritage, between Zêzere and Tagus rivers (XV-XVI), contributing to territorial awareness, cohesion and dynamization through its history and heritage.

Keywords: Heritage, territory, identity, marketing, brand

Introduction

Territorial Marketing has served as a basis of analysis for the development of the promotion of territories, building and disseminating its image. This marketing concept is therefore presented as a strategy of construction and dissemination of the image of the territories, focusing on experiences of geographic indication (Sakr & Dallabrida, 2015). Adapted to the territory, marketing is assumed as a set of management activities, which aim to optimize its functionalities, characteristics and conditions, in order to meet the needs of its inhabitants and companies, its tourists/visitors or investors (Fernandes & Gama, 2006). Thus, today, the territories also make use of marketing to attract people and businesses, competing among themselves in a market logic (Cidrais, 1999).

Following a methodology of bibliographic research and the methodology of defining a strategic marketing plan we present in this work the territorial strategy for the religious heritage of the Order of Christ, of the century. XV, identified between the Zêzere River and the Tagus River, in

the central region of Portugal. This work is integrated in the development of the project Ordo Christi, which main objectives are to study, communicate and promote the heritage associated with the “Comendas”⁴ of the Order of Christ and its historical-artistic heritage associated with the militia. Thus, in addition to the heritage value given through Art History it also contributes to the conservation of memory and creates an identity brand of history contributing to a territorial cohesion.

This work evidences, therefore, a brief theoretical description of the fundamentals of territorial marketing, tourism and religious heritage in order to frame the plan to be described.

Theoretical Framework

2.1. Territorial Marketing

Territorial marketing is applied to the planning of the cities since 1930 (Cidrais (1999)). The concept of territorial marketing was introduced in Kotler et al. (1993) and consolidated in the decade of 90 of the twentieth century, affirming itself as a process of territorial management, decentralization of power and search for local development.. By this time, territorial marketing is assumed as an integrating element of the competitive advantages of the territory, in a perspective of socio-economic and territorial development (Cidrais, 1999; Kotler, 1999), adjusted in a logical and planned perspective for improvement based on the expectations and needs of residents, tourists, investors and other public actors (Fernandes & Gama, 2006). In this perspective, territorial marketing is not limited to promote the territory and its potentialities, it also encourages its development in a sustained, effective and efficient way, in order to attract people and business. Territorial marketing creates, fosters, provides and dynamizes the planning for the territory and the products and services offered. Thus, today, it’s a dynamic process that allows to analyse the territory in an integrated way of its competitiveness network, which implies planning a territory in order to meet the needs of the markets, citizens and businesses, and, consequently, the expectations of visitors to the territory and investors are carried out (Kotler, 1999).

Sexto et al. (2001) expose four basic principles of territorial marketing: (1) thinking and planning development from residents, tourists and investors; (2) to promote an integrated analysis and enable actions in perspective to those mentioned audiences; (3) promote sustainable development policies promoting territorial identification, and (4) practice promotions with the aim of visibility and notoriety of the places.

Through its tools and instruments, territorial marketing facilitates the management system of the territory, as it complements a systematic analysis with a communication and image definition that allows to interconnect information systems and databases with the needs and desires of the actors of a region facilitating mechanisms that promote the competitiveness and development of the territory. Thus, territorial marketing achieves its primary goal, as a strategy to ensure differentiation between the sites and, consequently, to keep them competitive, either through their historical aspects, natural beauties, popular cultures, products, services, etc. (Sakr, Dallabrida, (2015). In marketing it is not enough to promote resources, we need to plan, execute and control a communication strategy. The consequent segmentation of markets will enable the identification of the public interested in the supply of the territory and the most appropriate means to accomplish this attraction (Kotler, 1999). Thus, a strategic planning process, in a marketing perspective, contributes to reinforce the attraction of potential promoters of new projects, the image and identity of the territory, the general satisfaction and the loyalty of residents and tourists.

⁴：“Comendas” – the name is Portuguese with no translation in English, that is the name for the benefits given to the ecclesiastics or knights of military orders (<https://dicionario.priberam.org/comenda>).

In the case of tourism, we observe that the specificity of the production and consumption of products and/or services occurring at the same time and still depend on the displacement of customers (tourists and visitors) to the place where these consumptions occur. These characteristics of this type of products and/or services make the role of marketing fundamental in the actions of promoting the resources and the loyalty of tourists that a territory should strive to attract (Kotler, 1999). Another peculiarity of tourism is the market behaviour that, in addition to objective factors (e.g. price, safety of destinations) also depends on criteria of subjective order, in addition to the seasonality of many of the tourist destinations.

In tourism, when applying marketing knowledge and techniques there is a particularity to take in consideration. The tourism product is not totally tangible or intangible, it is composed by a variety of tangible products and services that sometimes implies that marketing here is a typical services marketing with more operational variables than the classic ones (product, price, distribution and promotion). One other specifically in tourism is that its implementation areas are quite broad which implies that a small business to succeed depends also from a broader network of communication and engagement entities like government and tourism agencies (Kotler et al., 2017). This presupposes, in order to be effective and effective the action of territorial marketing that there is a strong organization and cooperation between all entities that directly or indirectly are linked to the tourist offer. This participation of all, with a view to the promotion of an image, must develop a complex process of collection and analysis of information, decision-making and creation of conditions for its execution (Fonseca & Ramos, 2006).

There are no two equal cases in relation to the implementation of a strategic plan, as a result of the local specificities of each territory and the flexible nature of the process. Nevertheless, there are three structuring steps without which it will not be possible to implement it: (i) the diagnosis (SWOT analysis of the territory); (ii) the formulation of the plan; (iii) the formalization or implementation of the plan (Fonseca & Ramos, 2007).

2.2. Territory and Cultural Heritage

The territory is a reference of territorial marketing and territorial brand, recognized as a destination and applied to a country, to a region and/or city (Rainisto, 2003). In the case of the study presented here is considered the territory which encompasses from the Zêzere to the Tagus, in the central region of Portugal.

The territorial competitiveness, which today becomes increasingly intense, facilitated the development of the concept of the territorial brand and its integration with the techniques of territorial management. It is also noteworthy that all territories are different (such as companies) in a current context the differentiation and the way the territory captures the attention of other investors is the key to success. Thus, for the territory to achieve a high statute must implement attractive communication strategies. As Rainisto (2003) and Harmaakorpi et al. (2008), highlight that the communication strategies, specifically opting for the creation of a specific brand, of an effective and efficient way, are fundamental to the development of the socio-economic quality of life of the citizen, the implementation of new grounded infrastructures, and the creation of new networked systems that operate in cooperation and promote the potential of the territory to attract resources and simultaneously retain the economic activities that could abandon the territory (Fonseca & Ramos, 2006).

2.2.1. Cultural, religious and military heritage

Cultural tourism and heritage are intrinsically linked and are often used as a strategy for regeneration of cities and rural territories. Cultural tourism can contribute to generate awareness about the preservation of heritage, both tangible and intangible (Toselli, 2006). The heritage is not

an objective story or portrait of the past, but rather an emblematic agglomeration of sites, monuments, objects and themes saturated with associations, meanings and, above all, with a sense of experience and identity (Shanks, 1990).

Cultural heritage is a resource and a task within the framework of public development policies and territorial management instruments (Carvalho, 2008) reinforcing that rehabilitation and appreciation of cultural heritage, consolidation and organization in the network of cultural equipment and the training of skilled resources. The Operational Programme for Culture (POC) in the European Commission (EU) Support Framework III (2000-2006) for Portugal, express that reinforcing culture as a factor of development and employment and to promote a greater spatial balance in access to culture.

The historical and cultural heritage of a region can be described as all goods of a material and intangible nature that express or reveal the memory and identity of this region and the populations therein. The awareness of the need to preserve the historical and cultural heritage, undoubtedly, will help future generations to enjoy this cultural heritage and, through these testimonies of the past, understand the process of developing the National identity (Medeiros & Surya, 2009).

According to Ramos et al. (2017), the cultural heritage, in general, includes all the testimony of man and his environment without establishing obstacles derived from his use, property, antiquity or economic value, that is, is the result of Man's work on nature and can be subdivided into three categories: natural goods, material goods and intangible goods.

The heritage is not only the legacy that is inherited, but the legacy that, through a conscious selection, a significant group of the population wishes to be led to the future (Silva, 2000). However, the vision of legacy has changed, since it is no longer just a static form that represents our identity and heritage of our ancestors, but also a way to learn and understand the evolution of Man (Ramos et al., 2017).

We may consider religious tourism as a certain type of heritage tourism that can be defined as a combination of cultural and spiritual in a giving place. In fact, spiritual and cultural reveal values that are linked and aren't so being heterogenous. As we may considered cultural something that permit the understanding of a set of possibilities offered to someone to cultivate humanly and spiritual is the inner domain at personal level to understand things in a subjective perspective, a way to discover, through meditation, a certain interiority (Ambrósio, 2000).

We may observe some tourists that more and more want to visit religious places. This fact has contributed to the collection of heritage and its conservation, dynamization and appreciation of different religious, spiritual and traditional practices of many destinies, promoting the recognition and distinction of territories according to their spiritual and religious beliefs.

One other type of heritage tourism could be the military tourism, since its framed in cultural tourism and gathers all the conditions to be considered as an object created by an action organized under tourist-cultural objectives for appropriation of national resources, namely of historical and military nature. Military tourism can be presented under different forms of attraction (various types of attractiveness) to an audience considering the variety of possibilities of product constitution. The segmentation of audiences is a reality in the tourism activity and is consequence of the need to structure the supply face to the demand. The demand for military theme is growing in the world, and in Portugal, and this type of tourist still needs more observation and founded argumentation as a concept and proper operationalization as product segment (Coelho, 2018).

Sometimes, as in the case of the project Ordo Christi, we may observe, characteristics of the potential tourist product that link these three specificities of tourism that are inner connected and became a single product. Also, applying the basic principles of tourism development and the qualitative improvement associated with the dissemination of territorial brands, we increment different forms of touristic affirmation.

2.3. The Cultural Tourist

According to Locker & Perdue (1992) to predict the behaviour of tourists in the destination, it is more important to understand their motivations than their lifestyle, personality or demographic and geographic aspects. According to authors, such as Jewell & Crotts (2001) and as Kerstetter et al. (2001) tourists traveling to heritage-linked destinations may present such different interests as pleasure, relaxation, or even to acquire knowledge about the past.

Timothy & Boyd (2003) systematize the motivations of the cultural tourist for their journey by dividing them into three groups: 1) those who want to know the heritage; 2) those who want to learn history; 3) and those who want to have a recreational experience. McKercher & Du Gros (2003) classify cultural tourists into 5 types accordingly to the importance of the culture factor for making their decision when choosing the trip and the influence of it on the quality of the experience: 1) intentional - for whom culture is the main motivation for the visit to a place, monument, place, or other, removing from this journey a very strong experience; 2) fortuitous - for which the cultural motivation remains the reason for the visit, but the experience it obtains is poorly elaborated; 3) casual - for whom the cultural is not the main reason of the journey but obtains a strong experience with activities related to culture; 4) occasional - little motivated to travel for cultural reasons, also removing little pleasure from this experience, and finally; 5) accidental - who does not travel for cultural reasons but does not refuse to participate in activities related to culture by removing from this experience some pleasure.

McKercher & Du Cros (2003), also Petroman (2013) considers that there are 5 types of tourists who relate differently to the culture as a motivation for the trip, namely: 1) the tourist highly motivated by culture, 2) the tourist partially Motivated by culture, 3) the tourist for whom the culture is nothing but an advisor of another motivation (e.g. visit London and enjoy to see a play or visit a museum), 4) the accidental tourist (e.g. tourists who stroll on Avenida da Liberdade during the parade of the popular marches and who often end up watching), and lastly 5) tourists who are never attracted by events or cultural heritage, but who often end up accidentally being part of the type referred previously.

For Richards quoted by Santos (2012, p. 86) The profile of the cultural tourist is characterized by being someone with the following characteristics and motivations: Almost half have an age between 20 and 40 years; Women represent most visitors; Possess high academic training, good yields and good jobs; Tend to engage in liberal professions; Occupy positions of responsibility; Have salaries that are approximately 1/3 above the EU average; 24% of cultural tourists develop a work related to culture (for example, besides working in museums, they also visit other museums when they are on vacation); The motivations to visit the sites are the search for knowledge and experience the environment of the site; Most tourists claim to have chosen the place to visit before departing from travel; Young people are an important public, admitting the younger layers the chance to choose the points to visit after arriving at the destination.

Methodology

The work presented here is based on a theoretical research of the main themes that involves and relies on the practical application of the methodology inherent to the development of the Strategic Marketing Plan, in its structure and definition. To this end, a research of primary and secondary data was carried out that can compose the elements that describe the external and internal context, in this case of the territory "Ordo Christi". The reflection of consequent competitiveness is achieved after identifying and structured the information collected in the SWOT methodology and realizing that confronting the information the competitive lines in which to bet in order to identify and support the marketing strategy.

Next and considering all this contextual information and knowing the profile of the potential consumer of products and/or services, the axes of positioning of the territory "Ordo Christ" should be defined following the indications of simplicity and objectivity that presupposes this definition and choosing the type of positioning to follow (consumer or competitive). To finalize the design of this strategic plan it must be defined the operational marketing (marketing-mix), in its general items, applied to the specificities of the tourism sector. In this way it is possible to define the following territorial marketing strategy, based on the basic concepts that compose them (Kotler, 1999).

MARKETING STRATEGIC PLAN FOR "ORDO CHRISTI" TERRITORY

4.1. Ordo Christi

With the dissolution of the Order of the Templars⁵, imposed by Pope Clement V, in 1312, King D. Dinis, in 1319, through the bull *Ad Ex Quibus* institutionalized the militia of our Lord Jesus Christ. This militia has incorporated the ancient Knights of the Templar Order, all their privileges and their possessions. The new militia, states, throughout the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, their political position and their heritage, a fact that is based on 1420, when D. João I obtains, from Pope Martin V, the authorization to designate his son, Infante D. Henrique, as the administrator of the Order, since he was Lord of most of the kingdom lands could not make the vow of poverty inherent of being an Order member. As the administrator Infante D. Henrique, not surprisingly, used of its important resources in the great national plan that were then the "Descobrimentos"⁶ strategy. The Cross of Christ, symbol of the Order, conquered the unknown seas, erected in the sails of the Portuguese caravels, becoming one of the most recognized national symbols. This correlation of powers gained weight in the geopolitical context with increasing relevance in the reign of D. Manuel I and D. João III, where there is a significant consolidation of the heritage inherent to the Order of Christ. This vast heritage was manifested in various artistic items held or sponsored by the Order (Paiva et al., 2018).

Extinguished by the decree of 15 October 1910, after the end of the Monarchy, together with the "Old Nobiliary Orders", was reinstated by the decree of 1 December 1918, with the purpose of rewarding relevant services of nationals or foreigners rendered to the country or to the Humanity, both military and civilian. In the legislation of 1962 and 1986, the Military Order of Christ continued to be associated with the exercise of functions of sovereignty and diplomacy, magistracy and public administration. Finally, in the legislation of 2011, it turned to the most generic reference of "exercise of the functions of sovereignty"⁵.

Given the importance that Order of Christ reveals in the interior region of the Portuguese territory and the dimension of the art commissioned and produced in the context of the Order, the project Ordo Christi was designed as a multidisciplinary project with a fundamental and applied research component, which seeks to carry out the transfer of the results obtained from research to the territory, to the social and business fabric, to the extent that it implies synergistic and complementary approaches between different areas of knowledge, such as art history, communication design, music, tourism, economics and education.

The importance of this military order in the region is signalled by the various historical and artistic manifestations that have been felt by the multiple "Comendas", a factor revealing their importance in the territory, especially between the end of the Middle Age and the beginning of Modern Era. In this way, the project seeks to be a tool of memory and identity of the region that, through various

⁵ The Order of the Templars had a fundamental role played alongside its counterparts, in the Christian conquest and, consequently, in the formation of Portugal, striving in the settlement and control of the territory conquered to the Moors

⁶ "Descobrimentos" can be translated into English by the word "Discoveries" and means the strategy developed by the Portuguese Monarchy, at the time to improve the country economy and wealth.

elements of communication as well as the creation of heritage routes, that will contribute effectively to the awareness of Territorial cohesion and the dynamization of the region through its history and its artistic heritage. The implementation of touristic routes that enhance the territorial cohesion promotion, based on a strong involvement of the municipalities of Covilhã, Fundão, Penamacor, Idanha-A-Nova, White Castle and Vila Velha of Rodão and Geopark Naturtejo is an essential part of this project. The participation of the Diocese of Guarda and Diocese of Portalegre/Castelo Branco is important as an enabler to access and study the heritage evidences of this Order.

Geographic Area Framing and Georeferenced Marks of the Historical-Artistical Heritage of Ordo Christi

The area of study is delimited by the Tagus river in the south and the Zêzere river in the north and it covers about 5000 km² in the interior area of the central region of Portugal, including the municipalities of Idanha-a-Nova, Castelo Branco, Covilhã, Fundão, Penamacor and Vila Velha de Rodão.

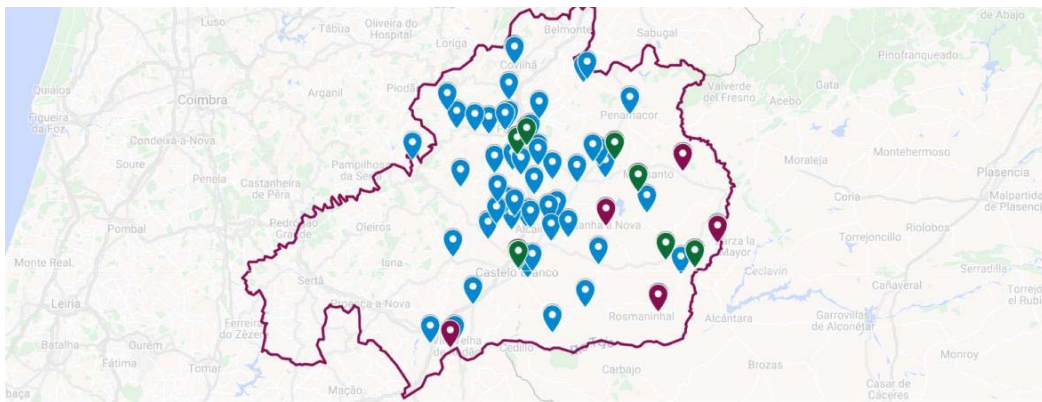


Figure 1 – Ordo Christi Territory and the georeferenced marks of its historical-artistical manifestations Source: Project Ordo Christi website – www.ordochristi.ipcb

This region has an enormous landscape diversity, reflecting the local geodiversity whose oldest materials date back to the Proterozoic (about 610-580 million years ago). Granite and shale rocks predominate, and there is also the existence of diverse quartzites and metamorphic rocks, as well as newer sedimentary rocks. This area is characterized by extensive planed surfaces, highlighting mountainous areas belonging to the Cordillera Central, such as the Serra da Estrela mountain and Serra da Gardunha mountain. Between these two flanks of the Cordillera Central there is Cova da Beira region, a tectonic abatement, whose origin is associated with the survey of the Cordillera Central (Ribeiro, 1949).

The landscape is cut by resistance reliefs, preserved by the greater hardness of the materials that constitute them, such as the granitic inselberg of Serra de Monsanto mountain, the quartzitic ridges of the Serra de Penha Garcia mountain, Talhadas mountain, Monforte da Beira mountain and other. The location of this territory, its geomorphological characteristics, the lithologies and the climate are reflected in a diverse landscape, namely through human occupation. The autochthonous forest is characterized by oaks, azinheiras (*Quercus ilex*) and sobreiros (cork trees), which in some places has been replaced by the forestry and agricultural exploitation.

The natural richness of this region, its geological heritage, biodiversity and unique ecosystems justify the existence of several protected and classified areas, such as the Natural Park of Serra da Estrela, the Natural park of the Tagus International, the Reserve Natural of the Serra da Malcata, the protected landscape of the Serra da Gardunha, the Natural monument of the gates of Ródão, the Geopark Naturtejo, World Geopark of UNESCO and the reserve of the transboundary biosphere of the International Tagus.

In a demographic and economic perspective, the Ordo Christi territory is characterized by a low density of population, with a high level of ageing rate, but has been one of the Centre Region of Portugal territories that has increased more its PIB (Internal Brut Product) despite being lower than the Centre Regions with more population located by the sea⁶. The region has a focus on the primary sector, modernizing and betting in the add value of its products, that is becoming more and more industrialized and the services sector is the largest in terms of employment and investment (with 74% of the business, employing 80% of the population)⁷. The region registered a growth of more than 300% in the 90s, that was able to maintain in terms of business density despite of its low level (less than 1%) which in coherent with its low population density, already referred.

The tourist economic activity is growing and is composed by business of very small dimension (where 74,5% are hotels), with family component, based in the low cost of the human resources for its competitiveness. It represents the territory of the Centre Region of Portugal with the largest offer of accommodation (see Figure 2).

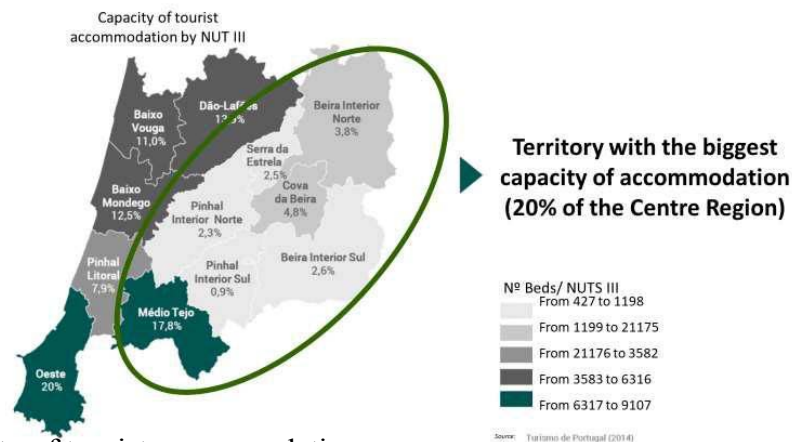


Figure 2 – Capacity of tourist accommodation

Source: Turismo 2020 – Estratégia de Turismo em Portugal do Turismo Portugal

https://estrategia.turismodeportugal.pt/sites/default/files/Turismo2020_Parte%20I_mercados%20-%20SWOT.pdf

The population of this region has a low level of education but since the 80s has been incrementing since they have access of high education facilities and courses oriented to the region features and that promote entrepreneurship and innovation. This is enhanced by the municipalities investment in infrastructures to support these goals, along side with the education institutions, and by the structural investment in accessing of the region made by the Portuguese government in the last 30 years. Accordingly, with access of several types of knowledge and in an effort to keep younger population there is incentives and support for new business creation, namely in the tourism economic sector, like in the area of sports, nature, food and health.

Results

Following the methodology of developing a strategic marketing plan, several bibliographic sources have been consulted that characterize the territory in social, cultural, economic, political and technological terms so as to be able to define the external context in which the city and the country where it is inserted, highlighting in the first phase the strengths and weaknesses of the city, the opportunities and threats in which it is inserted. From this analysis arises, then the construction of the SWOT analysis of the territory concerned. This analysis is summarized in table 1, which is presented below and reflects the analysis and territorial competitiveness lines that the strategic definition should follow.

Table 1 – SWOT Analysis and Competitiveness Reflection

		Opportunities	Threats
		Tourism market privileges destinations that offer diversified experiences Increased interest in religious tourism, of nature, and linked to sport Increase in number of migrants ("saudade" market) Generalization of the use of social networks and digital media	Eventual decline in regional competitiveness vis-on-other destinations and regions Difficulty in affirming the central region of Portugal in the main international markets Tourist communities that organise their own journey Reduced interest of investors outside the region
Strengths	Vast and risky historical, cultural, archaeological, natural and landscape heritage Strong religious Tourism components Concentrated diversity of tourism products Road infrastructure that allows you to cross the territory in a short time	Wealth of religious and cultural heritage Existence of support infrastructures Strong bet on communication and notoriety Involvement of the Territory's stakeholders in order to increase the offer of support to tourism activities Involvement of municipal entities in the territory in order to provide support and information for easy access to infrastructure and other tourist activities in the Territory	
Weaknesses	Inability of keeping visitors in the region Poor image or notoriety of the existing heritage or territory itself Difficulties in coordinating the different agents of the tourist activity Some weaknesses at the level of the population and of the private agents that can support the tourist activities		

It is therefore based on these competitive advantages that the concept of identification/brand of the territory "Ordo Christi" should be built. The entire operational strategy, and brand and communication definition, should be based on these distinctive features of the city and develop a strong message and concept around it. In this way, we may have a definition of territorial marketing that can effectively help the system of governance instituted to rebuild the image and gain attraction to people and investment, thus increasing its competitiveness.

Thus, the positioning to be followed, of consumption and based on communication and creation of a territorial brand, must be founded on the axes presented in Figure 3.



Figure 3 – Positioning axes

In this way the territory should follow a strategy of differentiation, based on the intensive and extensive development of the market, based on its religious heritage.

In consequence the operational marketing plan must draw its actions focusing some of its components to enhance the touristic potential of the territory based in its historical-artistical heritage, linked with others touristic facilities and attractions already located in the region, namely, product and services (with the main focus of preparing the human resources needed to implement the services, so the importance of the people as a mix of the marketing plan is crucial), price (it will be free since the municipalities will support the implementation costs), moment and place (distribution), communication and promotion.

Considering the georeferenced Ordo Christi heritage items this project presents several touristic routes as the touristic product to offer (see Figure 4).



Figure 4 – Examples of Ordo Christi routes and guides

Since the existence of the routes is not enough to attract tourists a brand was designed to make an easier identification with the product and to help its future communication plan. Alongside these

actions it was also important to open the locations where the historic and artistic items are located and since is a region of low population density it was necessary to define a training plan to educate the local population and turn them into touristic guides for the visitors (see Figure 4). Here the help of the different municipalities is fundamental to identify the right people to educate and trust with the keys of the different locations.

The moment and place here are two very important items of this marketing-mix since its fundamental to show the visitors how to access to the locals and to explain them their importance and value. So, several things were developed: differentiated nameplates that identifies the brand and the heritage, with a brief explanation; printed guides for each route; promotion in diverse locals of the regions with information and directions to help visitors' access and have knowledge of the touristic offer (brochures and maps development).

Finally, the communication and promotion plan are a distinctive asset of this marketing-mix, for its importance and crucial role in the implementation of the strategic plan. Not only all the support of the design of the different items already described here (e.g. nameplates; guides; brand, brochures and maps and merchandising) but also a more broader action close to the touristic promoters and agencies, the development of spots and other advertisement supports, integrating all the information of the touristic offer in a website that in itself also integrate all the already existing touristic offer of accommodation, restaurants, and other attractions offered in each municipality (see Figure 5).

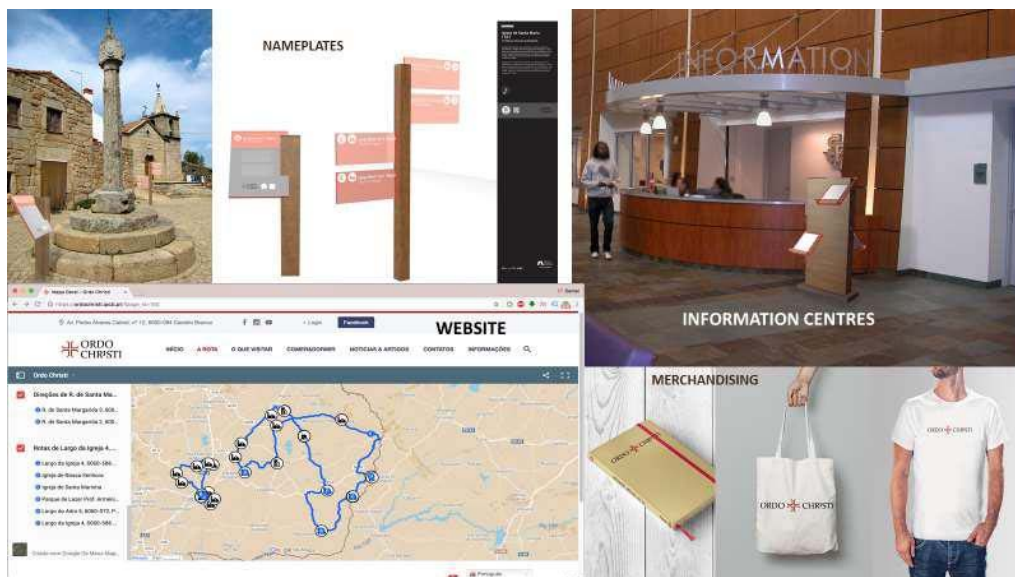


Figure 5 – Examples of Ordo Christi nameplates, website, merchandising and information points

Discussion and Conclusion

We the marketing strategic plan definition, as presented it will be possible to differentiate the Ordo Christi territory as a tourism asset, with a brand that clearly shows its positioning. The tools and action identified within operational marketing will allow an integrated communication plan, in line with the marketing strategy and empowering it.

This work is integrated in an ongoing project of applied scientific research. As such, it's possible that after the implementation phase some of the planned results drawn in the operational marketing

suffer some modification. Some innovative touristic solutions were also planned and designed, that will, for sure, make the communication plan be more effective as well.

In this format of research paper, it's not possible to describe the whole process of strategic definition of territorial marketing that is being carried out, in particular, the strategic analysis and the creation and communication of the territorial identity "Ordo Christi". It was, however, fundamental that this strategic reflection provided by the implementation of the Strategic Marketing Plan in order to be able, later, to build the territorial brand and its communication process. There also others external factors to the project and strategic and operational reflexion and design that can make it less efficient since the political intervention of the territory institutions, the municipalities, are crucial of the success of this territorial marketing strategy. Its these difficulties that make the project more challenging and that also give it more value and importance.

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CALIFORNIA BEACHES, THE GOLDEN GATE BRIDGE AND ...AGRITOURISM?

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to gain an understanding of the agritourism industry in California, which is well known for iconic tourist attractions unrelated to agriculture, and to highlight the motivations, opportunities and challenges of agritourism for the dairy industry. With a growing trend of consumers wanting to know where their food comes from – where it was grown, raised, or manufactured – and wanting to have educational experiences while traveling, the connection between dairies and tourism is closer than one might think. Data will be gathered from a large dairy association in California. Results and implications will be discussed.

Keywords: Agritourism; dairy farms; farm tourism; diversification; California

Introduction

The state of California is known by many around the world, and is a top travel destination that generated \$10.9 billion in tax revenue, and \$132 million in travel spending in 2017 (PR Newswire, 2018). Top tourist destinations throughout the state, according to U.S. News and World Report (n.d.), include San Francisco, San Diego, Los Angeles, Yosemite, Lake Tahoe, Big Sur, Anaheim/Disneyland, Sequoia National Park, Santa Monica and Laguna Beach. Tourists might typically think of visiting the Golden Gate Bridge in San Francisco, Hollywood in Los Angeles or the beaches in Santa Monica, but they may not think about visiting a family farm to experience where their food comes from, how it is grown or processed, and eventually put on the table in homes and restaurants. Although such visits may not be top-of-mind for some travelers, they have grown in popularity over the years in California (Rilla, Hardesty, Getz & George, 2011).

In addition to the income generated from tourism, the state also generates revenue from its agriculture industry. In 2017, cash receipts for the industry totaled just over \$50 billion and included crops such as dried plums, cherries, almonds, pistachios, and dairy products. In fact, the State of California, the home to 1,331 dairy farms, according to the California Department of Food and Agriculture (CDFA) (2018a), is the largest producer of fluid milk, butter, and non-fat dry milk than any other state. It adds \$21 billion to the local economy each year, and is responsible for 32% of U.S. dairy exports (California Milk Advisory Board [CMAB], 2018). Despite the large generation of revenue, the dairy industry in California has actually suffered in recent years. In 2017, there were 61 fewer dairies than in 2016. The state also lost 46 dairies in 2016, and 32 in 2015 (California Department of Food and Agriculture, 2018b). Many small farms around the country have been jeopardized for a variety of reasons, which might include lower agricultural prices, larger corporations, political climate, or falling support with subsidies (Barbieri, 2013; Jayeff Partners, 2005; Kline, Cardenas, Leung, & Sanders, 2007; Williams, Lack, & Smith, 2004). Across the United States, the number of dairy farms has shrunk from just over 125,000 in 1997 to

just over 64,000 in 2012 (United States Department of Agriculture, 2014a). As a result, farmers have begun to look for other ways to generate revenue and have begun to diversify their operations. One such opportunity is agritourism, which essentially combines tourism with a farms operation. While there is no standard definition of agritourism (Caballe, A. 1999; Che, Veeck, & Veeck, 2005; McGehee, Kim & Jennings, 2007; Ollenburg & Buckley, 2007) it often refers to “any recreational, educational or leisure activity programmed on any working farm or other agricultural operation . . . to attract visitors” (Barbieri, p. 253, 2013). Agritourism activities might include direct- sales farm stands, dairy tours, immersive activities, events, or farm stays, and is very common outside of the United States, especially in such places as New Zealand, France, and the United Kingdom. Despite the fact that it is not so well known in the United States in general, it is growing (Barbieri, 2013) and becoming more popular (Gil Arroyo, Barbier, & Rich, 2013; Nickerson, Black, & McCool, 2001). What agritourism that does exist in the U.S. is widely dispersed with most activity occurring in the state of Texas on dude ranches (United States Department of Agriculture, 2014b). Within California there are some smaller farms that offer agritourism activities but it is unknown what the motivations are behind their operations, how they have benefitted from agritourism, nor what challenges they face with it. Despite that, as is the case across the U.S., agritourism is growing in California (Rilla, et al., 2011).

The California Milk Advisory Board (CMAB), a large dairy association in California, would like its members to learn about different opportunities, in addition to their traditional operations, that are available to them as alternative

sources of income because of the state of the industry today. They would like to understand how farmers make the decision to participate in agritourism (their motivations), or not – what are barriers, challenges, success stories, and opportunities – so that they help their members further enhance their operations. At first glance this may seem disconnected from the direct tourism industry in California, but agritourism (e.g., dairy farms) provides a traveler with something different that allows them to truly immerse themselves into the local culture, cuisine, and history of a destination. With a growing trend of consumers wanting to know where their food comes from – where it was grown, raised, or manufactured – and wanting to have educational and immersive experiences while traveling, the connection between dairies and tourism is closer than one might think (Forne, 2015).

The purpose of this research therefore is to gain an understanding of the agritourism industry in a state that is well known for iconic tourist attractions unrelated to agriculture, and to highlight the motivations, opportunities and challenges of agritourism for the dairy industry. Following the framework of Pegas, Ollenburg, and Tyon (2013), the primary objectives of this research are to: 1)

Provide an overview of agritourism in the dairy industry in California;

3. Assess farmers motivations for pursuing agritourism; and, 3) Identify the challenges they face when they do so. The literature surrounding agritourism, in particular dairy tourism is surprisingly limited in the literature, so this study will also address that limitation. At the same time, the results will also provide a resource for agritourism (dairy) destinations that may be used by travelers when visiting the state.

Literature Review

Agritourism

There is much research that centers on the actual definition of agritourism (Gil Arroyo, Barbier, & Rich, 2013; Liang, 2017). For example, back in the 1990’s Weaver and Fennell (1997) claimed that agritourism included a commercial tourism component as part of an overall agricultural operation. Gil Arroyo et al., in one of the more recent research projects, defined it as “farming-

related activities carried out on a working farm or other agricultural settings for entertainment or education purposes” (p. 45). Other definitions vary greatly, and are often inconsistent. Such inconsistencies have been associated with the lack of any legal guidance or policies’ regarding what constitutes use of the term, especially in the United States (e.g., Carpio, Wohlgenant, & Boonsaeng, 2008; McGehee, 2007). According to Gil Arroyo et al., the inconsistencies in the literature surrounding the definition are related to three primary areas: (1) the type of setting (e.g., farm, agricultural setting); (2) the authenticity of the agricultural facility or the experience; and (3) the types of activities involved (e.g., lodging, education) (p. 40). Liang (2017) altered Gil Arroyo et al.’s definition to consider agritourism as: “representing the tourists’ direct and indirect contact with various farming related activities designed for recreation or educational purposes in an agricultural setting” (p. 357). Philipp, Hunter and Blackstock (2010) developed a typology which was later updated by Flanigan, Blackstock, and Hunter (2014) that identifies three primary characteristics that are used to define agritourism: the nature of the interaction between visitors and agriculture; whether the product is based on a working farm; and whether the visitor experiences working agriculture. Arguably the most common characteristic used in the definitions is that the farm on which agritourism activities take place must be a working farm (Flanigan et al., 2014). Few studies have argued that the activities do not need to take place on a working farm (Fleischer & Tchetchik, 2005; Jaworski & Lawson, 2005). Activities associated with agritourism might include u-pick produce, educational tours, farm stays (e.g., lodging on the farm – camping, cabins), on-farm sales, farm stands, special events, hunting or fishing, to name a few (Nilsson, 2002; Tew & Barbieri, 2012).

Because this study takes place in California, the definition of agritourism that will be used is based on that proposed by George and Rilla (2008) who discuss the regulations, and how to navigate them, for agritourism in California. That definition says that agritourism “*includes any income-generating activity conducted on a working farm or ranch for the enjoyment and education of visitors. It includes the interpretation of the natural, cultural, historical and environmental assets of the land and people working on it*” (p.1).

Other research about agritourism has focused on whether or not it improves performance of a farm operation (Barbieri, 2013; Busby & Rendle, 2000; Fleischer & Tchetchik, 2005; Gal, Gal, & Hadas, 2010; Hung, Ding, & Lin, 2016; Oppermann, 1995; Schilling, Sullivan, & Komar, 2013; Tew & Barbieri, 2012). The results, however, have been mixed. Busby & Rendle (2000), Oppermann (1995), and Schilling et al., (2013) suggest that agritourism does *not* improve performance of the operation. Yet, other studies have assessed whether the role of the owner and/or farmer affects performance (e.g., Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008; Nakana & Mkhabela, 2001); whether or not the characteristics of the owner/farmer affect performance (e.g., Hernandez-Maestro, Munoz-Gallego & Santos-Requejo, 2009; Nybakk & Hansen, 2008); and what actually determines performance (e.g., Evans & Ilbery, 1989; Che, Veeck and Veeck, 2005).

The focus has been on the motivations behind the pursuit of agritourism in other lines of research. It is in this line of research that the results do not differ too much from study to study. Much of the motivation behind farmers offering agritourism activities stems from economic concerns. It is a way to earn an income that is related to, but different from a farm’s primary operations. As farmers struggle through seasonality, or difficult economic times due to weather, for example, they can use income from agritourism to supplement their overall income. This is true of farmers in the United States (Lynn & Reinsch, 1990; McGehee, Kim, & Klunenberg, & Bratsch, 2002; Nickerson et al., 2001), Canada (Weaver & Fennell, 1997), and Australia (Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Ollenburg & Buckley, 2007). Pegas et al., (2013) surveyed Oregon ranchers to identify their challenges and motivations for diversifying their farm operations to provide agritourism activities. The primary motivations were to increase income, utilize ranch resources, and offset fluctuations in income,

while the challenges were related to lack of time and resources, liability and insurance, and regulations. Nickerson et al., (2001) identified 11 reasons for which a farm might diversify operations to offer recreational activities and tested for differences in them based on the type of farm operation, among other factors. Similar to Pegas et al., the primary motivation was to earn additional income, followed by fully using the farm's resources, and supporting fluctuations in income. The remaining eight, in order of highest to lowest are employment for family members, it's an interest/hobby, companionship with guests, to educate the consumer, to meet a need in the market, other farms have done it successfully, tax incentives, and losing government agriculture programs. Ollenburg and Buckley (2007) based their study about agritourism motivations in Australia. Their findings differed from Pegas et al., and Nickerson et al., in that social motivations were the primary force for diversification as opposed to economic motivations. Social motivations include, for example, "I am proud of my property and want to share it with other people" and "I want to meet interesting people". None of the aforementioned studies about motivation included the state of California.

Agritourism in California

Agritourism in California is actually very prominent, especially with the strong wine industry. That industry has lead the way by bringing tourists in to pick and stomp grapes, taste and bottle wine, purchase wine on property, and take educational tours and classes about making wine. Wine-tourism related sales at the end of 2017 totaled \$7.2 billion (Dunham & Associates, n.d.). Studies about agritourism in California, however, are limited (Rilla et al., 2011). To address this dearth of research, Rilla et al., conducted a study, the purpose of which was to evaluate the agritourism sector in California. While the study provides a good overview of the characteristics of farmers offering agritourism activities; what types of activities are offered; the profitability of such activities; marketing efforts; and profiles of visitors, it does not break down the activities by type-of-farm. Most appear, based on the activities offered, to be farms that grow produce, or produce wine. There appeared to be no activities that one might consider taking place on a dairy farm (e.g., milking cows, making butter, or touring a large dairy). This study will address that missing gap in the literature.

Dairy Tourism

Dairy tourism, to the researcher's knowledge is rarely, if at all studied. It may be studied under the auspices of rural tourism or farm tourism, which might include a visit to a farm, but there is nothing specific that connects the dairy industry to tourism. In a somewhat related project, Ohe (2018) has studied educational tourism in agriculture as a way for farmers to offer a new type of tourism activity, and uses educational dairy farms (EDFs) for the basis of the study. Educational dairy farms "is a well organized network of dairy farmers that provides educational services to visitors in Japan"(Ohe, 2018, p. 168), and may include such activities as lectures by the farmers, milking or feeding the cows, cleaning the barn, field work, making butter, cheese or ice cream, or brushing animals (Ohe, 2012). Many of these activities are similar to what may be found on a dairy farm in California thus providing a possible framework that may be suitable for a definition of dairy tourism in the state of California.

Methods

Members of a large association, the California Milk Advisory Board (CMAB) based in California, who are owners of over 1300 dairy farms in the state, will be surveyed. The CMAB, established in 1969, serves its members by spreading "the word about the extraordinary dairy products made with Real California Milk" (CMAB, 2019); educating consumers with informational brochures, videos and recipes that highlight the health benefits of milk and other dairy products in daily life;

and, conducting research about food safety, and the health care and productivity of dairy cows. The association agreed to participate in this research study in order to identify opportunities and challenges that their farmers face in the development of, or operation of, agritourism so that they may share it with the broader dairy community. They are completely funded by their members, which they refer to as their dairy families, by way of an assessment on the families' milk production.

A questionnaire with three primary sections has been developed based on previous agritourism and/or farm tourism literature. One section is related to socio-demographic information, such as number of years in operation, number of years offering agritourism, size and location of operation, annual gross revenue from traditional operations, agritourism operations, number of annual visitors, and number of employees. The respondents will also be asked their motivation behind offering agritourism activities. The questions are based on those used by Ollenburg and Buckley (2007) in their study about social and economic motivation for farm tourism. Respondents will rate their level of agreement, using a Likert scale of one to five (1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree), with fifteen motivational statements. The statements were culled from Ollenburg's prior research with farm tourism and also incorporated statements from Nickerson, Black, and McCool's (2001) research as well as McGehee and Kim's (2004). The 15 statements are presented in Table 1. Prior to rating the motivational statements, respondents will also have the opportunity to share their motivations in their own words.

Table 1

Motivational Statements

1	I am proud of my property and want to share it with other people
2	I want to meet interesting people
3	I wanted to work on the farm rather than off the dairy
4	I needed an additional income
5	I wanted to be able to stay on my property
6	Tourism was the only alternative to combine with dairy
7	I wanted to educate people about the dairy industry
8	I used it as a marketing tool
9	I wanted to have my own career
10	Agritourism provides me a retirement income
11	It gives my children an opportunity to live and work at the dairy in the future
12	I wanted to earn more money
13	It was a way to keep the family together
14	Our neighbors have done it successfully
15	We are retired and have lots of spare time

In addition to the motivational statements, the respondents will be asked questions based on those used in a study conducted by George, Rilla, and Leff (2009), which surveyed California agritourism operators. They include questions related to effective marketing for agritourism activities, challenges of agritourism activities, and future plans related to agritourism.

An invitation to participate in the survey will be sent to members via email. The email will include a description of the study, the definition of agritourism, as well as an informed consent form. It is important to the association that the member's responses remain anonymous, which will be ensured in the invitation. The initial email will be sent April 1st, with a follow up email two weeks

later. The goal is to conclude the survey by the end of April, and begin analysis thereafter. Results will be presented at the conference.

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TECHNOLOGY INDUCED LOYALTY SCHEMES FOR CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT AND POSITIVE PURCHASE DECISIONS

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Abstract

Retailers across the world are constantly embracing updated technologies during various stages of their operations. Technology adoption is becoming a generic feature for addressing diverse consumer demands. This study identifies two leading retail chains, Sainsbury's and Tesco, in the UK that have adopted technologies for their loyalty schemes and bases a case study on them. Objectives of the study are: first, to explore the key influential aspects of technology-based loyalty schemes that are related to customer relationship management (CRM) and consumer decision-making processes. The second objective is to critically evaluate and compare the impact of the policies adopted by the two retailers. The results indicate that responsiveness is the key factor of effective loyalty schemes for influencing CRM. Also, information sharing and brand loyalty are the most influential tools for developing a positive consumer decision process. The Nectar card of Sainsbury's and the Clubcard of Tesco are two powerful loyalty schemes that are technology-supported. These two schemes have validity and acceptability for CRM and consumer purchase decision making process.

Keywords: Loyalty, Technology, CRM, Tesco, Sainsbury's

Introduction

The decision-making process of customers typically varies according to factors like place and personal choice. Due to the increased number of retailers, customers are getting more choices from which to select products or services. This has also enabled them to perform a cross comparison check on all other available products or services. The consumption process has also been significantly transformed in other ways: customers now do not necessarily have to visit stores to make a purchase. Rather, they can do that online in a more relaxed manner through specialized applications of technological interventions and usage. The varied ways of meeting the transformational choices of the customers have pushed the retailers to employ customer relationship management. This is one of the core theoretical grounds that help to ensure that customer demands are met, through understanding their mindset and purchase behavior.

Cases for the study have been selected as two of the larger retailers of the United Kingdom, Tesco and Sainsbury's. The reason for choosing these two retailers as cases is largely for considerations of easy accessibility, market reputation and market position. These two retailers are also well known for the strategic application of customer relationship management. These two retailers have been operating their activities in a changed and degrading market situation for decades (Hassan & Parves, 2013). They have also expanded their business activities to other countries and no longer depend solely on the conventional forms of product and service development. Currently, they are

depending largely on innovations. Basically, the existence of a retail business largely depends on the establishment and continuation of the relationship with the customers. The main scope of this study lies in analyzing the impacts of the decision-making process of Tesco and Sainsbury's consumers. A key objective of this study has been set, first, to explore the key influential aspects of technology-supported loyalty schemes for CRM and the consumer's decision-making process. The study also critically evaluates and compares the impact of these companies' technology-supported loyalty schemes, in relation to consumer loyalty and the consumers' decision-making process.

Literature Review

2.1 Technology Supported Customer Loyalty

In general, customers are given choices in a retail environment. It becomes apparent and logical that they select the best of all available offers. In the most recent times, retail product and service offers are supported by technology. Thus, the applicability and acceptability of updated technologies becomes highly important from any perspective (Abdul-Muhmin, 2012). Customers are not normally loyal and the process of making them loyal can be identified as one of the main challenges for any business organization. Customers' choices cannot be considered as static, rather as a fact that depends on many criteria. It is becoming common for loyalty schemes to be technology-induced. According to Bell and Patterson (2007), customer loyalty has been described as the intention of a consumer to choose a specific product or service to fulfil a specific demand. Brand loyalty is an issue that has been persistently associated with consumer loyalty. Retailers like Tesco and Sainsbury's have loyal customers who have been shopping with these retailers for a long time; such customer loyalty is the expression of customer satisfaction.

However, issues in customer loyalty are associated with data collection and usage of customers' shopping patterns. This can lead customer retention and the valuation of the consumers for a lifetime. However, the main aspect of customer relationship management is the increase of customer loyalty. Lawfer (2004) has argued that dealing with issues of loyalty in terms of CRM has never been an individual-oriented and easy task to perform; rather, it reflects organizational activities along with individual efforts. Daily or weekly alerts by email for those customers who tend to shop online, along with the distribution of leaflets, discount cards or even flyers, are sometimes considered as effective as the newer concepts of creating customer loyalty. Customers wish to have positive experiences and cold calling on a regular basis is becoming evidence that the retailers are eager to stay in touch with their customers in an approachable manner (Mascarenhas et. al., 2006). However, customer retention is closely and clearly linked with customer satisfaction (Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2002). Customer retention is becoming a matter of concern that is getting intense attention from both retailers and customers, due to the adoption or use of counter-attack strategies by key retailers. These take the form of either display pricing or cutting prices to a certain and specific level.

Retailers are adopting diversified strategies to reach their specific target customers and for enhancing the existing relationships with them (Butscher, 2002). All of these efforts come into effect with the help of technology adoption that has narrowed the distance between retailers and customers. Shopping habits, along with purchasing tendencies, are a frequent matter that influences retailers to adopt customer relationship management strategies. Frequent use of the 'Loyalty Card' has appeared as a powerful means to track the habits of shoppers in an organized and effective manner. Retailers obviously attempt to retain their customers for an extended length of time and get the maximum out of them either by increased purchases or by recommendations to other people. The distribution networks of retailers have started to change in recent times with the addition of certain levels of services or products. The channels of information delivery systems of earlier times

have also passed through modifications and changes (Yao & Liu, 2005). All of these initiatives, as a result, have forced retailers to adopt more customer-focused activities. This is quite clear evidence that customer loyalty is considered as an emerging issue in business policy frameworks. Retailers are set to adopt more customer-oriented strategies and policies for framing customer relationship management approaches in a more convenient and efficient manner. The lower involvement, or even abolition, of intermediaries is an issue that can reduce costs and thus increase profitability in significant ways. The offered services or products developed by business entities appear to reach customers in both organized and unorganized ways, both of which means of delivery of services or products rely not merely on some set criteria, but also on numerous issues, primarily focused on the customer loyalty (Gable, et al., 2008).

4.2 Customer Relationship Management (CRM)

The strategic and tactical maintenance of the relationship with the customers can become one of the prioritized elements for ensuring business success (Dyche, 2001; Peel & Gancarz, 2002). This is also beneficial for the formulation of successful business policies, based on which any retail business can perform regular activities along with expansion (Greenberg, 2004; Kotorov, 2003). The processes of interaction with the customers have not always been as smooth as previously predicted. This depends on the understanding of customers' demands or choices and the possible ways of exploiting the opportunities that are widely available. In the wider segment of the business world, understanding of customers' choices and policy formulation has appeared to be a major concern (Alexander & Turner, 2001; Goldenberg, 2008). Obviously, the basis of elementary successes in the area of customer relationship management majorly depends on the mindset of the consumers, and this is one of the areas in which the real necessity for customer relationship management adoption lies (Stone & Foss, 2002). The adoption and application of customer relationship management assists business organizations in having a wider influence on the consumer purchase decision-making process. A successful and timely strategy or policy setting helps business organizations to have profitability and maximize sales revenues (Bligh & Turk, 2004). Through the targeted use of numerous communication channels, such as telephone, emails or even wireless devices, CRM appears to have improved service and product development (Ahn et al., 2003). In the present technology-dependant world, where technologies are interactive and comprehensive, retailers in the United Kingdom have, by and large, adopted and implemented customer relationship management strategies that involve communication technologies.

2.3 Consumer Decision Making Process

This is one of the very important aspects of the business world. The consumers' decision-making process is essential to reach a positive buying decision. The study of processes and practices of consumer decision-making has been largely contributed by academics, rather than the businesspersons themselves. This is why the understanding of the consumer decision-making process has not been standing on solid academic and theoretical ground (Hassan, 2012a; Hassan, 2012b). Consumers take decisions as daily concerns, and these can have immense influence on their living patterns. The decision-making process is associated with cognitive psychological issues which reflect the personal mindset (Kardes, et. al., 2010). Several academics and researchers have contributed in the areas of understanding the decision-making process, in which human attitudes, behavior and past experience are key issues, as argued by Finkelstein et. al. (2009). Academics have presented numerous issues as important in the decision-making process. The proper understanding of influential factors of the decision-making process is important for this study. Word of mouth tends to have a greater effect than any other form of information generation source (Ekiz, Au, and Hsu, 2012). Management channels are essentially required to understand the

dynamics of the consumer decision-making process in order to achieve accurate targeting. Due to the availability of choices and options, consumers have a solid basis for the decision-making process.

2.4 Approaches in Consumer Decision Making Process

Conceptual frameworks and theoretical aspects have been considered as having immense effects on the development of the wider academic area of the decision-making process. The Rational Approach has been found to be one of the most effective styles for the consumer decision-making process. This approach highlights the process of reaching a certain stage of satisfaction through the careful observation, utilization and evaluation of products or services (Solomon et. al., 1996). The variables to be considered in this approach include the objective or economic facts, such as size, price and capacity. There has been a clear relationship between the theoretical aspects and the practical grounds of knowledge.

On the ground of conceptual analysis, the consumer decision-making process typically involves at least five characteristic features: the recognition of problems at the initial stage of information exploration, the search for information, the substitute process of evaluation, selection and the effect of evaluation (Schiffman, et. al., 2007). Consumers are assumed to be able to obtain information from numerous sources, including personal, commercial, public and pragmatism-based sources. The first category, individual sources, includes friends, family, or even neighbors. The second category includes sales people, advertising, dealers, and retailers' display information. The third and final category includes radio, newspapers, television, consumer-oriented organizations, specialized magazines and electronic word of mouth (Grewal, et. al. 2003).

The classical discussion of the consumer behavior pattern with emphasis on the decision-making process has been mainly believed to be influenced by positivism, which is considered to be based on logic (Caldwell, 1994). From the traditional perspective, positivism represents an approach of research that is considered as having accurate techniques of empirical research, with the capacity of exploring generalized discussions and laws.

Research Methodology

3.1 The cases of Sainsbury's and Tesco

According to Sainsbury's (2016), Sainsbury's has been encouraging consumers who shop both in store and online with an aim to create a bridge between traditional and internet-based shopping. Sainsbury's has started using the data available on the Nectar card for targeting those consumers or shoppers who mostly remain offline. Through this effort, Sainsbury's has been encouraging existing and potential consumers to contribute and write about their experiences and views. Internet-based online reviews and comments are mainly based on customers who have purchased or used the products or services. Sainsbury's has not only listened to its customers' comments, but also has acted to stay in touch with them through the means of social networking and other relevant communication methods.

For retailers, the store is the main platform for creating interaction with the customer. The employees can fulfill the demands of the customers simultaneously through use of their intelligence and interface. Traditionally, retailers need to understand the demands of the customers, visualize the available options for them and act in accordance. The shifting pattern of brands towards their customers' well-being has been considered as essential for effective brand management. On the other hand, according to Tesco (2016), Tesco at first was more focused on specialized areas, like drinks and foods. However, within a very short period, it has expanded to many areas like electronic home appliances, mobile telecommunications and financial services. In 1994, Tesco engaged the Dunhumby Company for collecting information from its customers. Based on the data mining

method, collected data were classified into four broad categories; *standard, premium, uncommitted* and *potential*. Customers were categorized into *convenience, value, healthy eating, fresh, frozen* and *kids*. Tesco started to offer exceptional facilities to its customers, like valet parking or even specialized attention. Special assistance was offered for young mothers, disabled and student customers.

3.2 Interviews

Verbal consent was obtained from the store managers to conduct the interviews to avoid legal, permission and access-related issues. In total, twenty interviews were conducted in four stores, with five interviews in each store. The interviews were conducted on site and in person. The interviews followed a semi-structured questionnaire and the answers were entered by the respondents in the provided space on the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2009). Each of the interviews took a maximum of fifteen to twenty minutes and was followed by an open-ended discussion (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The questionnaire comprised a maximum of thirteen questions with sub questions. The targeted interviews were conducted with customers using the Tesco Clubcard and the Sainsbury's Nectar Card. The reason for this targeting is that these card holders are mostly loyal customers. The respondents were chosen randomly, with no consideration of variables like age, gender, spending patterns or even nationality. The respondents were chosen randomly. The semi-structured interview questionnaires were designed in a way that allowed the respondents to write their answers on the questionnaire (Doz, 2011). The completed questionnaires were then typed and saved on the researcher's personal laptop (Gerring, 2011). The charts and diagrams were produced through MS Excel. The qualitative data was transcribed and coded by the researcher himself, rather than using any common software like NVIVO or ATLAS.ti. Completed questionnaires are attached to this study as appendices.

Findings and Discussion

4.1 Technology Supported Loyalty Schemes as a mean of Communication with Consumers

In Tesco stores, 4, 3 and 3 respondents respectively identified e-mail promotions, newsletters and other means of communication, like store leaflets, as the medium by which Tesco informs and communicates with its customers regarding updated offers and services. Respondent A5 argued that the technological means of relationship-building is more effective than the conventional type, like letters, because most people do not always have time or intention to open and read such letters. However, electronic forms of communication like e-mail can be more effective than any other means of CRM communication.

Table 1: Means of communication with the customers by Tesco and Sainsbury's.

Among the Sainsbury's customers, the newsletter was the most identified way of communication, reported by 5 respondents. Respondents 3 and 1 noted that the way of communication were e-mail promotion, word of mouth and website, respectively. However, respondent B2 argued that Sainsbury's has been regularly sending newsletters to their customers' homes regarding exclusive offers and so on. All of these newsletters tend to have articles and advertisements covering the offers and advertisements from third parties. Very often, promotional coupons are circulated through these newsletters to the mass base of customers.

The above discussions show that newsletters and e-mails are most effective ways for communicating and staying in touch with the customer base. This proves the hypothesis that newsletters and e-mails sent to the customers are the most reliable way of information sharing.

From the theoretical framework of customer relationship management, this can be identified as an approach to building and maintaining relationships with the customers (Anderson & Kerr, 2001). In that sense, findings at this stage accord with the claim that CRM involves the relationship with the customers. Literature shows that CRM has been gradually adopting technological innovations (Peppers & Rogers, 2004), constantly embracing technological innovations and the use of modern electronic devices. Thus, there has been a clear link with the literature that CRM is becoming more technology oriented (Bose & Sugumaran, 2003).

4.2 Effectiveness of CRM Process

All of the respondents of both Tesco and Sainsbury's argued that the current ways of keeping relationships with customers are effective. Both Tesco and Sainsbury's have been adopting a mixture of electronic and conventional means of Customer Relationship Management. All of the interviews were conducted with customers having the Loyalty Card. This strong base of customers has been transforming policies into effective frameworks, whether they were electronic or non-electronic means of communication. This proves the last hypothesis that Brand loyalty is the most influential tool of CRM for making a positive consumer decision process. Findings have indicated that all of the customers have argued that the current means of CRM adoption by both Tesco and Sainsbury's have been effective. However, literature also reveals that the effectiveness of CRM depends on the effective use of comprehensive and technology-oriented channels for ensuring long term profitability (Jelonek, 2016).

4.3 Influential Factors of CRM

Among the Tesco respondents, 4 each were found identifying reasons like customer service and loyalty and responsiveness to customers as the most influential factors for CRM. Easy communication with the case study store has also been found as another influential factor, reported by 3 respondents. As stated by the respondent A1, the convenient location of Tesco stores is one of the main reasons for choosing this brand. The company has slightly moved from so-called customer service to customer delight, because Tesco has different types of Customer Relationship Programmes, like the Loyalty Card Scheme and the First-Class Service Initiative. All these facts have ultimately motivated this respondent to become a loyal customer of Tesco for the last few years.

Table 2: Preferred tools of CRM by the Tesco and Sainsbury's customers.

On the other hand, 8 and 2 of the Sainsbury's customers identified loyalty and services as the only two preferable factors of CRM. Respondent B9 argued that, "I would only say that I am a customer of Sainsbury's for the last decade for the good customer service".

Literature shows that retailers have been working on creating loyal customers. Retailers are also well aware of the changing patterns of choices of the customers and have been adopting numerous strategies with the aim of creating loyalty (Butscher, 2002). This academic claim has been evident through the introduction and adoption of the Tesco Clubcard and Sainsbury's Nectar Card.

4.4 Main Reasons for Influencing the Purchase Decisions

Among the Tesco customers, four identified reasons influence the customer decision-making process: price, quality, brand loyalty and the layout of the store. For the Sainsbury's customers, also, the identified influential reasons were similar to those of Tesco. Along with price, brand

loyalty and quality of products, service by the employees has been found as the most powerful influential factor.

The traditional factors like price and quality were quite similar in both cases. However, it appeared that the customer service department of Tesco was not as effective as Sainsbury's. Responsiveness to the customers has been established through these findings and the hypothesis that responsiveness is the key factor for effective CRM has been defended by the findings.

4.5 Main Influential Factors of Decision-Making Process

For Tesco respondents, 6 respondents answered that updated technology and brand loyalty were the main factors. 4 and 3 respondents answered that price and quality are influential factors for the purchase decision making process.

Table 3: Influential factors of decision-making process.

For Sainsbury's, a maximum number of 8 respondents answered that technology adoption and brand loyalty are the key influential factors for the purchase decision-making process. 1 each of the respondents answered that price and quality are the key influential factors.

According to the Rational Approach (Solomon, 2010), personal observation by consumers of the service and product quality influences the decision-making process. Findings at this stage represent that the Rational Approach can be valid in terms of consumers of Tesco and Sainsbury's. Again, it is very often claimed that the decision-making process is directly related to the psychological status of the individuals. This is often expressed through the persons' mindset (Kardes et. al., 2010). Loyalty is an invisible issue, dependent on experience and totally psychological; that is the reason the findings have a link with the literature, because experience is the basic element of the consumer decision-making process (Finkelstein et. al., 2009).

Conclusion

Customers' comments on the relationship management practices employed by Tesco and Sainsbury's have outlined that newsletters and e-mails sent to consumers are the most reliable ways of information sharing and thus help to create loyalty. The results of this study showed that both Tesco and Sainsbury's have adopted CRM policies using the most modernized technological means and social networking websites. This basis of a technology-supported customer loyalty scheme as a tool for CRM has been simply excellent in comparison to other retailers. An important finding of this research regarding recent trends of CRM is that retailers are getting more dependent on technology-based tools for CRM.

Another key finding of this study is that the retailers are trying to create a solid consumer base through using the Loyalty Card Scheme. In terms of critically evaluating and comparing the impact of the CRM policies adopted by these two retailers, it has been found that brand loyalty is the most influential tool of CRM for developing a positive consumer decision process. The traditional viewpoint is that the small and medium scale business firms are more capable of understanding the demands of their customers, due to their considerably smaller size than the large retailers with millions of customers. However, in recent times the large retailers have been more concerned with adopting CRM policies to create new and retain existing customers as loyal. The study emphasizes technology adoption for effective CRM and a positive consumer decision making process. This study thus concludes that in regard to CRM, consumer loyalty schemes and the consumer decision-making process are interrelated and can have immense influences on each other. The number of respondents in this research is limited, while increased respondent numbers would surely add

dimensions and contexts to this research. Future research areas are suggested to offer more attention to technology adoption in management and relationship management, in particular.

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KNOWLEDGE OF MOTOTURIST'S HABITS TO DEVELOP A SUCCESSFUL TOURIST DESTINATION: AN ITALIAN CASE STUDY

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Abstract

Mototourism is a rapidly expanding phenomenon and it's a potentially profitable sector (Sykes & Kelly, 2016). This paper presents findings from a survey conducted on 1,154 respondents, that provides a preliminary overview of Italian motorcyclists' habits, highlighting common grounds and differences compared to motorcyclists from other nationalities (Cater, 2017; Sykes & Kelly, 2016). Mototourism will be also described and identified as a part of tourism and motorcycling sector, focusing on definitions that will be also provided. Specific needs of motorcyclists will be discussed and taken in account to develop a successful touristic destination (Sykes & Kelly, 2014).

Keywords: Mototourism, two wheel tourism, travel habits, touristic destination.

Introduction

Mototourism is a particular type of tourism which is rapidly expanding and is a potentially profitable sector, but, although it has been practiced for a long time, this market's segment has only recently attracted the attention of researchers (Sykes & Kelly, 2016). Motorcycle travellers have many interests and are always looking for numerous activities during their trips (Weddel, 2014). This kind of tourist needs specific attentions, considering for example the lack of space for luggage, so it's extremely important to investigate habits to fill the gap between the evident increase of mototourism and the scarcity of literature (Sykes & Kelly, 2014). This paper aims to define travel habits of mototourist in order to develop a tourist product, tailored as close as possible to their needs. It is therefore clear that the motorcyclist is not only looking for accommodation with specific peculiarities, but has a different perception of some facilities, such as parking, if compared to other types of tourists (Sykes & Kelly, 2014). Furthermore, the "*problem of luggage*" or the lack of space to transport suitcases is crucial for motorcyclists and profoundly affects not only the choice of the accommodation, but also their consumption habits (Cater, 2017).

Finally, the phenomenon of motoaggregation, which is the tendency of the motorcyclists to travel in groups (that can be more or less organized), must be strongly considered, because can significantly influence travel preferences as well (Walker, 2011). The aim of this paper is to analyze

Italian mototourism, starting from preferences during the trip, the trip planning and all the aspects related to mototourism's world. The paper is divided in four sections: literature review, methodology, results, conclusions and future researches.

Literature Review

Mototourism is a widespread phenomenon that can be potentially profitable, but it has received limited attention in the academic literature (Sykes & Kelly, 2016). Mototourism can be considered and studied as a component of the drive tourism, which is generally a kind of tourism that involves automobiles, motorcycles, four-wheel drive vehicles, recreational vehicle travel and caravanning (Prideaux & Carson, 2011). Travel and tourism are extremely important in global market and represent one of the largest industries, considering that in the US in 2013 it generated \$2 trillion in economic output and one in eight jobs depends upon the travel and tourism industry (Fjelstul & Fyall, 2015). A high value can be found also in Europe, where the contribution of travel and tourism in 2018 to gross domestic product (GDP) was 3.9%, involving 5.1% of the active population, which is almost 12 million people.

This contribution, considering the closeness to other economic sectors, “further increases to more than 10.3% of GDP and at least 11.7% of total employment, which means 27.3 million workers” (European Parliament, 2018). In Italy, in particular, the total contribution of tourism to the GDP in 2017 was 13%, which corresponded to 223.2 billion euros, with involvement of over 3.4 million workers, accounting for 14.7% of the country's total employment (Osservatorio Nazionale del Turismo, 2018).

Drive tourism has been described by Prideaux & Carson (2003) as “tourism that centres on travelling from an origin point to a destination by car that is either privately owned or rented, and engaging in tourism related activities during the journey” (p. 308). Another definition built by Olsen, instead, considers also the time element, so drive tourism can be thought as “travelling away from home for at least one night, on holidays or visiting friends and relatives, in their own, a rented or borrowed vehicle as the primary mode of transport.” Olsen (2003) proposed also the idea that drive tourists consider themselves as travellers rather than tourists. One of the peculiarities of drive tourist, in fact, is the freedom to make and change their itineraries (Prideaux & Carson, 2003), based on great number of criteria, like price, time and infrastructures. (Prideaux & Carson, 2011): this requires a significative amount of time spent planning prior to the journey (Olsen, 2003).

This study aims to investigate the habits of mototourists, in Italy, since mototourism is a particular segment of market with specific needs (Sykes & Kelly, 2014). Knowing and being able to satisfy the requests of this tourist group can prompt the success of a tourist destination, that wants to attract this type of tourist (Sykes & Kelly, 2012).

Methodology

In this section, the methodology used to create the questionnaire and how the data was collected and processed will be described³. From literature review, a lack of information about Italian mototourism emerged (Sykes & Kelly, 2016), thus four expert motorcyclists that have been doing mototourism for over 40 years, have been consulted via depth interview, as suggested by the research methods: an entrepreneur in the motorcycle industry, two motorclub members and the owner of an hotel website for motorcyclists (Table 1). Their contributions have been important to explain phenomenon's defining aspects and to build the survey instrument (Bryman, 2012).

Table 1 – Pertinence and Age of Expert Involved in the Research

Gender	Age	Pertinence
Male	59	Belongs to a Motoclub

Male	61	Entrepreneur
Female	56	Belongs to a Motoclub
Male	57	Website Owner

Furthermore, the website <https://www.bikershotel.it/>, which was specifically created to identify and classify hotels “bikers friendly”, has been contacted during the preliminary phase of the research to understand requirements needed for facilities. Criteria considered by the owners of the website are firstly a parking lot where it’s possible to keep motorcycles in the structure or in the immediate vicinity (Cater, 2013), it is not important if it’s a parking garage or it’s not a secure lot. Facilities should be able to indicate trusted mechanics and give advice about itineraries near the area, that can be reached using the personal motorcycle. A fundamental aspect is the hospitality towards motorcyclists, because even some biker friendly facilities don’t feel very comfortable with big groups of motorcycles (Sykes & Kelly, 2016), especially if they arrive dirty and wet after a storm. In addition, specific needs, like laundry, ironing and also motorcycle washing, should have been taken in account (Sykes & Kelly, 2014). The questionnaire was built with Google Form and it was necessary to define some terms, because there are no univocal words about mototourism. Definitions of journey, itinerary and travel were provided to the respondents⁷ and some filters have been applied (Bryman, 2012). The whole questionnaire was inaccessible for owners of motorcycle with displacements lower than 250c.c. to avoid incongruent data, caused by local limitations on circulation. Scooters owners have been excluded too, because, according to advice from expert motorcyclists, these vehicles represent a world apart.

Furthermore the section “travel experiences” was inaccessible if respondents had not taken at least one trip during the last year. Finally, the survey has been provided to experts and some motorcyclists to test the comprehensibility. The questionnaire has been categorised into four sections: motoaggregation, meaning of the journey, experience of the journey and demographic information. The survey was published the 20th April 2017 and remained available till the 1st September 2017. The questionnaire was shared especially on sites and Facebook groups related to the motorcyclists world, like MrHelmet blogger and “Motociclisti italiani” Facebook group, whose fans and members contributed to the survey with almost 500 answers. During this period, the questionnaire was shared into several groups, avoiding sunny weekends and holidays, because in these days few answers would have been collected: this fact can be interpreted in the light of the motorcycle riders' attitude to make day trips, as they probably would have little time to spend on the internet. Each sharing was accompanied by a presentation message to explain the purpose of the research.

The sample was composed by 1,154 respondents. This great achievement has been possible thanks to a sort of “big family” spirit, with many spontaneous sharing, encouragement comments and people interested in (518 respondents). During the survey, data quality has been monitored and some corrections have been made⁸ (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Bryman, 2012). In the sample some Regions were overestimated due to the answering self-selection of the motorcyclists, however it can be used to explore the mototouristic context.

⁷ Journey: a movement made for tourism, vacation or for work reasons, outside your residence, which includes at least one overnight stay. Movements to locations that are frequently visited or trips that last more than one year are excluded. Itinerary: a route taken by motorcyclists during a trip; departures and arrivals may be different from the residence. Motor meeting: an event with recreational or sport purposes that involves at least 50 motorists and provides for at least an itinerary in motorcycle and a meal.

⁸ The question “What kind of motorcycle do you own?” has proved to be problematic, because some respondents indicated the model, but others the brand or the type. For this reason, a subsequent recoding of data, achieved with the help of an expert motorcyclist, was required.

Results

In the first part, the sample description is proposed, focusing on relation between gender and type of motorcycles preferred. Then the mototourism will be analyzed in comparison with drive tourism. In the second part it will be discussed mototourism as a development factor for small communities, analyzing factors that are considered important for choosing a destination and an accommodation. In the last part of this paper motorcyclists habits will be described, considered in the light of motoaggregation.

Sample description

The sample (1,154 respondents) was 91% male and 9% female and the average age of the sample was about 42 years, most of which fell within the 34 to 51 age bracket (49.4%), as confirmed by literature (Scol, 2016; Cater, 2017). Considering that the age required to obtain a license for a 250 c.c. motorcycle is 18 years old, a sensible number of young people in the range of 18-20 has been collected (1.0%), while the oldest respondent was 88 years old. Employed represent the most part of the sample (86.3%), while other categories showed a very lower percentage: retired people (6.2%), students and housewives (3.8%) and unemployed or people who are seeking their first job (3.7%). Analysis from these results show how the mototourism is a transversal phenomenon, because is practised by people of every age, which means that mototourism's products can be adapted to different targets. The percentage of women, even if rather low, it is not negligible and it must also be considered that female respondents are those who own a motorcycle, while women who practice mototourism as passengers are not included in the data. Furthermore gender is correlated with type of motorcycle chosen: women preferred Naked⁹ and Custom, probably because they are more suitable for their physics, since these motorcycles are significantly smaller and lower. On the contrary Dual sport, which are higher and heavier, are most preferred by male motorcyclists, with a very low percentage of women (Pinch & Reimer, 2012) (see Table 2).

Table 2 – Type of Motorcycles Preferred per Gender

Type of motorcycles	Percentage Female	Percentage Male
Dual sport	11.6%	37.1%
Naked	53.5%	28.9%
Custom	9.3%	2.6%

It must be noticed that mototourism can be considered a sub-sector of drive tourism. In fact, riders do not buy a motorcycle to do motorbike tourism, but they do mototourism because they own a motorcycle and this reflects the high percentage in our sample of motorcycles that are not technically suitable for tourism, as Naked and Sports ones. There are different aspects which influence the choice of the motorcycle (Fatihudin & Mochklas, 2017) and for this reason it's extremely important to know travel habits of expert motorcyclists in order to develop a specific tourism product.

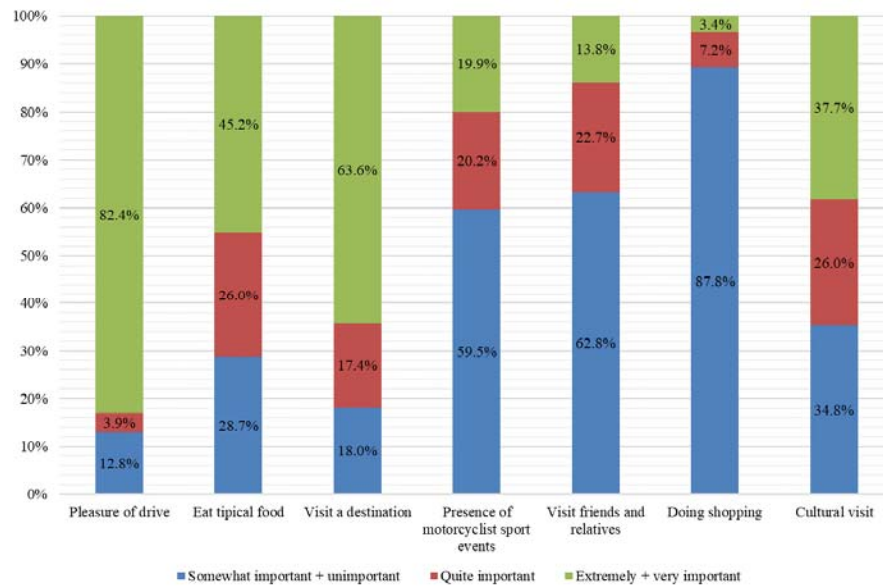
Mototourism as drive tourism

Starting from definitions of drive tourism from Prideaux and Olsen, it is therefore evident that the defining element is the achievement of a destination or visiting friends and relatives, through a journey with a private vehicle. From this point of view, therefore, motorcycle tourism does not fully belong to drive tourism, since 82.4% believe that the pleasure of driving in a mototourism trip is "extremely important", while percentage for visiting relatives and friends is only 13.8. The

⁹ The term "naked" identifies motorcycles without hull (Cordara & Margiotta, 2014).

most revealing secondary aspects of the mototourism are visit a destination (63.6%), try typical food (45.2%) and make cultural visits (37.7%) (see Figure 1). It is therefore evident that mototourism must be defined as a journey whose purpose is to travel with one's own motorcycle or with a rented vehicle, while other aspects of the trip, in contrast to drive tourism, are secondary.

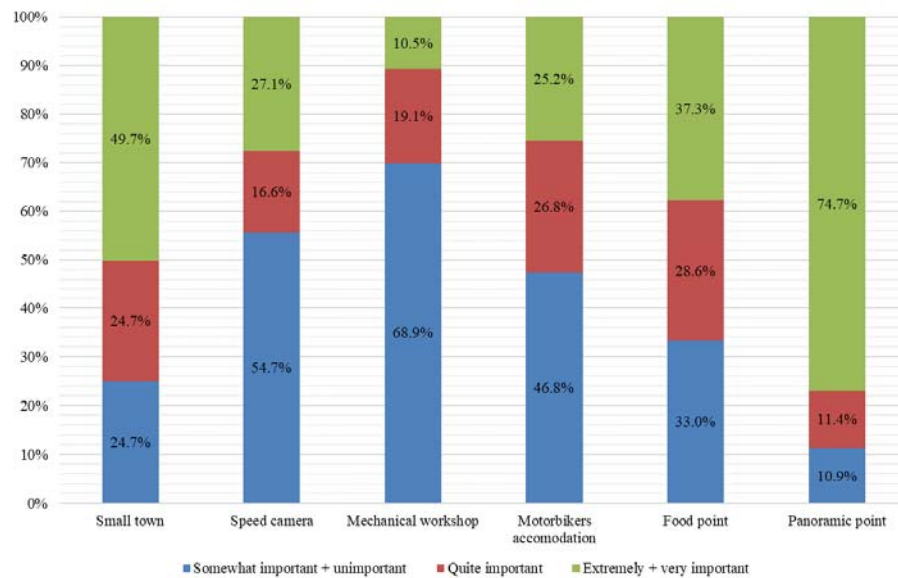
Figure 1 – Importance of Some Aspects During a Motourism Journey



Mototourism as a development factor for small communities

The presence of small towns is an important factor (49.7%) (see Figure 2), that pushes motorcyclists to choose an itinerary, and it follows the presence of panoramic points (74.7%), which are extremely important, because they influence the feeling of engagement with the natural environment (Illum, 2011). Food points are in third position (appreciated by 37.3% of respondents), showing the importance of this kind of tourism for the rebirth of small towns that, especially in rural Italian areas, are slowly disappearing. It must also be considered, instead, that mechanics are not so relevant in the choice of an accommodation, in contrast to what was stated by Sylke and Kelly (2012).

Figure 2 – Importance of Some Aspects in Choice to Have a Journey

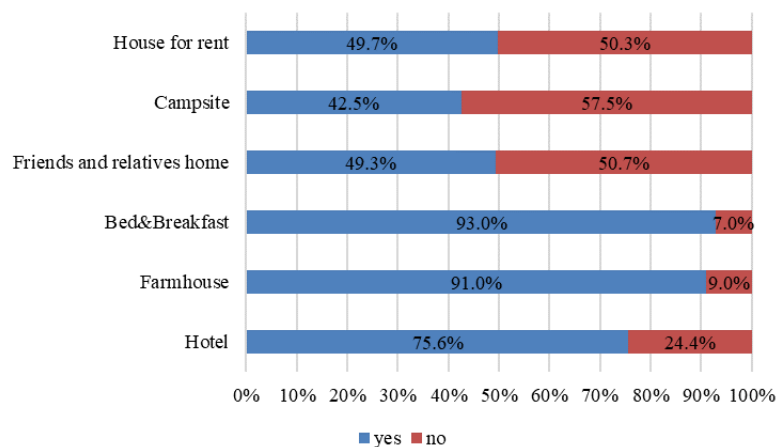


This can be also considered in the light of the preferences of motorbike riders for certain types of accommodation (see Figure 3): typical accommodations such as agritourisms and B&B, mainly family-owned and with character of authenticity, are preferred rather than hotels. The low preference for rented houses and houses of friends and relatives could be linked to two main features of the motorcyclist:

- A preference for the “flexibility” and the “sense of freedom” (Prideaux & Carson, 2003), so they will choose a type of accommodation that does not include strict forms of booking (such as rented houses) or notifications in advance (houses of relatives and friends).
- The luggage problem: motorcycles have no space to carry normal baggage, so motorcyclists have to choose the accommodation considering facilities available nearby, which can contribute to decrease size of personal baggage. For this reason the great part of respondents didn’t choose campsites as accommodation.

Finally, it is important to consider that 90.8% of respondents choose to travel, during their own trip, winding secondary roads, according to (Cater, 2017), which are those roads along which are located small towns in danger of disappearing.

Figure 3 - Type of Accommodation



Mototourist habits

Regarding accommodation and restaurants, these are chosen by the motorcyclist in a peculiar way: the presence of specific parking for motorcycles is considered a very important factor, with 73.4% of respondents that indicated “extremely+very important”. All other aspects, on the contrary, showed a lower percentage, with 34.1% for proximity to the town, 32.5% for the ability to advise motorcyclistic itineraries and only 29.9% for the presence of other motorcyclists in the parking, even though a higher value was expected, suggesting a “biker-friendly” place (Sykes & Kelly, 2016). These findings confirm that the main motivation for the choice of the accommodation and restaurants is specific parking for motorcycles, as confirmed in literature (Sykes & Kelly, 2016; Weddell, 2014; Cater, 2017). Habits of the motorcyclists were also investigated, considering if they travel with a passenger (10.6%), with other motorcyclists (32.8%), with both (48.1%) or alone (8.6%).

The pleasure of driving is appreciated by everyone, with high percentage and no significant differences, but is preferred more by motorcyclists who travel with a passenger than respondents that travel alone. This is an important fact, because basically travelling alone allows riders to make the most of the motorcycle: it’s not necessary to adapt speed to other faster or slower riders, or change driving attitude due to the weight of the passenger. Furthermore, it’s impossible to travel in large groups on narrow roads. It is therefore evident that driving pleasure is not just about driving the vehicle, but it’s related to motoaggregation: motorcyclists like to drive and doing it together with others increases their satisfaction (Walker, 2011). Eating typical products is appreciated mainly by those who travel both with a passenger and other motorcyclists. This finding is quite relevant because motorcyclists spend a lot of money for the trip and for meals, and they prefer to do it in company (Cater, 2017) (see Table 3).

Table 3 - Relevant Aspects (“Extremely+Very Important”) During a Mototouristic Trip by Travelling Companions

Aspects	Percentage With other motorcyclists	Percentage With a passenger	Percentage With both	Percentage Alone
Pleasure of driving	82.3%	86.9%	81.0%	77.8%
Eating typical products	41.0%	50.0%	54.8%	42.4%
Visit a destination	60.8%	73.8%	80.2%	56.6%
Presence of motorcycling sport events	20.1%	14.8%	46.7%	15.2%
Visit friends and relatives	10.6%	14.8%	65.0%	13.1%
Do shopping	2.9%	1.6%	19.5%	4.0%
Cultural visits	31.0%	50.0%	14.0%	41.4%

Motorcyclists that travel in groups are often not well considered by the local population, firstly because they are associated with the idea of thugs and criminals (1%) (Sykes & Kelly 2016), but also because of the noise coming from motorcycle mufflers, which are hated by residents as much as they are loved by motorcyclists. These, however, are easy simplifications and it is certainly interesting to carry out researches on the real perception of residents who live in towns that are very famous destinations of Italian motorcyclists (Muraglione, Stelvio's pass, Tolfa, Castelluccio). Castelluccio is a symbolic case: in 2008 there were only eight residents and was hit by the earthquake of central Italy in 2016. Today the town is completely destroyed, but for years motorcyclists from central Italy choose Castelluccio as their destination to admire the magnificent flowering of lentils. Until 2018 this type of hiking, with no accommodation or facilities, was responsible and sustainable, welcoming also people interested in paragliding and horseback riding. In 2018, trying to help the country hit by the earthquake, the annual flowering of lentils was fully sponsored, attracting about 10,000 people in a single day (Fabrizi, 2018), who parked their vehicles and camped on the Plain, with food brought from home, causing (moderate) damage for growers. It is therefore evident that sustainable problems may occur with any type of tourism if not properly structured and it's not inherent specifically in mototourism (Cater, 2013). And this is important because 80.2% of motorcyclists that travel with a passenger and other motorcyclists consider "extremely+very important" to visit a destination, with significant differences compared to those who travel only with other motorcyclists, only with one passenger or completely alone.

Motorcyclists that travel with a passenger and other motorcyclists is also a category that most appreciate the presence of motorcycle events, but with significantly lower percentages, since Italian motorcyclists in general don't like this aspect, in contrast to what was stated in the literature for motorcyclists in general (Cater, 2017). The same can be observed for "shopping", but findings are in line with previous papers (Cater, 2013). Cultural visits, however, are appreciated by all categories, but seems to be more important for those who travel with a passenger, perhaps because basically there's a tendency to travel with known and trusted people, also due to the driving and traveling position of the motorcyclist and passenger. This fact can be explained also by the necessity to feel comfortable and have similar interests. The way of travelling influences also the choice of some accommodations: if there are no significant differences in the choice of rental accommodation, hotels and B&B, the situation changes with other types of accommodation.

B&B is the preferred type of accommodation, especially for respondents that travel with other motorcyclists or a passenger. This can be explained by the trait of typicity of this kind of accommodation, which usually is also not far from the city centre (Cater, 2017) an important aspect for motorcyclists (see Table 4). Furthermore, B&B are equipped with facilities that are adaptable to the motorcycle baggage and the formula proposed (bed and breakfast) is ideal for mototourists. Farmhouse is preferred by respondents that travel with other motorcyclists (91.3%) and both with other motorcyclists and a passenger (92.4%). In this case, one important factor could be the space available to welcome large groups. With a lower percentage there are homes of friends and relatives, with no great differences, while campsite is mostly preferred by solo travellers (48.5%), with the minimum percentage for respondents with a passenger (34.4%), probably because its presence further limits space on the motorcycle, increasing the volume of baggage (see Table 4).

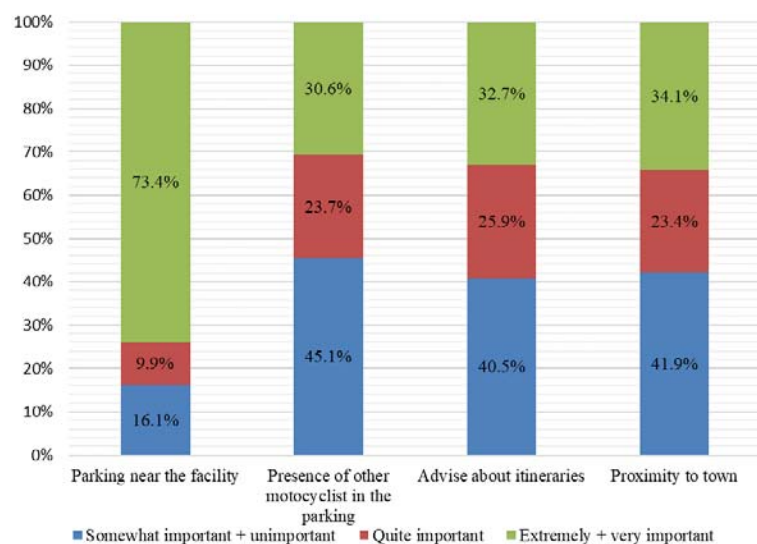
Table 4 – Preference of Type Accommodation by Travelling Companion

Type of accommodation	Percentage With other motorcyclists	Percentage With a passenger	Percentage Both	Percentage A
Hotel	75.4%	74.6%	76.9%	70.7%
Farmhouse	91.3%	86.1%	92.4%	87.9%
B&B	91.5%	91.0%	94.4%	92.9%
Friends and relatives house	50.5%	41.0%	50.6%	47.5%

Campsite	43.1%	34.4%	42.7%	48.5%
Rental accomodation	48.4%	49.2%	51.5%	45.5%

The Figure 4 shows that parking is the key element that mostly influences the mototourist in choosing the accommodation or a restaurant (Weddel, 2014). Other aspects do not seem to be decisive, even if they are not considered unimportant and showed similar values. The proximity to the town is considered important (34.1%), probably because motorcyclists prefer not to move their motorcycles after a long day of travel (Cater, 2017) and the ability to give advice about mototouristic itineraries is also relevant (32.7%): this is consistent with the requirements to be included in the Biker Hotel’s search engine. Finally, the percentage related to the presence of other motorcyclists in the parking lot is quite high (30.6%) and it’s an indicator of a biker friendly facility.

Figure 4 – Important Aspects in Choosing an Accomodation or a Restaurant



Finally, a significant part of the sample belong to a motor club (38.0%) and respondents of this category prefer to travel with other motorcyclists, especially with a passenger (Sykes & Kelly, 2016; Cater, 2017). The most part of the sample, instead, doesn’t belong to any motor club and this could explain why respondents from this category prefer to travel alone or with a passenger, in spite of with other riders.

Conclusions and Future Researches

As that the main activity of the trip is represented by the pleasure of driving, while other aspects, although important, are secondary, mototourism is not only a sub-sector of drive tourism. Mototourism, in fact, could be defined as a type of tourism made by motorcyclists that take trips, with the aim of driving their own motorcycles, although this definition should be confirmed by further studies.

One of the most important aspects of mototourism is the organization of the trip and this is influenced by the motoaggregation, a phenomenon that should be taken in account to adapt the tourism product (Sykes & Kelly, 2012). Furthermore, riders are usually involved in charity events, both alone or through motor clubs they belong to, as in 2016, when a lot of motorcyclists helped local population and institutions after the earthquake. Motoaggregation is evident also when assessing the importance of certain activities during a mototouristic trip: those who travel with other motorcyclists and with a passenger generally consider almost all activities as high important.

This proves that mototourism is not only a very peculiar type of tourism, but it expresses its maximum potential when it is accomplished by a small group of motorcyclists. Possible incomes that this kind of tourism can generate should be taken in account, to develop a winning mototouristic product (Sykes & Kelly, 2016).

Starting from advice from expert motorcyclists, it should be also important to reflect on what are the aspects that mostly motivate a tourist to choose a specific hotel or a restaurant. Parking, in particular, should not be simply considered as a place to leave the motorcycle at night, but should be a specific parking, designed and suitable for motorcycles. This attention is essential and should be transferred to any element of the tourism product: the municipalities, for example, might develop special places for motorcycles inside public parking lots (Sykes & Kelly, 2014).

Another important aspect to consider is the potential sustainability of drive tourism and mototourism, that could be prompted by the emerging of clean energy technologies (Calzati, 2016). Four assets (Landscape, leisure, learning, limit), named globally as 4L Tourism, have been defined to combine the main travel criteria for sustainability and, in contrast with perception of motorcyclists, one of the reason to travel is the high contact with nature and steering away from the chaotic life (Pinch & Reimer, 2012; Weddell, 2014; Illum, 2011): this is in part consistent with the experience of authenticity, that is characterized by the dimension of culture, the fewer presence of tourists, the high independence in travel and conformation to stereotypes of a country's landscape (Prentice, 2001).

Even if the sample was not significant, findings show that mototourism embraces all ages and most of the sample shares the pleasure of driving; on the other hand, interest in secondary activities can be appropriately customized, according to age and interests of motorcyclists. Finally, mototourism is a responsible and sustainable tourism, because motorcyclists are interested in peculiarities of the territory (Illum, 2011), they prefer small towns and twisting and winding secondary roads, possibly avoiding very large groups (Motociclismo.it, 2016). Concerning the environmental impact of motor vehicles, motorcycles consume less fuel and therefore are less polluting than cars (Cater, 2013). Moreover, in Italy, FIM and some private companies are working together with tourism and motorcycle technicians to launch an ecotourism project with electric motorcycles (Rago, 2018). These models are certainly quieter and the emissions are completely eliminated, which makes them perfect for accessing natural parks, without disturbing the ecosystem. Motorcycling, and consequently mototourism, can be dangerous for riders, but motorcyclists are not always aware of the danger (Cater, 2013). Italian motorcyclists are gradually becoming aware of the safety problem and movements led by relatives of motorcycle accident victims have been created to improve the safety of vehicles. For example, in Rome, a movement has reached 600,000 people, belonging to 400 different associations, to push the Minister of transport to install life-saving devices. Therefore, it would be interesting to investigate more deeply the safety perception that motorcyclists have, how much time and money they invest in safety devices and if they consider sufficiently safe their or other motorcyclists behaviour. Further researches should be carried out on the most important destinations for mototourists, especially those that are literally assaulted in specific seasons. Moreover, perception of these great events by residents, real benefits generated for the population and possible ways to divert part of these flows to other areas should be investigated.

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MILLENNIALS' ONLINE HOTEL BOOKING JOURNEY: WHAT? HOW? WHY?

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Abstract

To understand millennials' booking journey comprehensively and thereby guiding them to reserve hotel accommodations via the lucrative channels, it is of necessity for hotels to capture all the touchpoints and channels employed by customers. Harnessing a mixed-method approach (including scenario-based experiments and think-aloud protocol analyses), this study research and unveil the complexity and diversity of millennials' online hotel booking journeys. Through the answers from "what", "how" and "why" diversified channels constitute millennials' online booking journey, this study provides valuable information to understand millennials' online hotel booking journey in a bigger picture.

Keywords: Online hotel booking journey; decision making; multi-touchpoints; multi-channels

Introduction

Over the past few decades, we have been observing that the Internet has been exerting a prominent impact on our daily routines (Vilhelmson, Thulin & Elldér, 2017). eMarketer (2017) reports that online shopping accounted for one-tenth of worldwide retail sales in 2017. Since many researchers empirically prove that one's technology use in everyday life can transfer to tourism (MacKay & Vogt, 2012; Murphy, Chen & Cossutta, 2016), it is not surprising that researching and booking hotel accommodations online are now becoming the mainstream trend. The World Tourism Organization (2014) reports that customers carry out nine travel-related searches on search engines and visit 14 different travel-related sites before making an online hotel reservation. Phocuswright (2017) also reports that one-third of global hotel bookings in 2016 were transacted online.

Being one of the most researched topics in the hospitality and tourism context, a plethora of researchers have explored various topics about customers' hotel selection process (e.g., Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Kim, Kim & Kim, 2018; Liu & Zhang, 2014; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Tsai, Yeung and Yim's (2011) research and report that Chinese travelers and non-Chinese travelers rate the hotel selection criteria differently. The survey results from Murphy, Chen and Cossutta's (2016) study exhibit that search engines as well as family and friends are the most frequently used information sources by Swiss in the hotel booking context. Despite the existence of many academic evidence, extant studies mostly employ the static approach and investigate how individual factors influence customers' choice at a particular time point only (e.g., Chan & Wong, 2006; Lockyer, 2005). Several researchers follow Nedungadi's (1987) choice-set theory and embrace the dynamic approach to investigate how hotel customers go through a funnel-like process to make their final booking decisions (e.g., Jones & Chen, 2011; Park, Yin & Son, 2018;). Although their findings do

unveil how customers narrow down their choices in different phases, the inclusion of only one channel in their works constrains the generalizability of their findings.

Considering that modern customers now tend to use multiple channels concurrently and switch among them frequently in order to identify the best alternative (Lu, Gursoy & Lu, 2016; van Dijk, Minocha & Laing, 2007), it is of necessity to examine customers' hotel booking journey in a holistic and omni-channel context (Amaro & Duarte, 2013; Verhoef, Kannan, & Inman, 2015). Only by means of understanding how customers dynamically interact with different channels throughout the customers' booking journey, academic researchers can formulate a typology of customers' online hotel booking approaches while hoteliers can optimize the efficacy of their marketing and distribution strategy.

Being one of the first studies that attempt to customers' hotel booking journey in the omni-channel context, this exploratory study purports to explore "what" and "how" diversified channels constitute customers' online hotel booking journey. Besides describing how customers switch among different channels before making their final decision, the examination of "why" customers select and switch among different channels throughout their booking journey is another objective of this study. Through combining the answers from the "what", "how" and "why" questions, this study is expect to complement prior studies and enrich the knowledge about customers' online hotel booking journey.

As millennials have already made up 40% of leisure travelers who book travel online, adding that 70% of them stayed in a hotel (nSight for Travel, 2016; Rezdy, 2018), they are widely acknowledged as the most influential consumer segment in the new trend of tourism industry (Morrison, 2017). In view of their growth in both size and significance, this paper focuses on millennial travelers' online hotel booking journey. To be specific, the objectives of this study are threefold: (1) to investigate the dynamic hotel booking roadmap from the millennial travelers' point of view; (2) to identify which digital channels are the most influential during different stages of customers' booking journey; and (3) to identify factors affecting customers' decision to select and switch among different channels.

Literature Review

Online Hotel Booking Decision

As booking hotel accommodations using online channels is becoming increasingly prevalent among consumers, many researchers have dedicated a lot of effort to enrich the knowledge about this topic. Generally speaking, previous research can be classified into three main streams.

The first stream investigates and discusses customers' hotel selection process. Alike the signature five-stage model created by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1990), many researchers find and report that certain established steps (e.g., information search, evaluation and purchase decision) are followed when customers make a purchase decision and reach a final choice (Erasmus, Boshoff & Rousseau, 2001; Nicosia & Mayer, 1976). Smallman and Moore (2010) argue for a greater emphasis on decision-making process and the consequential changes in ontology and epistemology. In this way, variations across different moments of decision-making may be explored. That is, research needs to focus on the whole process that what the customers search, review and choose.

The second stream mainly investigates factors affecting customers' hotel selection process. As expected, numerous research unveil that customers evaluate hotel attributes, such as hotel rating, price and availability of rooms when they book hotels online (Casalo, Flavian, Guinaliu & Ekinci, 2015; Park, Ha & Park, 2017). Since user-generated content is easily accessible and reliable, online reviews from review websites (e.g., TripAdvisor) and online travel agencies (e.g., Booking.com) are empirically proven to have some influences on one's online booking intention and even their

perceived trust towards the reviewed hotel (Ladhari & Michaud, 2015; Yu, Wang, Wang & Li, 2018). Sometimes, website attributes and search engine are more likely to be used as selection criteria, rather than the hotel attributes (Jones & Chen, 2011). Verma, Stock, and McCarthy (2012) echo and supplement that travelers use different websites to search information when they are in different decision stage. In this vein, the factors affecting consumers' hotel selection decision are different at each moment.

The third stream of research about this topic mainly investigates decision-making style used by consumers. Sproles and Kendall (1986) underscore that the impact of decision-making style on consumer decisions is long-lasting. Some researchers also stress that different customer segments have different decision-making style. For instance, when couples make tourism decisions, the dynamic of the shared decision-making process is varied with couples' length of experience with one another (Smith, Pitts, Litvin & Agrawal, 2017). Atadil, Sirakaya-Turk, Meng and Decrop (2018) examine and verify there is difference among the rational, adaptive and daydreamer decision-makers' segments in their behavioral and attitudinal characteristics. Although a detailed understanding of decision patterns is essential to explain customer's hotel booking behavior better, the examination of consumers' decision-making style have been rarely investigated in the hotel booking context.

Customer Purchase Journey

Customer purchase journey refers to the process a customer goes through, across all stages and touchpoints and finally makes up the customer experience (Lemon & Verhoef, 2016). Stein and Ramaseshan (2016) explained that atmospheric, technological, communicative, process, employee-customer interaction, customer-customer interaction and product interaction are seven basic touchpoints. Customers communicate with firms through myriad touchpoints, accelerating media and fragmented channels, resulting in more complex customer journeys (Brynjolfsson, Hu & Rahman 2013).

Analyzing customer decision-making journey does matter because the results can reveal problematic and incoherent service delivery that may result into bad customer experiences (Halvorsrud, Kvale & Følstad, 2016). This analysis will help firms to analyze channels contribution and develop an understanding of how to enrich customer experience in every moment. Another reason why analyzing customer decision-making journey matters is because the interactions between customers and firms involve many channels and also reflect emotional, behavioral and cognitive responses in the process. A single channel may re-appear during the decision-making process, and some channels may be used simultaneously during one shopping stage (Wolny & Charoensuksai, 2014).

Although the results derived from the analysis of customers' decision-making journey are of value and importance, to the best of the authors' knowledge, the current study is one of the first studies that attempt to investigate customers' decision-making journey in the online hotel booking context.

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a scenario-based experimental design approach, including a mixture of observations and interviews, to thoroughly understand the dynamic hotel booking roadmap by millennial customers. A screen capturing software was used to record the entire searching and selecting processes made by the participants. Interviews were carried out after the observation in order to understand why customers select and switch among different touchpoints and channels throughout their booking journey.

Data Collection

Data were collected using a two-step approach:

Step1: Before the start of the experiment, the researchers firstly introduced the study objectives to each participant and sought for their consent to collect data from them. After soliciting the consent from the participants, they were then asked to read the following text in order to help them familiarize with the scenario and setting of the experiment: “*Imagine that you are planning a long-awaited trip to Paris (France) with a group of close friends for the upcoming summer vacation/annual leave (June 2019). As your friends are responsible for other issues, they are asking you to take the lead in looking for one hotel accommodation for this week-long trip.*”

The current study selected Paris as the destination because it is one of the most popular destination cities among international and particularly Chinese millennial travelers (Ipsos, 2016). Paris Convention and Visitors Bureau (2018) also reports that Greater Paris received 40 million tourists in 2017 and Mainland China climbed to the fourth place among all source markets. Paris was chosen because the city has many accommodation options. According to those popular tourism products websites like TripAdvisor and online travel agencies, thousands of accommodations in Paris are available for customers’ consideration and selection.

After reading the hypothetical scenario, participants were asked to freely search, review and find a hotel accommodation for a trip using any web browser, software and other gadgets pre-installed in a standard computer. Throughout the searching process, they are allowed to login to their personal accounts (e.g., email, social media sites) at their convenience. Subjects were not disturbed throughout the entire experiment and they can withdraw at any time in the process. The whole searching and selecting process were recorded by the pre-installed screen capturing software for further analysis.

Step2: After the completion of the searching task, a post-completion interview was conducted with each participant. A researcher watched the recorded video together with the corresponding participant. Whenever the subjects performed an operation, the researchers asked them why they did it and what they were considering. Each interview process was recorded and transcribed.

Data collection was performed in November 2018 and December 2018, and participants were recruited using the convenience sampling approach. Anyone who is aged 23 - 36 (born between the early 1980s and the mid-1990s) is qualified to join. The sample size consisted of 12 subjects and participant information were presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Participant’ Demographic Profile

Participant pseudonym	Gender	Age	Highest level of education level
Leung	Female	27	Bachelor
Vicky	Female	23	Doctoral
Xin	Male	30	Master
CQS	Male	29	Master
Koko	Male	28	Master
Charlene	Female	30	Master
Faye	Female	25	Master
Ice	Male	27	Bachelor
Tao	Male	23	Bachelor
Aaron	Male	24	Master
Olive	Female	29	Bachelor
Ann	Female	27	Bachelor

Data Analysis

During the observation stage of data analysis, a transcript was written for each video data file. These transcripts included the sequence of channels visited, keywords used, pages viewed, modules viewed, type of channels, time spent for each channel and any filter or activities that help participants to search and review information. Then, the researcher aggregated all transcripts and delineated the dynamic online hotel booking roadmap. In addition to understanding the customers' decision style, data obtained from the survey were added to interpret participants' online hotel booking patterns.

For every interview, participants' responses were combined with their actual booking behavior from the video recording. Think-aloud protocol analysis is often used to study the cognitive aspect of translation (Künzli, 2009). In this study, it was used to identify which digital channels are the most influential during different stages of customers' booking journey and explore factors affecting customers' decision to select and switch among different channels.

Findings and Discussions

The findings show that diversified channels constitute customers' online hotel booking journey. The journey begins with customers' most commonly used websites and then they switch to other channels to find more information or evaluate alternatives before making final decisions for different reasons. Besides, customers scan different types of touchpoints during their online hotel booking journey.

Dynamic Online Hotel Booking Roadmap

As can be seen in Table 2, all participants successfully chose a hotel for their hypothetical trip in Paris. The range of hotels number that they scanned is from 1 to 30. Each participant switched among several channels when booking hotels online. The number of channels that the participants used has a minimum of 2 and a maximum of 6.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of Respondents' Searching Task

Participant	Time	Channel Number	Hotels Scanned	Final Booking Channel
Leung	43m35s	2	14	Airbnb
Vicky	10m30s	4	6	Airbnb
Xin	30m14s	4	16	Mafengwo
CQS	20m20s	2	8	Ctrip
Koko	31m07s	5	4	Ctrip
Charlene	29m00s	3	4	Mafengwo
Faye	30m40s	4	5	Airbnb
Ice	31m10s	6	5	Agoda
Tao	57m50s	6	30	Airbnb
Aaron	43m05s	6	9	Agoda
Olive	41m15s	6	11	Hotels.com
Ann	14m30s	4	1	Feizhu

Several types of roadmap can be found based on different patterns of participants' online booking journey. The first type of roadmap is simple. Customers complete their online hotel booking journey by using only one or two channels. For example, Leung used a general search engine to

search for one online hotel booking platform, which her previous experience on this platform was great. Then, she switched to Airbnb and spent a lot of time to select alternatives and finally chose the one she wanted. She conducted all her selecting process in one online hotel booking website. This kind of roadmap is short and simple.

The second type of roadmap has a high demand for online travel agency platforms. For those who are affiliated with this type, they need a large range of hotel choices and hotel information to make their final decisions. In this way, they may swap among different online travel agency platforms to find enough information. In Faye’s online hotel booking journey, she opened Airbnb and Booking.com simultaneously to search and compare hotels between these two platforms. For Ice, he browsed through five online travel agency platforms (including Mafengwo, Airbnb, Booking.com, Feizhu, and Agoda) successively. It is noteworthy that they have enough knowledge about how to book hotels online and are familiar with the online booking channels.

The third type is an interlacing roadmap. During the online hotel booking journey, customers need to switch among different types of channels. For instance, Koko searched for hotels on Ctrip and Booking.com at first. However, he recognized he could not make decisions due to the lack of ideas about what kind of hotels he wanted to book. Therefore, he turned to Mafengwo and Zhihu, which are two popular travel experience-sharing channels in China, to look for travel guidebooks and hotel recommendations. Also, Koko searched for *Lonely Planet* to get ideas about hotels recommendation in Paris. In addition, Ann turned to a social media channel (i.e., Weibo) to check whether the hotels she selected had a discount. When considering the location of hotels, Aaron switched to Rentalcars to check whether it was appropriate to rent a car to reach Paris tourist attractions conveniently. For this type of roadmap, customers may seek other assisted information from varied types of channels when they book hotels online.

Table 3
Participants’ Online Hotel Booking Roadmap

Participant	Roadmap
Leung	Baidu->Airbnb->Baidu
Vicky	Google->Feizhu->Google->Qunar->Feizhu->Airbnb
Xin	Baidu->Mafengwo->Hotels.com->Mafengwo->Booking.com->Mafengwo
CQS	Baidu->Ctrip
Koko	Baidu->Ctrip->Booking.com->Baidu->Mafengwo->Zhihu->Baidu->Mafengwo ->Ctrip->Zhihu->Ctrip->Baidu->Ctrip
Charlene	Google->Mafengwo->Agoda->Mafengwo->Agoda
Faye	Google map->Booking.com->Airbnb->Google->Booking.com->Google map ->Booking.com->Airbnb->Google->Airbnb
Ice	Baidu->Mafengwo->Airbnb->Booking.com->Feizhu->Agoda
Tao	Baidu->Qunar->360 search->Booking.com->Qunar->Baidu->Agoda
Aaron	Google->Booking.com->TripAdvisor->Airbnb->Google map->Rentalcars ->TripAdvisor->Airbnb->Google map->Google
Olive	Baidu->Lehuo->Airbnb->Mafengwo->Baidu->TripAdvisor->Hotels.com
Ann	Baidu->Feizhu->Booking.com->Weibo

Influential Digital Channels of Online Hotel Booking

Many types of research sources and booking channels are provided to customers, like general search engines, online travel agencies, user-generated content sites and social media sites (Liu & Zhang, 2014; Murphy & Chen, 2016). Table 4 shows the dominant channel types that were most frequently used by participants during their booking journey. As shown in Table 3, participants

often used the general search engines like Baidu and Google as their first channel. Surprisingly, no official hotel websites were adopted during participants' online hotel booking journey. Instead, the most frequently used channels were online travel agencies, which had a wide range of options. Booking.com, Airbnb, Agoda, Ctrip, and Feizhu were popular online travel agencies used by participants. Concerning user-generated content sites, Mafengwo destination and Zhihu (a third-party expert), which were mainly used by participants to search guidebook information to find hotels recommendation. Few participants also logged on their social media (e.g., Weibo) to help them make decisions.

Table 4 Types and Samples of Channels Used by Participants

Channel types	Samples
General search engine	Baidu, Google, 360 search
Online travel agency	Booking.com, Airbnb, Agoda, Feizhu, Qunar, Ctrip, TripAdvisor, Hotels.com
User-generated content site	Mafengwo destination, Zhihu
Social media site	Weibo
Others	Rentalcars, Google map

Table 5 presents the frequencies of those online travel agencies used by the. Booking.com and Airbnb are the two most favorable online travel agency among participants, and they offer different types of accommodation options. Though many participants browse hotels on Booking.com and Airbnb, they regard these two online travel agencies as different roles during their booking journey. For instance, Leung searched for apartments on Airbnb directly as she preferred this type of accommodation. Faye compared hotel options between Booking.com and Airbnb until she found a suitable choice on one of the channels. Ann only took Booking.com as a price parity platform and finally booked a hotel on Feizhu. The following most frequently used online travel agency is Mafengwo hotel, which is a sub-part of Mafengwo website. After looking guidebooks on Mafengwo destination, which is also a sub-part of Mafengwo, subjects turn to the hotel page to scan hotels. While few participants, such as Koko and Ice, would like to turn to professional online travel agency to compare and book hotels after collecting travel information on Mafengwo destination.

Table 5 List of Online Travel Agency Sites used by Participants with Frequency Statistics

Online travel agency	Frequency	Percentage
Booking.com	7	23.33%
Airbnb	7	23.33%
Mafengwo hotel	4	13.33%
Agoda	3	10.00%
Feizhu	2	6.67%
Ctrip	2	6.67%
TripAdvisor	2	6.67%
Hotels.com	2	6.67%
Qunar	1	3.33%

Customers may face many touchpoints when selecting hotels carefully on an OTA channel. At different stages, different types of touchpoints work. Attractive pictures, convenient location, appropriate price, high ratings and hotel position in the hotel lists can attract customers to explore this hotel more. Xin, Charlene, and Leung said if the hotel photo style were their favorite type, they

would like to consider booking this hotel. For the price touchpoint, Ice said discount offers would promote his booking. Leung and Charlene would not choose the lowest price, worrying that this would lead to bad services. After clicking in a hotel, customers mainly focus on the number of reviews, negative reviews, rooms and stars. In particular, longer reviews can make them seem credible, and hotel photos posted by other tourists can help customers know a hotel better. When comparing among alternatives, participants pay more attention to location, picture details, price, and surroundings. These touchpoints determine whether a consumer book a hotel or not.

Factors for Switching Among Different Channels

Table 6 summarizes influential factors for customers’ multi-channel switching behavior during their online hotel booking journey. In general, there are two types of switching. One is switching among online travel agency channels and another one is switching between Online travel agencies and other channel types. For switching among Online travel agencies, one of the common factors is that customers are trying to get more choices. As different Online travel agencies have different hotels lists and prices offer, customers can expand their options range and find a proper price to meet both of their constraints and needs. At first, Faye and Tao searched for hotels on booking and Qunar respectively. However, they found that the hotel prices for a week exceeded their budgets, so they changed direction and tried to find an apartment on other channels. Ann decided to book a hotel on Feizhu because of her high membership level on this channel, but she also logged in Booking to compare price for every hotel in her choice set. If there were large price gap, she would consider changing another channel to book hotels. In addition, Ann would scan reviews and hotel pictures on different channels. For example, she said she scanned reviews on Booking, because there were more reviews provided on this international channel than Feizhu did. Also, she browsed hotel pictures on Booking because of the reliability of photos. The same behaviour happened to Ice as well.

For switching between online travel agencies and other types of channels, there are two particular categories of factors. First, since the location is an important factor when booking hotels, subjects switch between Online travel agencies and other channels, such as Google map and Mafengwo destination, to know more about distribution and attractions for Paris and measure the distance between a hotel and an attraction on Google map. Second, searching for specific information to support decision making. For example, Koko tried to search hotel recommendation on a third-party UGC platform (Zhihu). Because he thought recommendation on such a platform could be more reliable than on commercial Online travel agencies’. What’s more, searching for the exchange rate, cars renting information and other Online travel agencies that didn’t know before on general search engine also are influencing factors for channels switching.

Booking hotels in such a multi-channel environment can provide consumers with sufficient information to help them make satisfied decisions. Their booking roadmaps represent a channel parallel and also a circular state because of various purposes. Therefore, switching among channels seem ordinary and necessary during the process of millennial travelers’ online hotel booking.

Table 6
Factors for Multi-Channels Switching Behaviour

Switch among online travel agencies	Switch between online travel agencies and other channels
To compare price of a same hotel	To find recommendation from a third-party platform
To find different hotel options	To find car renting
To compare hotel price range and location	To search for hotel booking channels
To scan reviews/pictures on reliable channels	To confirm hotel location on google map

The current platform is not user friendly	To scan reviews on Google map
To seek out more discount information	To convert exchange rate
Unconscious transformation	To search for Paris attractions and guidebooks

Conclusions and Implications

This work adopted a scenario-based experimental design approach, including a mixture of observations and interviews, to thoroughly understand millennial travelers' end-to-end experience during their hotel booking journey. The results reveal that several types of roadmap can be found based on different patterns of participants' online booking journey. Online hotel booking roadmaps represent a dynamic character in current multi-channel context. In addition, the results also show that the most frequently used channels are online travel agencies, which have a wide range of options. Booking.com, Airbnb, Agoda, Ctrip and Feizhu are the most influential online travel agencies chosen by customers. There are many factors influence customers to switch among channels, one of the common influential factors is that they try to get more choices. Another one is that they need to know more about the destination and other support information to make hotel booking decisions. Through accessing and navigating in multi-channel and interacting with multi-touchpoint, customers can have more confidence to make decisions during their online booking journey.

From an academic perspective, this study would contribute new knowledge to the customer behavior related literature and strengthen the understanding the way that hotel customers communicate with hotels in different channels and different moments under such a changing hotel market. In terms of business perspective, having a better understanding of a bigger picture of hotel booking journey can help hotels to gain a much greater opportunity to target customers in the right place at the right moment with the right information. Hotels can spend more on the most important channels and touchpoints in each booking stage.

Finally, this study has several limitations, with also indicate future research directions. First, the relatively small sample size did not allow deeper insights. However, this study paid attention to such a critical issue that customers' dynamic hotel booking roadmap in current multi-channel context. This study can reflect the behavior of millennial travelers during their online hotel booking journey and it also opens up more questions for future research and quantitative research is needed to explore deeper. Second, the perception of destination spatial distance can influence travelers' information search and hotel select behavior (van Boven, Kane, McGraw & Dale, 2010). Thus, a future study could consider customers' perception of destination distance and compare the difference of online booking hotel roadmap between long-distance travel and short-distance travel. Third, in the real word, the selection of hotels is usually closely related to travel plans. That is, the sightseeing, restaurants and the travel activities all can have influences on hotel selection. Thus, in the stage of information search, considering how travelers make their travel plans is also necessary to get a bigger picture for the online booking journey.

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RESPONSIBLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN EMERGING ECONOMIES: LESSONS FROM NIGERIA

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Abstract

Responsible tourism development is now a significant aspect of tourism literature. Responsible tourism gained attention through the Conference held in Cape Town, South Africa, in 2002. This paper, discusses strategies for supporting responsible tourism development by answering the questions: how can we determine if tourism development is appropriate in Nigeria? How can we foster responsible tourism development in the country? Ethnographic fieldwork was conducted in South-eastern Nigeria. Analysis identified themes which serve as strategies for determining if, when and how responsible tourism development might occur. The findings suggest that these strategies are central to responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria.

Keywords: Responsible tourism, sustainable tourism, development, South-eastern Nigeria, emerging economies.

Introduction

Attention to sustainability had increased since the 1970s when concerns about tourism and the natural environment gained momentum. Scholars have described the term ‘sustainability’ as a buzzword and have criticized the concept as vague and its practice as having brought limited useful change; especially in the field of tourism (Liu, 2003; Mundt, 2011; Moscardo and Murphy, 2014; Mihalic, 2016). However, the concept of sustainability is commonplace in development studies (Canavan, 2017; Cohen, 2002; Dryga, Aleksandrova, Goncharova & Sanfirova, 2016). The sustainability concept can influence planning decisions resulting in more effective action (Kristjánsdóttir, Ólafsdóttir & Ragnarsdóttir, 2018). The *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* (JOST) launched in 1993 (Cohen, 2002) is a response to enthusiasm for the concept of sustainability within the field of tourism. Cohen identified the triple bottom line of economic, environmental and socio-cultural parameters as the primary motivation for accepting sustainability into the field of tourism. The balance between environmental, socio/cultural and economic impacts arising from tourism development may assist in securing the industry’s future.

As early as 1999, still within its first decade, sustainable tourism was criticized as focusing on the economic and environmental aspects of the triple bottom line, while sidelining the socio-cultural aspects (Robinson, 1999). Cole (2006) observed that in JOST, a journal specifically focused on sustainability, socio-cultural aspects of tourism development are not well represented. Further, it has been argued that whilst interest in the notion of sustainable tourism is growing the concept is vague and difficult to comprehend. This highlights the gap between its meaning in theory and practice (Hardy, Robert, Beeton & Pearson, 2002; Debicka & Oniszczyk-Jastrzqbek 2014; Mundt, 2011).

Sustainable tourism, a sub-branch of sustainable development that came to the fore after the publication of the Brundtland Report in 1987 (Cole, 2006), is a development objective in many governments' tourism plans and policies (Sharpley, 2000). Critiques of sustainable tourism have more recently led to the concept of responsible tourism which aims to mitigate the adverse consequences of tourism. The tourism literature has included discussions of responsibility since the 1980s; however, it has not gained as wide publicity as its sustainability counterpart (Mihalic 2016). According to Mihalic (2016), responsible tourism requires those involved taking responsibility for making tourism sustainable by remedying ethical issues and difficulties in implementation. For Mihalic, accountability, the capacity to act and capacity to respond are required for responsible tourism. As supported by Debicka & Oniszczyk-Jastrzqbek (2014), responsible tourism involves activities that encourage growth, not harmful to the environment and protecting local culture and heritage resources. The above explains why achieving responsible tourism requires stakeholder collaboration and community participation.

In this paper, we discuss strategies for achieving responsible tourism development using South-eastern Nigeria, a region where tourism is still in the pre-development stage, as a case study. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were organized with the key tourism stakeholders in the region comprising tourism officials representing government, traditional rulers, men, women and youth representatives as well as security agencies, to understand their views on what is needed for responsible tourism development in the region.

Literature review

Literature that discusses responsible/sustainable tourism, in advanced and emerging economies, identifies barriers and strategies for supporting and motivating successful tourism development. These strategies include community participation, stakeholder collaboration, ethical considerations, minimizing negative socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism, empowering local people through employment, sharing of benefits and offering positive experiences for tourists (McCombes, Vanclay & Evers, 2015; Mihalic, 2016; Moscardo & Murphy, 2014; Spenceley, 2008). The barriers to responsible tourism include lack of infrastructure, expertise, skills, funding, poor implementation strategies, government attitude, lack of education (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016; Frey & Geroge, 2010; Musavengane & Steyn, 2013; Spenceley, 2007). This paper draws on this literature to provide a discussion of the potential for responsible tourism in South-eastern Nigeria.

Mihalic (2016) offered an in-depth analysis of responsible/sustainable tourism arguing that despite decades of discussion about tourism sustainability, in practice, the application has been problematic. Mihalic differentiates between sustainable tourism as a concept and principle, and responsible tourism as the practical aspect of developing tourism in a sustainable manner (Mihalic, 2016). She argued that sustainability is the ideal for tourism development, while responsibility represents the actions, reality and actual application of the standards. According to some authors, this understanding gave rise to the pursuit of "more responsible" types of tourism including

alternative, new, eco, responsible, smart, green, soft, quality and minimum impact (Booyens & Rogerson, 2016; Mihalic, 2016; Musavengane & Steyn, 2013). Mihalic coined the term Responsustainable to refer to this responsible/sustainable tourism nexus and proposed a pyramid to depict the construct.

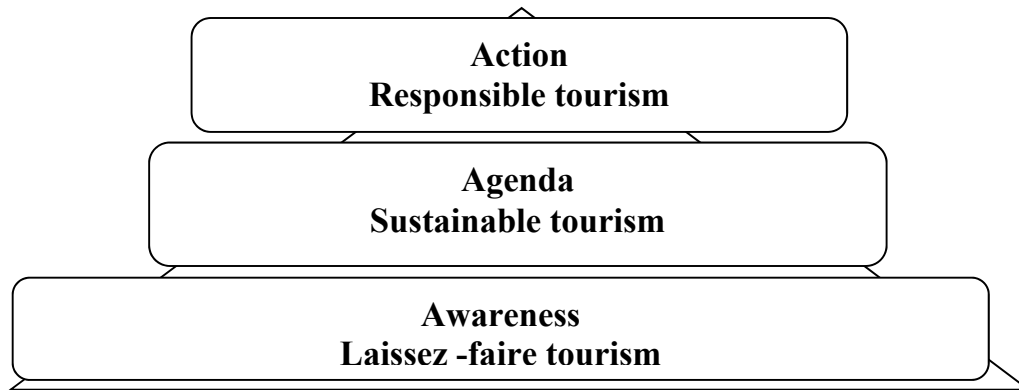


Fig. 1: The Triple-A Model for responsustainable tourism. Source: Adapted from Mihalic (2016).

The first level of the pyramid is the 1970s era of (environmental) awareness of the impacts of tourism. This era included public advocacy about environmental damage caused by tourism development. Awareness metamorphosed into the agenda stage with the publication of the Brundtland Report and the formalization of sustainable tourism. The action or responsible tourism stage completed the responsustainable tourism pyramid.

Researchers including McCombes, Vanclay & Evers (2015) and Moscardo & Murphy (2014) have commented on the sustainable-responsible tourism discourse. McCombes et al. (2015) observed that the fuzziness of the sustainable development concept has reduced its validity and affected its application. Citing Goodwin, and his work on tourism and poverty, the authors argued that sustainable development lacks specific and measurable indices for assessing whether tourism is sustainable. McCombes et al. argued that objectives, such as measuring and balancing the outcome of the triple bottomline are not achieved and responsibility, including creating a conducive environment for collaboration of stakeholders is not taken seriously. Consequently, responsible tourism focused on the ethics of responsibility (McCombes et al., 2015). Responsible tourism was formalized at an international conference held in Cape Town, South Africa, in 2002, which led to the promulgation of the Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in the same year (McCombes et al., 2015; Spenceley, 2008).

McCombes et al. (2015) listed the characteristics of responsible tourism contained in the Cape Town Declaration as follows. It:

1. minimizes negative economic, environmental, and social impacts;
2. generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well-being of host communities, improves working conditions and access to the industry;
3. involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and life chances;
4. makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, to the maintenance of the world's diversity;
5. provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists through meaningful connections with local people, and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues;
6. provides access for physically challenged people; and

7. is culturally sensitive, engenders respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence.

The above characteristics for responsible tourism rely on stakeholder collaboration and community participation being central to its development. For instance, in 1995, Jamal & Getz found that stakeholders' independent approach to tourism was giving way to working together. Collaboration increases the organization of policies and actions and helps address the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999). These benefits are central to achieving responsible tourism development. Importantly, community participation provides local people with an opportunity to present their values, taboos, customs and expectations. In 1969, Arnstein described community participation as citizen power, tokenism and non-participation. Thirty years later, Tosun (1999 and 2006) classified community participation as induced, spontaneous and chaos. Some types of community participation- tokenism, non-participation, induced and chaos- comes from a top-down approach, which facilitates coercion and bribery to secure community support. Thus, whilst community participation is central to responsible tourism development, especially in emerging economies, there is a need to adopt a bottom-up approach (Tosun, 2000) to strengthen responsible tourism development.

Moscardo and Murphy (2014) questioned the concept of sustainability and sustainable tourism and argued that despite more than 30 years of academic attention, little had changed in practice. They highlighted five keys issues with sustainable tourism namely:

1. the concept is tourism or touristic centric;
2. the concept focuses on the destination and ignores the bigger system of which tourism is part of;
3. the concept regards environmental concerns and often neglects other aspects of the sustainability indicators;
4. the concept is usually driven by academic institutions; and
5. the concept is not integrated into other activities (Moscardo and Murphy (2014: 2539-2540).

The authors supported responsible tourism and argued that it:

1. Involves the host community in tourism governance;
2. Seeks to minimize all negative impacts;
3. Generates economic benefits for locals, contributes to cultural and natural heritage, and enhances the overall well-being of the host community
4. Is accessible to all; and
5. Provides tourists with meaningful experiences that give them a better understanding of cultural, social and environmental issues relevant to the places they visit as well as the larger, global setting.

(Moscardo and Murphy, 2014: 2541).

Responsible tourism is, therefore, about stakeholders encouraging sustainable tourism development through ethical practice. Therefore, for tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria, responsible tourism requires stakeholders to carry out activities that lead to sustainable tourism development because they have key responsibilities that would influence how tourism develops.

Research methods

This paper reflects on seven months ethnographic fieldwork conducted in South-eastern Nigeria, an area inhabited by the Igbo speaking tribe, who occupy Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo States. There are approximately 40 million people in the region. The data discussed in this paper was collected from two clans within Anambra and Enugu States through in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. The two clans were selected as case studies to represent South-eastern Nigeria because of the potential for tourism in their areas. Potential tourism resources in the area include monuments, mythical streams, caves, shrines/deities, sacred groves, festivals, lakes and various cultural centres. The government has also supported tourism through policy formulation. Respondents were 23 traditional rulers, five security agents, 41 men, 41 women and 41 youth representatives, eight tourism officials representing the government and seven chief priests of various shrines. These respondents were drawn from 23 communities within the study area. Purposive sampling was employed to identify and select participants who hold key positions in the communities. In addition to interviews and focus groups, tourism sites were visited and locations recorded using a hand-held Global Positioning System (GPS). Photographs of the sites were taken to add validity to the data collection. Table 1 provides an overview of the respondents who participated in the study.

Table 1: respondents who participated during the fieldwork N=166.

Category	Anambra State	Enugu State	Total
Traditional rulers	8	15	23
Men	18	23	41
Women	18	23	41
Youth	18	23	41
Chief priests	3	4	7
Security agents	2	3	5
Tourism officials	3	5	8
Total	70	96	166

Data collected through interactions with the respondents were analyzed using content analysis (CA) to identify patterns, themes and categories. CA is vital in qualitative research to reveal who said what, why, when and to whom. Camprubi & Coromina (2016) who commented on the importance of CA in tourism research noted its central role in qualitative data analysis. For this paper, data analysis and interpretation followed the stages outlined by Rollers & Lavrakas (2015) and Erlingsson & Brysiewicz (2017). In following their pattern, data was first coded to generate meaning units and identify important quotes from respondents. Unit of analysis was determined by identifying unique phrases in response to questions regarding the strategies for supporting responsible tourism development. Preliminary coding was conducted and categories and themes were developed. Patterns across categories were identified and interpretations were drawn (Rollers & Lavrakas, 2015).

Results

Responses to questions asked about whether tourism should be developed further and strategies for supporting possible responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria underwent an iterative analysis process to understand manifest and latent meanings. Six broad themes were identified from the initial analysis relating to potential strategies for strengthening responsible tourism development in the study area. The themes included awareness creation, encouraging collaboration and community participation, adequate funding, provision of essential amenities and tourism facilities, addressing security issues and implementation of tourism policies. These themes are discussed in detail.

1. Awareness creation

Awareness creation was one of the themes identified from the data analysis. Many respondents (80%= 133 participants) highlighted the local peoples' poor level of awareness of tourism and how they might contribute to meaningful tourism development. Many respondents made comments that indicated they did not understand tourism. For instance, some understood tourism as only related to foreigners and travellers. Some hoped that tourism would not destroy their culture, even though they did not understand the notion of tourism. Others saw tourism as beneficial without negative impacts. The above comments explain why it is essential to raise local peoples' awareness of tourism and its consequences if they are to have meaningful involvement.

Awareness creation involves keeping people informed so they can make the best decisions about what affects their daily lives. Many respondents noted that awareness creation is essential to engage people in tourism development because in emerging economies with new tourism developments, local people lack awareness and experience of the positive and negative outcomes from tourism. Hence, awareness creation is a vital strategy for achieving responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. For instance, if the local people are not well informed about tourism, they are not positioned to make an informed decision. A respondent summarized the same point concerning the Nigerian case thus:

When the government is ready to develop tourism, they should come and teach us what we should do and how we can contribute to the development. We do not know much about tourism and we are willing to learn. We are only interested in doing what is right for our community (respondent 12 - men representative in Enugu State).

This comment explains the importance of creating awareness for the local people who are indispensable stakeholders in the tourism development process; especially in an emerging economy such as Nigeria where tourism is still new to the local people.

2. Collaboration and community participation

Approximately, 150 respondents (90%) interviewed during the fieldwork acknowledged the need to work together for responsible tourism development. Many people made comments indicating that they can contribute to tourism if they understand what it stands for and if the government and other stakeholders build trust with them. The people expressed a willingness to collaborate and share their indigenous knowledge to help develop tourism. Two respondents from south-eastern Nigeria commented that:

The tourism we are talking about is going to happen in our environment and we need to be part of it because we understand our culture and environment more than anyone else. We also do not want any harm to come to our community (respondent 32 – men representative in Enugu State).

We should be part of the tourism planning and development process because we have something to offer. We can offer the land for tourism projects and our indigenous knowledge, raise counter fund to support the government, act as local security personnel,

tour guides and sell souvenirs to tourists (respondent 89 – men representative in Enugu State).

The importance of collaboration and community participation in tourism development cannot be over-emphasized; many of the local people and tourism officials noted that working together is crucial for responsible tourism development. People noted that through community participation, they could have a say in how, or if, tourism should develop and the type of tourism they may want.

3. Making funds available

Availability of funding was identified as a central bone for supporting responsible tourism in South-eastern Nigeria. Most respondents interviewed (95%=157 people) commented on the paucity of funds for development in Nigeria. For instance, comments revealed that people are tired of depending on the government for better living standards, they are losing faith in the government because of a series of unfulfilled promises; and they expressed annoyance toward government for poor community development. Several people noted that for all community needs, including a bridge to ease vehicular movement in and out of the community, electricity supply, access roads to their farmlands and important cultural sites (such as their shrines and mystical streams and lakes), the government had only made available the sum of ₦5,000,000naira (AUD20,000). Such money was not enough to address the community needs, including building a community hall, healthcare centre and community schools. Two traditional rulers noted that:

The governor of the State remitted the money to all the traditional rulers. I used what I got to construct parts of the roads that we use today. This would ease movement within the community to some extent. Before then, you would not have been able to go through those roads because of their deplorable state. Although this is commendable, the money was not enough to complete all the necessary projects needed in the community. (respondent 4 – a traditional ruler in Enugu State)

We cannot talk about government funding tourism projects which are yet to take off in our community when the government has not addressed the core needs of the community which would also influence tourism development. Look at the state of our community; there is nothing to show that the government cares about our people (respondent 14- a traditional ruler in Enugu State).

Many tourism officials highlighted poor funding and its impact on the recruitment of qualified staff for the tourism sector in the study area. Whilst the government of Anambra and Enugu States earmarked tourism as a viable option for economic development in the region, in the 2018 budgetary allocations, neither Enugu State (Enugu State 2018 Budget) nor Anambra State (pers. Comm. with a tourism consultant) allocated funding to the sector. Even with experts and institutional infrastructure, without funding, the tourism sector could not survive. A staff from the tourism agency noted that:

We lack funds to execute the tourism projects that we have in mind. The tourism sector is not adequately funded. Even when we submit a budget for our project, the government complains of non-availability of funds. Sometimes, the government slashes the budget

and such monies end up not serving the required purposes. Shortage of funds is one of the major challenges that we are currently facing (respondent 162 - a tourism official in Anambra State).

The above reflections reveal that there is much work to do before South-eastern Nigeria have a tourism industry. Since responsible tourism is about ethical business, State governments need to move beyond making empty promises and playing politics, to taking practical steps if there is to be successful tourism development in the region.

4. Provision of essential tourism amenities

In the tourism planning and development process in South-eastern Nigeria, provision of essential tourism amenities and facilities, which are necessary to motivate responsible tourism development have been ignored. This situation is worrisome because tourists generally like to visit a destination that offers comfort and provide amenities and services with which they are relatively familiar. In South-eastern Nigeria, where tourism is still in a developing phase, the private and public sectors are not actively involved in providing essential amenities and facilities. About 76% of the respondents (126 people) alluded to this assertion and lamented the poor infrastructure, (including adequate water supply, electricity, good access roads, hotels and healthcare centre) and tourism facilities in the communities.. One of the respondents captured this point thus:

I am happy that you are a Nigerian and understand how our system functions here. Making promises of improving the lives of the local people is one thing that the government is good at but implementing the promise is a different thing altogether. The essential amenities and facilities that we need are not provided and we believe that if these are provided, they will aid both community development and tourism growth (respondent 154 – a traditional ruler in Anambra State).

This situation is very worrisome for the possibility of tourism development. Most of the respondents noted that the lack of amenities and tourism facilities is not peculiar to their communities. They said the Nigerian government has failed to provide these facilities in most places. This condition has led to a lack of trust between the people and the government. They argued that until the government begins to live up to their promises, they cannot trust them.

5. Provision of adequate security

The majority of respondents reported that in partnership with the government, they have established a native security outfit called 'neighbourhood watch' and provide vehicles for their patrol. Respondents explained that security is needed in the area to encourage peaceful co-existence and protect lives and properties from local crimes, including stealing and other anti-social behaviours. Whilst the security network is relatively sound in the area the local people noted that there is room for improvement. A respondent said:

You will notice that there is a strong security network in our community but we expect more trained personnel. These security men are youths drawn from the various villages that make up the communities and they sometimes lack professional training. The

patrol vans are also not enough to cover the entire communities, so we do rotational method for the various communities (respondent 65 – local security officer).

Security must be considered in all tourism planning and development in South-eastern Nigeria. Whilst the local people have adopted a proactive strategy to maintain law and order for their safety in the communities, this may well not be adequate for tourism development.

6. Need for practical implementation of tourism policies

The need for practical implementation of tourism policies emerged through interactions with tourism officials in the region. All staff from the tourism agencies represented, including Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC), State Tourism Board (STB), Ministry of Tourism and Culture and Ministry of Diaspora Affairs, Culture and Tourism acknowledged that there is an implementation challenge affecting the discharge of their responsibilities. Most respondents identified a gap between the provisions of the tourism policy documents and mechanisms for ensuring conformity. Some staff identified overlapping responsibilities between the tourism agencies, resulting in a lack of clarity of roles and responsibilities. One respondent from the tourism agency explained that:

The institutional and legislative arrangements needed for tourism development are on ground, as well as most personnel needed in the tourism industry. The failure to implement the laudable provisions of the tourism policy, master plan and tourism-related Acts has been the bane of Nigeria's tourism development efforts (respondent 143 – a tourism officer in Enugu).

The issue of weak implementation of tourism policy must be addressed if responsible tourism is to develop in South-eastern Nigeria. As Dredge and Jamal (2015) argued, adequate tourism planning and policy implementation influences how tourism develops, the wins and losses and how benefits and costs are distributed.

Discussion

The findings from fieldwork conducted highlight strategies that could support responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. Interactions with local people revealed a strong attachment to their culture, especially the elderly participants, adherents to African traditional (ATR) and people living in the community. This explains why addressing their concerns about tourism is vital to gain support for responsible tourism development in the area. This observation is consistent with Jurowski and Gursoy's (2004) assertion that the local people's goodwill is needed for tourism development and its subsequent sustainability. The results of this study confirm that achieving responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria requires involving the local people in the development process. The peoples' participation and empowerment will help address the environmental, economic and socio-cultural issues associated with tourism which are at the centre of responsible tourism development.

This study found that there is a high level of ignorance about tourism and the associated impacts amongst local people in Agulu-Aguinyi and Ntuegbe Nese clans of Anambra and Enugu States. Awareness creation could provide an opportunity for local people to make a meaningful contribution to the discussion about tourism development in their area. Awareness creation would need to improve the peoples' knowledge and skills and empower them to collaborate with other

stakeholders. The ability to contribute to tourism development entails having the required skills and know-how to participate in the planning and development process. The people have noted that they lack the necessary skills and competencies. This is expected, given that in some countries, tourism is a new phenomenon and sometimes, its issues are complicated. This observation is consistent with Bello et al.'s (2016) findings in Malawi, indicating that lack of awareness results in many local communities in emerging economies finding tourism issues complex and technical and therefore difficult to comprehend.

Discussion for this study identified collaboration and community participation as central to supporting responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. Interactions with the respondents revealed that there is currently a lack of collaboration in the study area because of a lack of trust between local people, the government and tourism planners. The local people complained of the government's tendency to adopt a top-down approach to development, which ignores their contribution. This builds mistrust which must be addressed to secure the peoples' positive disposition toward tourism and tourists if tourism is desired.

Analysis of discussions reveals a need for spontaneous community participation with a bottom-up approach to development to strengthen the local peoples' knowledge of tourism development and impacts. Interviewees said that this approach would help them express their concerns and expectations from tourism. This is consistent with tourism literature (McComb et al. 2016). If well implemented, community participation allows local people to choose or discard tourism development and creates an atmosphere of mutual understanding; especially with the community members.

The challenges of limited funds in facilitating tourism projects, especially in emerging economies is common. In the study area, most respondents, including local people and tourism officials noted that the situation is not peculiar to the foregrounded industry; rather transverses other sectors. Respondents explained that the paucity of funds affects tourism development in many Nigerian communities. In cases where stakeholders are willing to participate in tourism planning and development, the paucity of funds defeats their efforts to pursue responsible tourism development. This finding is supported in the literature by Tosun (2000); and Bello, Lovelock & Carr (2017) who noted the importance of financial resources in tourism development in many emerging economies. They argued that the scarcity of resources forestalls the development process including community participation. It is, therefore, imperative that the government, as a key tourism stakeholder in South-eastern Nigeria, make funds available if the sector is to develop.

As with the paucity of funds, lack of essential amenities and tourism facilities are impediments to responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. Many respondents lamented that the Nigerian government has failed to utilize the country's resources to improve peoples' living standard and have also failed to create an enabling environment to attract private sector investors. Tourism officials explained that the National Tourism Policy for Nigeria (2005) recommended that in creating an enabling environment, to support tourism development, the Nigerian government should offer tax holidays, give out land for tourism projects on a concessionary rate and enact effective laws to protect the interest of private investors. Such involvement could help to provide amenities and facilities including hotels, access roads, electricity, internet communication, telecommunication networks and water supply needed to develop tourism. The failure to implement these provisions is a challenge in the country; and needs to be addressed for responsible tourism development.

Security challenge is not well highlighted in the literature (as a concern to be addressed to support responsible tourism development). Its emergence in this study reflects the specific security challenges currently facing Nigeria. The Nigerian government's poor strategies for tackling security and insurgency is a significant constraint to responsible tourism development in South-

eastern Nigeria. Media representation of violence and safety issues in the north-eastern part of the country, including the displacement of thousands of people, especially women and children from their homes highlight the lack of security in the country. For instance, there are hundreds of internally displaced persons (IDP) camps in the north-eastern region. The majority of the respondents noted that the government had not provided adequate security. In the study area, which is not as volatile as the north-east, people have instituted a local security network- neighbourhood watch- to safeguard the communities. Many of the security personnel interviewed noted that more trained personnel are needed as well as more vehicles for smooth operations.

Although South-eastern Nigeria is currently free of insurgency, assassination, kidnapping, militancy and petty stealing are regular occurrences in the region. These frightening crimes affect tourism development as tourists consider their safety at any destination. Findings by Awazi (2015) in his study of peace-building, good governance and healthy environment as imperatives for tourism development in Africa, showed that insurgency in the north-eastern part of Nigeria had reduced tourist visits to Yankari National Park in Bauchi State. Thus, it can be concluded that assurance of safety in a tourist destination increases tourist arrivals. Further, as reported in the international media, the September 9/11 attack in the U.S.A and the Boko Haram insurgency in the north-eastern part of Nigeria are examples of how insecurity affects tourist visits to destinations. Both caused a decrease in tourist numbers. Therefore, addressing the security challenges in the region is vital to support responsible tourism development.

All the tourism officials interviewed stated that the government had not supported conformity in the implementation of legislative documents, including tourism policies. Many staff of the tourism agencies criticized the government for failing to implement the laws and policies guiding the activities of many tourism establishments. Most tourism officials noted that the implementation of the provisions of the tourism policy documents is a significant challenge affecting tourism development in the region. Many of the officials regard the government's policy documents as 'good in theory and bad in implementation.' For instance, they said the government failed to implement hotel classification law in Nigeria as highlighted in the NTDC Act. The tourism officials agreed with Okpoko and Okpoko (2002) assessment of hotel classification in Nigeria as 'a free rider's game' because the government could not monitor the activities of the hotel owners. A similar finding was noted by Eyisi (2014) in an earlier study showing that whilst the Nigerian tourism policy recommended Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) for the development of ecotourism in the country, this has not been incorporated into tourism development.

The research for this paper leads to the observation and question: With the support given to tourism - through policy formulation and establishment of agencies- without adequate mechanisms in place to implement and enforce the provisions of these documents, what is the prospect of tourism development in Nigeria?

Conclusion

The authors of this paper identify strategies that could nurture responsible tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. The paper contributes to tourism research in Nigeria, especially concerning the ongoing responsible/sustainable tourism discourse. Tourism in Nigeria as a field of study is new; there is a need for further research in the country and in other emerging economies. Further research would arguably help to minimize the wide gap between tourism research in advanced countries (the core tourism area) and emerging economies (the periphery). The strategies highlighted in this paper reveal that issues associated with tourism development are more critical in the emerging economies than the advanced countries. Findings from more extensive studies would help identify specific issues associated with tourism development in the region where the barriers and challenges facing tourism development are more prevalent (Cole, 2006).

Research on the concepts of responsible/sustainable tourism are more at home in advanced countries because more studies have been conducted in the area by Western researchers. Hence, it is imperative for researchers from emerging economies, who have local knowledge of the specific issues facing tourism development in their countries, to be involved in further research. If this occurs, it will arguably highlight critical and country-specific issues facing tourism development which hitherto might have been neglected or ignored. If we are to accept the discussions of tourism and its Western concepts; and adapt them to suit local resources/people and tourists, then, we must understand their application in specific contexts; either to corroborate, or add to the assumptions and theoretical discussions.

The strategies highlighted in this paper are critical to supporting responsible tourism development; particularly in an emerging economy, such as Nigeria if they choose to increase tourism. These strategies, including awareness creation, collaboration and community participation, provision of funds, provision of amenities and tourism facilities, addressing security challenges and implementation of tourism policies are essential for consideration during tourism development in South-eastern Nigeria. In addition to findings from scholars who have commented on tourism development in emerging economies, including Bello et al. (2016; 2017); Muganda et al. (2013) and Tosun (2000), the results of this study are vital to strengthening tourism development at any destination; particularly in emerging economies where tourism is still in the developing stage. The results include the availability of funds, collaboration and community participation, awareness creation, provision of essential amenities and tourism facilities, security; and the practical implementation of the provisions of tourism policies. If the results from the findings of this paper are not considered, then, achieving responsible tourism development in Nigeria continues to be impracticable.

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A RESEARCH ON THE DETERMINATION OF THE FINANCIAL LITERACY LEVELS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYEES: KONYA / BEYŞEHİR PUBLIC EMPLOYEES EXAMPLE

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Abstract

Financial literacy can be defined as making financial management focused on daily life. In other words, financial literacy is defined as the choice of how to use the financial instruments used in daily life. With the development of globalization in the national economies, the variety of financial instruments has increased and the effects of financial factors on economic growth and development have become important. Financial literacy, expressed as the ability of individuals to achieve income and expenditure balances, to make savings, that is, to manage money; it is necessary to have sufficient knowledge about financial management. Individuals who have the ability of financial literacy, can easily provide income-balance, balance, and they can also prepare a budget, making savings for future and manage their debt. The financial literacy has positive effects on individual financing, and it also contributes to the balance of social finance. This study was conducted in order to determine the financial literacy level of public employees in Beyşehir district of Konya province. In this context, a total of 69 questions were asked to 203 public employees working in the Beyşehir district of Konya, 7 of which were personal information forms and 62 of them were financial literacy. The answers were analyzed in SPSS package program.

According to the results of the study, it was identified that 65% of the participants learned the method of spending from their families; 73.9% of them made monthly expenditure budget; that 37.4% regularly kept the income records; that 47.3% viewed themselves unsuccessful in managing their financial cases ; and that 93.1% used online banking applications. In the direction of the answers given by public employees participating in the study, it was identified that the concepts of payroll; EFT/transfer, advance, individual pension, bond, bank receipt, income tax, deposit, and financial the most, that the concepts they have information the least were the ratio, betterment, drawing, real estate certificate, liquid fund, liquidity, dividend, and variable fund.

Keywords: Financial literacy, public employees, finance.

Introduction

The new inventions and developments in information technologies positively affected the speed and quality of individuals to achieve information and led to increase the diversity of financial market instruments. Today's financial world, with the effect of innovation and globalization in the recent years, has started to introduce a variety of product and service suitable for every financial need and case. New technologies, development of electronic distribution channels, and more integration of financial markets every passing day facilitate access of individuals to financial services. The increase of individuals 'interest in capital markets and their worries about future planning have stood out the financial information level that is necessary to make economic decisions. Especially, depending on the developments experienced in the technology and communication sector and becoming widespread of free market economy, the interest in financial

markets has increased. With the effect of these developments, individual opportunity and responsibilities gained importance.

Literature Review

Since the concept of financial literacy is a very old concept, it is seen that it is defined by many researchers in the literature. Some of them are.

- ✓ It is that “an individual, recognizing financial concepts, obtains, understands, and evaluates the information that is necessary in deciding” (Mason ve Wilson; 2000: 31).
- ✓ Jump Stuart having the program of financial literacy in USA defines financial literacy as “for lifelong financial safety, the ability of individual to be able to effectively use financial resources and to use the information that can provide this” (PACFL, 2008: 35).
- ✓ According to the definition of OECD (Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development), financial literacy is the information level of individuals about financial products and concepts making contribution the increase of economic welfare and their awareness of being able to make preference between the various risks and alternatives
- ✓ According to Lusardi, financial literacy should be studied as basic financial literacy and developed financial literacy. While basic financial literacy contains the concepts such as interest, inflation, and risk, the concept of developed financial literacy covers more complex calculations such as stock, fund, and bond (Lusardi, 2008: 2-7).
- ✓ Financial literacy is a financial subject including not only the own problems of individuals but also all society and concerning national finance and requiring to remove its deficiency in educational institutes (Reyes, 2006: 82).
- ✓ .The concept of financial literacy should not be perceived as individuals’ prudent or their behaving in such way. Financial literacy expresses not only an attitude or behavior but also information level. However, financial education is expected to affect financial behaviors rather than financial information level (Kieschnick, 2006: 2).
- ✓ Bianco and Bosco (2000), emphasizing that becoming financial literate is as important as knowing English or becoming literate in a science, revealed the importance of this subject.

Method and Methodology

The Aim of the Study

This study has been carried out as definitive and sectional. The aim of the study is to identify the level of financial literacy concept that is an important indicators on public employees serving in Beyşehir district of the province Konya. In this scope, survey was administered to a total of 203 people serving in Beyşehir district of the province Konya and voluntarily participating in the study.

Method of the Study

In the study, as the method of data collecting, survey method was utilized. The necessary data for the study were collected by means of face to face survey application from the students selected randomly and voluntarily participated in the study. The survey consists of two questionnaires as personal information form and financial literacy form. There are a total of 69 questions, whose 7 are related to socio -demographic features and 62 are related to financial literacy. The employees participating in the study were asked whether or not they had information about 34 financial concept in the scope of survey. The answers were analyzed by SPSS package program.

The survey of financial literacy, developed by Bayram and Temizel (2010), was used for 600 students of Faculty of Economics and Business Management and Vocational High School and another survey, developed by Antepli and Kılınc (2018), for the students of Department of Business Management.

Assessment of the study data

The information belonging to socio-demographic features of those participating in the study is given in Table 1.

Table 1. The distribution of study group according to socio-demographic features

Socio-demographic features	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Female	89	43,8
Male	114	56,2
Marital Status		
Married	166	81,8
Single	37	18,2
Age Groups		
Ages 20-30	28	13,8
Ages 31-40	91	44,8
Ages 41-50	61	30,0
51 and over	23	11,3
Educational Status		
Primary Schools	10	4,9
High School	28	13,8
University	115	56,7
Postgraduate	50	24,6
Occupation		
Civil servant	91	44,8
Worker	26	12,8
Teacher	61	30,0
Academics	25	12,3
Length of Service in Public Sector		
1-5 years	43	21,2
6-10 years	38	18,7
11-15 years	36	17,7
16-20 years	29	14,3
21 years and over	57	28,1
Monthly Income		
TL 2000-3000	36	17,7
TL 3001-4000	56	27,6
TL 4001-5000	64	31,5
TL 5001 TL and over	47	23,2
Total	203	100,0

When the demographical variable of the participants in the study are examined, it is identified that 56.2% of the participants are male; 81.8%, married; 44.8% in the range of age 31-40; 56.7%, university-graduated; and 44.8%, civil servant, that length of service in public sector of 28.1% is 21 years and over; and that 31.5% have salary 4000-5001.

Table 2. The distribution of Study Group According to the Amount and Shares of Monthly Fixed Income

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Amount of Monthly Fixed Income		

TL 500-1000	10	4,9
TL 1001-1500	36	17,7
TL 1501-2000	39	19,2
TL 2001-3000	44	21,7
TL 3001 TL and over	74	36,5
Shares of Monthly Fixed Expense		
Rent	28	13,8
Food and Beverage	58	28,6
Credit Payment	79	38,9
Other	38	18,7
Total	203	100,0

When monthly amount of income of those participating in the study and distribution of these according to expense items are examined, it is identified that 36.5% of the participants have expense of TL 3001 and over and that 38.9 % of total fixed expenses go to credit payment.

Table 3: Distribution of information levels of the participants associated with basic financial concepts

	N	Min.	Max.	Average	St. Deviation
1. Payroll	203	1,00	3,00	2,7980	,52047
2. EFT/ transfer	203	1,00	3,00	2,7882	,50684
3. Advance	203	1,00	3,00	2,7143	,56913
4. Individual Pension	203	1,00	3,00	2,6897	,56045
5. Obligation	203	1,00	3,00	2,6305	,64979
6. Bank Receipt	203	1,00	3,00	2,5764	,70207
7. Income tax	203	1,00	3,00	2,4384	,72433
8. Deposit	203	1,00	3,00	2,3695	,73556
9. Mortgage	203	1,00	3,00	2,3596	,74710
10. Stock certificate	203	1,00	3,00	2,3448	,70311
11. Net Profit	203	1,00	3,00	2,3448	,73748
12. Balance sheet	203	1,00	4,00	2,3153	,75065
13. Cash Flow	203	1,00	3,00	2,2808	,74792
14. Securities	203	1,00	3,00	2,2709	,73827
15. Simple interest	203	1,00	3,00	2,2512	,74524
16. Account statements	203	1,00	3,00	2,2414	,78087
17. Income table	203	1,00	3,00	2,2315	,75163
18. Financial table	203	1,00	3,00	2,1970	,75818
19. Policy	203	1,00	3,00	2,1675	,82745
20. Profit loss reports	203	1,00	3,00	2,1626	,77599
21. Inventory	203	1,00	3,00	2,1379	,77759
22. Current account	203	1,00	3,00	2,1133	,77840
23. Compound interest	203	1,00	3,00	2,0985	,76440
24. Financial analysis	203	1,00	3,00	2,0493	,80070
25. Bond	203	1,00	3,00	2,0345	,74714
26. Portfolio	203	1,00	3,00	1,9458	,75912
27. Variable fund	203	1,00	3,00	1,9113	,76561
28. Dividend	203	1,00	3,00	1,8276	,82344
29. Liquidity	203	1,00	3,00	1,8079	,81904
30. Liquid fund	203	1,00	3,00	1,8030	,80259
31. Real estate certificate	203	1,00	3,00	1,7734	,70912
32. Drawing	203	1,00	3,00	1,6749	,79148

33. Betterment	203	1,00	3,00	1,6305	,73556
34. Ratio	203	1,00	3,00	1,4975	,67761

Not: I know well (3), I have heard but I do not know in detail (2), I do not know at all (1)

The public employees participating in the study were asked whether or not they have information about 34 basic financial concepts. In the direction of that the answers those participating in the study give, it is identified that the participants know information the most the financial concepts of payroll, EFT/transfer, advance, individual pension, deed, bank receipt, income tax, and deposit, while they have information the least about the concepts of ratio, betterment, drawing, real estate certificate, liquid fund, liquidity, dividend, and variable fund.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The concept of financial literacy is all basic skills, which enables individuals to recognize the basic financial concepts and their information level associated with financial instruments and decisions they will make in short and long term to be right and in time. Financial education and financial literacy education are phenomena concerning all society and having important effect on economic developedness level and development of countries. Nowadays, reaching information becomes quite easy in terms of opportunities internet and other information technologies introduce. However, what is important that the information that is able to be fast reached is to be understandable and interpretable. In view of this, beside the use of financial information resources, depending on this use, the change of financial behaviors gains importance. If individuals cannot provide to effectively utilize opportunities financial system introduce by raising their financial literacy levels, a market approach that effectively works can be gone away.

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ONLINE HOSPITALITY AND COLLABORATIVE PARADIGM OF COMMUNICATION: A CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF COLLABORATIVE PLATFORM PEER-TO-PEER INTERACTION EXPERIENCES

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Abstract

This paper's main goal is to shed a conceptual light on the hospitality perspective regarding online peer-to-peer interactions and present the collaborative paradigm of online communication approach to explain hospitable online interactions on collaborative platforms. We believe that hospitable actions can be performed online through communication, and its perceived experience takes place mainly before and during accommodation itself, influencing the overall experience. This paper aims to contribute to the literature by proposing a conceptual understanding on online hospitality and its potential experiences based on perceived peer-to-peer collaborative consumption interactions.

Keywords: Online Hospitality; collaborative paradigm of online communication; peer-to-peer; collaborative consumption.

Introduction

Today, there are more than 4 billion users connected to the internet. This number represents 53% penetration rate of the world's population and tends to increase, based on 1052% increase since the year 2000 (Digital, 2018). In one internet minute, 38 million messages are exchanged on Whatsapp, 18 million text messages are sent, 174,000 users scroll down on Instagram, and there are 973,000 Facebook logins (Digital Information, 2018). People are intensely interacting and communicating with each other using a variety of online platforms and media.

Even before impacting organizations, online social networks and media are part of the everyday life of the individual/consumer, and influence significantly how people communicate, relate, and consume (Molz, 2012; Matos, Barbosa & Matos, 2016; Sigala & Gretzel, 2018). Peer-to-peer online interactions could therefore be considered one of the pivotal elements of contemporary human relationship on daily basis, and consequently, impacts all areas, such as hospitality. According to Sigala (2016), exchange of information and interactions are one of the essential aspects of tourism and hospitality experiences and, as a result, are strongly affected by technological changes and trends.

On hospitality, specifically, new technologies and online social networking platforms are creating hybrid spaces of interaction, providing new ways of relating to distance and redefining who counts as "friend" or "stranger" (Molz, 2012, p. 215).

Over the last nearly two decades, discussion on hospitality field theory development were proposed and conducted by exponent researchers (Lashley 2000; Lashley; Lynch & Morrison, 2007; Molz

& Gibson, 2007; Brotherton & Wood, 2007; Lahsley, 2008; Morrison & O’Gorman, 2008; Molz, 2012; Lugosi, 2014; Molz, 2014; Lashley, 2017).

Recently, Lynch, Molz, McIntosh, and Lugosi (2011) invited researchers to develop hospitality theory critically and interdisciplinary and proposed a research agenda that addresses specific gaps and novel areas that require further debate and theorizing. In this paper, we address one of these novel areas, namely Hospitality and Virtuality. As Lynch et al. (2011: p.15) point out ‘As social relations are increasingly conducted in mediated formats, hospitality provides a useful lens through which to explore the way humans interact with each other in virtual spaces and with new technologies in physical spaces. To date, surprisingly little research has applied a hospitality perspective to these emerging phenomena. Those authors who do engage the metaphor of hospitality in this context, however, reveal that bringing hospitality to bear on studies of human-machine interactions, online social networking, and virtual communities enables us to ask important questions about belonging, exclusion, power and identity.’ (Lynch, et al., 2011, p. 15) Since then, hospitality research on this matter has remained scarce, although the need for its discussion grows exponentially each year along with the rise of information and technology adoption, and the emergence of new forms of interaction, communication and consumption, in particular online social networks.

This paper’s main goal is to shed a conceptual light on the hospitality perspective regarding online peer-to-peer interactions and, inspired by Lynch et al. (2011), to further develop theoretical arguments put forward by Lashley and Morrison (2000), Molz and Gibson (2007), Molz (2012), Dredge and Gyimóthy (2017) and Lashley (2017) studies, will introduce collaborative paradigm of online communication approach (Gulbrandsen & Just, 2011) to explain hospitable online interactions on collaborative platforms.

This paper’s arguments will focus on collaborative platforms such as Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange’s online peer(host)-to-peer(guest) interactions. These are observed on what Dredge and Gyimóthy (2017) define as a collaborative economy platforms, which can take place on digital platform peer-to-peer network, and it adds value by providing context and forum for transactions. It connects travelers worldwide, making it conceivable to welcome each other into their homes, and is crucial to enable new arrangements of collaboration and exchange (Molz, 2014; Forno & Garibaldi, 2015). Airbnb, presently, has over 5 million listings in more than 191 countries and has intermediated over 300 million guest arrivals in the last decade (Airbnb, 2018). Couchsurfing website states that platform is a global community of 14 million people in more than two hundred thousand cities (Couchsurfing, 2018). Home Exchange has over 65 thousand homes in 150 countries (Homeexchange, 2018). It could be considered relevant examples of the collaborative economy and consumption.

Collaborative consumption is based on the reinvention of traditional market behaviors, by increasing value of access for a fee or other compensation as an alternative mode of consumption, as opposed to property (Belk, 2014; Bardhi & Eckhardt 2012; Belk & Llamas, 2011; Belk, 2010). In this case, ownership is no longer the ultimate consumer desire (Chen, 2009).

Also, online peer-to-peer interactions and the sharing of personal experiences could allow individuals to create and maintain social connections with each other. Participating in collaborative consumption is an opportunity to develop meaningful social connections, and authentic experiences on guest-guest relations and exchanges (Botsman & Rodgers, 2011; Tussyadiah, 2015; Pesonen & Tussyadiah, 2017).

These intermediated interaction approaches carry relevant questions such as how do consumers make sense of hospitality in the collaborative environment when they are interacting online, and how and when do they engage on and perceive hospitable actions through communication and its implications on their experience.

We believe that hospitable actions can be performed online through communication, and considering hospitality collaborative platforms such as Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange, the essential part of its perceived experience takes place mainly before and during accommodation. This is a new contribution to the hospitality literature, since it focuses on peer to peer interaction in the online environment and also when considers the possibility of performance and perception of online hospitable actions of both parties, essentially before and during the accommodation, which will be pivotal to unique perceived hospitality experience.

In order to present answers, this paper will rely on the collaborative paradigm of online communication, which is an ongoing process determined by more collective, opened, recursive terms and peer-to-peer relational approach (Gulbrandsen & Just, 2011). This theory brings a new approach to hospitality, and it is directly related to how people mainly interact nowadays. It fits perfectly to understand hospitable actions/performance taken place on online environment, and, most importantly, on hospitality collaborative platforms.

By approaching hospitality, collaborative consumption, the collaborative paradigm of online communication, and online peer-to-peer meaningful/authentic interactions constructs, this paper aims to contribute to the literature by proposing a conceptual understanding on online hospitality and its potential experiences based on perceived peer-to-peer collaborative consumption interactions.

Thus, we present online hospitality concept as a collaborative communication form of engagement between peers - host and guest - taken on a collaborative platform, mainly before and during accommodation, where truthful, and genuine information about who, what, where, and for how much are provided and exchanged by both through multimedia to make them perceive and feel a safe, satisfying, and authentic online host and hosting experience.

Literature review will be presented to explain theoretical propositions on this concept by: (i) situating online hospitality into hospitality theory; (ii) presenting collaborative paradigm of online communication, relating it to hospitality and online peer-to-peer interaction on collaborative consumption; (iii) describing possible peers' perceptions of online hospitality actions and its implications on satisfying, and authentic interaction experiences; (iv) presenting final discussion, implications for hospitality industry, and future research opportunities

Situating Online Hospitality

The emergence of the Internet has drastically transformed the way individuals interact and communicate with one another, as well as changed relationship between consumers and organizations to the same extent (Sigala & Gretzel, 2018). Besides proportioning a practically instantaneous and uninterrupted form of interaction, it enabled a greater consumer's protagonism providing, for example, online collaborative settings for hospitality transactions between individuals.

Discussion on hospitality theory evolution and its definition have been taken for years as posted before. Lugosi (2014) also has pointed about the complexity of hospitality conceptualization and welcomed complementary intellectual perspectives. Before bringing collaborative paradigm of online communication to explain it, we will situate online hospitality into what has been published in the area, establishing some first notable conceptual boundaries, such as private/domestic and commercial domains, as well as reciprocal and commercial motives for hosting.

Our peer-to-peer approach corroborates with Molz's argument (2014, p.4) that "moments of hospitality are not confined to the hotels, restaurants, in-flight service or guided tours that constitute the hospitality industry. Hospitality seeps into the crevices of public and private life." On collaborative consumption, exchange of public and private personal information and items between individuals is one of the core values (Belk, 2007; 2010; 2014; Botsman & Rodgers, 2011; Belk &

Llamas, 2011; Cheng & Jin, 2019). Traditional "offline" welcoming actions between individuals now also take place on and are adapted to online collaborative platforms, like Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange.

The notion of private/domestic domain in hospitality was introduced by Lashley (2000). It stated that interactions happen on an individual/private level, not on traditional commercial hospitality industry, allowing persons to perform hospitableness roles in their home, which could be perceived as a more genuine and authentic experience of hospitality (Lashley, 2000; Lashley et al. 2007; Lashley, 2017).

Non-genuine and authentic hospitality experience and actions have been also discussed as characteristics of commercial setting (Slattery, 2002; Ritzer, 2004; 2007) –whereby "commercial" should basically be understood as for example a hotel's service provision that has to be paid by consumers. This organization-guest consumption relation, however, has already been confronted and broadens. Lashley (2000) would call it commercial/industrial domain.

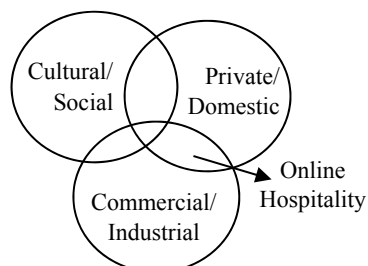
Telfer (2004) argues that inhospitable commercial setting could be mitigated by persons who naturally have hospitable behavior, and, on an individual level, provide a true hospitable experience. For Lashley and Morrison (2003), actions related to the private/domestic domain are inherent to commercial settings, arguing that successful hosts engage with consumers on a personal and emotional level, and the more quality emotion they experience, the more satisfied, and loyal they will be (Lashley, 2017).

Lugosi (2008; 2009) presented two articles relating commercial settings to hospitable spaces and moments. First, he investigated production of hospitable experience between consumers at commercial hospitable spaces, presenting three types of it: "the offer of food, drink, shelter and entertainment within commercial transactions, the offer of hospitality as a means of achieving social or political goals, and meta-hospitality – temporary states of being that are different from the rational manifestations of hospitality" (Lugosi, 2008, p. 139). The author described those differences to understand that hospitable moments could be experienced by consumers in commercial settings.

In 2009, Lugosi examined the interrelation of social and commercial hospitality forms by executing an ethnographic study at a queer bar, focusing on guest experience, and guest-guest transactions, highlighting subjective element of its perception, as well as demonstrating a broader and more complex hospitality perspective to understand it as a process of "ongoing relationships between individuals in and through spaces" (Lugosi, 2009, p. 409).

Although there are still questions and beliefs about the possibility of hospitality actions in commercial places, both philosophical and empirical counter-arguments have already demonstrated the possibility of genuine and true actions even in exchange for a monetary value or other compensation such as the practice of collaborative consumption. Therefore, we point that online hospitality can be placed on the intersection between the domestic/private and commercial/industrial domains illustrated on figure 1.1.

Figure 1 – The domains of hospitality

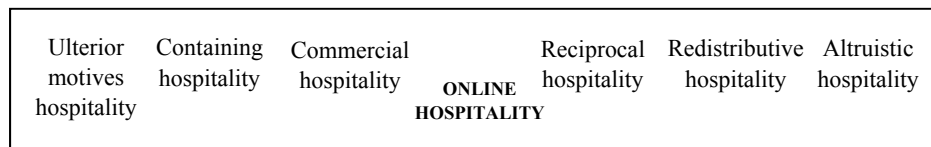


Reference: *Adapted from Lashley, C. (2000). In search of hospitality: towards a theoretical framework. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 19(1), 3-15. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-4319(99)00035-3.*

In his most recent work, Lashley (2017) resumed, from a compilation of others researchers of different study fields (Heal, 1984; Nouwen, 1998; Telfer, 2004 and O’Gorman, 2007), a set of six host motivations for offering hospitality to guests. He called this a “continuum of hospitality” (Lashley, 2017, p. 4), where the extremes are represented by ulterior hospitality, whereby the host ultimately expect gains, and benefits from guests’ favorable impression of his/her services such as accommodation, food, and drink, and altruistic hospitality, whereby hospitality is an act of genuine generosity, benevolence, and willingness to please the guest not expecting anything in return. Towards continuum center, there is containing hospitality – motivation comes from a sense of close monitoring of a stranger or enemy. Next one from the latter is redistributive hospitality – an individual that have more share who have less expecting no payment, return or reciprocity, but host status is a result of your sharing action. The two center levels of this representation are commercial and reciprocal hospitalities. The first implicates a mandatory financial transaction in exchange for hosting, considering possible both entrepreneurial and hospitable actions, and the latter “involves hospitality being offered within a context whereby hosts become guests and guests become hosts, at different times” (Lashley, 2017, p. 5).

Online hospitality is located between commercial and reciprocal purposes / motivations as shown on figure 2, and it takes place in an online commercial setting.

Figure 2 – A continuum of hospitality



Reference: *Adapted from Lashley, C. (ed) (2017). Routledge Handbook of Hospitality Studies. Abingdon: Routledge, 220-232. ISBN: 978-1-13893-112-1.*

The Internet has enabled the emergence of new business models and consumption's forms in all areas, including hospitality, whose benefits are strongly focused on the consumer, and the relationship between individuals. Collaborative consumption, Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange are one of the most notable results of it, and it can be related to private/domestic and commercial domains, as well as commercial and reciprocal motivations for hosting.

Belk (2014, p. 1597) brings a collaborative consumption definition that interrelates sense of private and commercial, which is "people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation". This access to a resource is not altruistic as sharing but could be featured by economic exchange and reciprocity (Belk, 2010).

Airbnb provides an online setting in which individuals can engage in private interactions/communications to offer their home or homeroom to others at a cost. Interaction and communication starts presenting personal profiles where host and guest can minutely introduce themselves, who they are, lifestyle values, as well as offer their home/room/neighborhood information, its payment and domestic usufruct rules, in addition to being able to access third parties' perception about all of these aspects, and your past behavior as host and guest.

Couchsurfing and Homeexchange have also similar procedures, except payment to get accommodation. Instead, consumer has to pay a fee to be able to present a personal profile and the accommodation to exchange (Home Exchange), or in order to have a verified profile, which means a more safe interaction which could lead to more accommodation acceptance, consumer also has to pay a fee to get it (Couchsurfing). The cost approach of these two collaborative platforms is at saving expenses if it is compared to traditional hospitality service. Besides these differences, the three collaborative platforms provide an online space for private and detail interactions/communications between peers.

Reflecting about collaborative economy and tourism, Dredge and Gyimóthy (2015) emphasizes individual protagonism, and argue that feedbacking tools, such as evaluation comments, and performance rating could lead to trustful and authentic peer-to-peer relations.

We consider that hospitable roles and actions on a collaborative platform are performed online mainly before and during accommodation. An array of communication forms of interactions on Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange, and also, once the transaction is done, on others social media such as Whatsapp, Instagram, and Facebook will be engaged by peers. This online communication engagement is an essential part of the experience, and where hospitable actions should be performed.

For Yannopoulo, Moufahim and Bian (2013), digital transparent offers and comparability prices opportunities benefit consumers and can provide genuine cross-cultural encounters in return. In this paper, we consider host and guest as "consumers", then both benefits from the exchange of information.

Thus, we present the first theoretical proposition: online hospitality is essentially a peer-to-peer interaction, which hospitable actions are considered as exchange of true private information between peers taken place on (and are adapted to) online platforms, mainly before and during accommodation, driven by reciprocal and commercial motivations, in order to provide safety, and authenticity's sense of the experience.

This exchange of information comes from online interactions, and, assuming that those interactions or hospitableness roles and actions performances take place on online media platforms, we consider it as a communicational form of engagement and will present the collaborative paradigm of online communication concept next, relating it to hospitality and online peer-to-peer interaction on collaborative consumption.

The collaborative paradigm of online communication

In order to explain that online communication needed to be placed between some basic ideas of communication and, at the same point, to an unexplored kind of it, Gulbrandsen and Just (2011) presented a processual and collaborative approach.

To place their theoretical approach, Gulbrandsen and Just (2011) cited Scolari (2009) online communication continuity-discontinuity axis. At one end of the axis, studies that understand online communication as another normal form of communication are founded. At the other extreme, those who consider it as a new communicative paradigm, and for which new theories and analytical tools must be developed (Scolari, 2009).

The continuity approach applies traditional communication theory to online interaction, such as rhetorical theory, which considers online communication as a form to straightly persuade an audience with classical forms of appeals, like in online debates, and mailing list in political communication (Marshall, 2004; Scolari, 2009). At the discontinuity axis, there is, for example, computer-mediated discourse analysis that, even pointing the need of new methods to understand online communication, the major focus is only on text interactions (Herring, 2004). This axis is

represented by studies that usually take existing theories and try to fit them on new practices of online communication (Gimmler, 2001; Dean, 2003).

Trying to be away from opposing axes views, Gulbrandsen and Just (2011, p. 1096) argue that the field of online communication needs to reconnect with some basic ideas of communication, and, at the same time, discontinue other modes of thinking. Therefore, they define that online communication is processual and collaborative. The processual approach – a movement from sender to receiver – is familiar with old communication school. However, the latter is the newest element presented by the authors. First, they described key online communication distinct features: negotiable and uncontrolled, time-space free, hypertextual, hyper-public, and two-way mass communication.

We consider that those features could be placed to explain collaborative platforms interactions / hospitableness roles and actions performances as a communication form of engagement.

The first feature relies on easy access that internet users have to use and produce content communication. There is no more control over the receiving information moment. It can be stored, deleted, replicated, and edited. It is an "in-the-making" process (Harrison & Barthel, 2009; Gulbrandsen & Just, 2011). As far as negotiable and uncontrolled, individuals interested in collaborative platforms offerings, such as hosts or guests, should freely fill in a personal profile describing who they are, where are they from, values, lifestyle, what they are offering, at what cost or compensation. Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange platforms constantly encourage, and negotiate with their consumers to store, edit information in order to present the most detailed profile possible, by both sides. Also, the use of the evaluation tools to provide information about the latest hosting and guest experience, including interaction between individuals involved. Peers involved do not have control over the information produced and publish about each other.

Second, online communication can be performed anytime, anywhere, not depending nor defined by offline time and space. Therefore, it is not the traditional linear sequence of communication, but a permanent state of information exchange (McKenna & Bragh, 2000; Gulbrandsen & Just, 2011). Time-space free is inherent to internet interactions and communication. People all over can access collaborative platforms at any time. One of the valuable criteria for online communication in it is, for example, time response rate. Quick and detailed answers are expected from both parties. Fast response could be perceived as a care about each other behavior.

The third is characterized by the convergence of multimedia content, such as graphics, photos, audio, and video that is exchanged between individuals. It is a hypertext mode that encourages active communication consumption (Hoffman & Novack, 1996). Hypertextual characteristic is also one of most distinguished of online communication. It is multimedia. It is not anymore only text or face-to-face communication. Online face-to-face or eface-to-face interactions mean the presentation of information by a set of media. At Airbnb, Couchsurfing and Homeexchange, individuals can access text about and images of themselves, and homes. The possibility of information exchange by other media, beside text and image, is vast such as audio, video through, for example, WhatsApp, Youtube and Instagram.

The hyper-public characteristic stands for more people having faster access to more communication produced by various sources, extending it to the public sphere, facilitating free public debates participation (Gerhards & Schafer, 2010; Scammel, 2009). We consider part of hyper-public characteristic suitable to collaborative platforms' interaction, as far as more people having faster access to more content produced by others, however, the public element is constrained mostly to who have a profile. To be able to fully interact, and exchange information, individuals must sign in the platforms. It is usual to perceive newcomers with little profile information about themselves, as well as null collaborative consumption experience.

The two-way mass communication is when one interacts directly with few, and indirectly with many (Napoli, 2010). Gulbrandsen and Just (2011) argue that two-way mass communication is one of the most important online communication features. Once a person signs in a collaborative platform, fill in its profile, get deals done, and have interaction and hosting experience, almost every step of it is registered on evaluation comments by both host and guest. One whole interacting and hosting experience once posted/registered, along with profile information, others could easily access it, and could be replicated to many out of it.

The collaborative aspect of Gulbrandsen and Just (2011) addresses a limited view of the communicative process as an individual transmission act, a one-way sender-receiver movement. They consider that actual social interaction is not constituted of individuals actions between specific and fixed individuals but as a sum of interrelations between many in a permanent flow of information exchange (Abbott, 2001).

Presenting collaboration as an explanatory concept, the interaction meaning is viewed as a co-created experience, and do not lie with the individual, but are shared and changeable, and rely on communicative processes for their existence (Gulbrandsen & Just, 2011, p. 1103). This should be viewed and explained, therefore, as a collective, open-ended process (Engeli, 2000; Deuze, 2006). Individuals who engage in tourism collaborative consumption are responsible to generate value as protagonists, actively participating in it (Forno & Garibaldi, 2015).

Online hospitality actions and roles' meaning, therefore, is co-created and perceived by individual's interactions on collaborative platforms. Information are provided, accessed, exchanged and made sense by multiple parts.

Thus, we present the second theoretical preposition: online hospitality is a multimedia online communicational form of engagement where hospitableness roles and actions are performed by peers in a permanent flow of information exchange, based on collaboration, understood as a co-created, collective, and open-ended process.

How peers could perceive online hospitable actions and its implications on authentic and meaningful interaction experiences will be addressed next.

Peer-to-Peer satisfying and authentic collaborative interaction

Engaging in collaborative consumption means, essentially, to part away from the standard and traditional organization-consumer approach. Basically it was made possible and driven by the Internet, through collaborative platforms, peer-to-peer collaborative consumption interaction's experience is expected to be more than satisfying, but also authentic and meaningful. On online hospitality, economic elements, authenticity's constructivist perspective, and online social bonds development are the core parts of consumer overall perceived meaningfulness' experience.

When Belk (2014) argue that collaborative consumption is organized by individuals who exchange and distribute resources for a fee or other compensation, it is important to reflect on, not only a possible mandatory monetary value (Airbnb reservation cost, Couchsurfing profile verification's and Homeexchange profile subscription's fees), but also how compensation could be broadly perceived, and described, which it will materialize this new approach of consumption experience. We even could slightly adapt Belk's (2014) concept considering that the collaborative transaction is organized by peers, and majorly involves a monetary element, with perceived economic saving, plus (not "or") other compensations, and state these as inherent and intertwined elements of collaborative consumption.

Even with some noticeable research emphasis on other aspects of collaborative consumption (Molz, 2014; Humari, Sjuklint & Ukkonen, 2015; Cheng & Jin, 2019), the economic aspect of it seems to be as much relevant. In collaborative platforms, we consider it part of the overall

consumer's hospitality online experience perception and could be involved as a literally worth spent/earn money or cost saving sense/perceptions.

Low cost – from the guest perspective – and earning income – from the host perspective – are viewed as collaborative consumption drivers, and peer-to-peer accommodation advantages (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Kohda & Matsuda, 2013; Guttentag, 2015; Tussyadiah, 2015; Lampien & Chesire, 2016; Pesonen & Tussyadiah, 2017). At first, the global crisis in 2008 had boosted and changed consumer's values regarding spending habits (Gansky, 2010), and along with it, information technology innovations made possible more convenient forms of exchange and collaboration between individuals by decreasing costs (Grit & Lynch, 2011; Mosedale, 2012).

When engaging in online hospitality, individuals are also looking for financial advantages. On Airbnb, home profiles are shown with overnight stay cost. Hosts have to pay a platform service tax. In Homeexchange, a fee payment is mandatory to have and access profile. Couchsurfers also have to pay a fee to get their profile verified. Satisfaction in financial advantages, therefore, comes from perceived true online interaction and exchange of information before accommodation relating perceived price fairness/income gain/saving cost benefits to what is offered, who is offering, and who is willing to take the offer. It is, therefore, a combination of monetary and non-monetary elements. Authenticity is one of the non-monetary elements perceived.

Online hospitality, as posted previously, is a communication form of engagement, performed by hospitable actions between individuals in collaborative platforms. It is a multimedia communication experience. Authenticity, thus, comes from the online interaction experience's perception. According to Wang (1999), there are three types of authenticity approach in tourism experience: objectivist, constructivist/symbolic, and existential. We consider authenticity on online hospitality as a social construction process.

By constructive authenticity, it is meant the result of social construction, not an objectively measurable quality of what is being visited. Things appear authentic not because they are inherently authentic but because they are constructed as such in terms of points of view, beliefs, perspectives, or powers. (Wang, 1999, p.351)

Following Wang's idea, for Cohen (1988) and Salamone (1997), authenticity is relative, negotiable, and context-determined. Literature discussion on this matter is mainly related to offline, and on-site experiences. Collaborative consumption interactions take place also in online platforms. Online hospitality experience is a previous phase to the accommodation itself.

Collaborative consumers will engage on online interaction and perceive it as authentic when they perceive proximity between what's published online and what it is in reality. Also, the interpretation of what could be a real offline hosting experience. Airbnb, Couchsurfing, and Homeexchange provide tools to build up this social construction approach. Individuals profile with personal, and value details, accommodation's description and images, third parties' late experience objective and subjective evaluations, and also eFace-to-face communication are valid examples of it. Authenticity, therefore, is an interpretation of the online interaction between peers, corroborating with Wang (1999) argument that it is a result of how individuals see things, from your own perspective and interpretation.

Another relevant non-monetary element is the social connections perspective. According to Forno and Garibaldi (2015), collaborative consumption provides a high-level personalization's experience. Peer-to-peer interactions' experience and its implications permit participants to build and maintain social connections with each other (Tussyadiah, 2015). By making possible digital connections between tourists, information and communication technologies such as online platforms, facilitate the development of a relationship of mutual trust among strangers (Mosedale, 2012). As pointed out before, collaborative consumers can evaluate each other, as well as establish

previous and latter social connections, making it a relevant incentive to deliver a good overall experience in order to build online and offline trustworthiness and reputation (Botsman & Rogers, 2011; Tussyadiah, 2015).

Thus, we present the third theoretical preposition: online hospitality is perceived as a satisfying, and authentic through previous perceived monetary benefits, socially constructed interactions, and online social connections development.

Discussion

This paper is the first to present the collaborative perspective online communication approach to explaining hospitable roles and action between peers at collaborative platforms. As pointed before, this is an original contribution to the hospitality literature, since it focuses on peer to peer interaction in the online environment and also when considers the possibility of performance and perception of online hospitable actions of both parties before and during accommodation. Most importantly and distinguished, the collaborative paradigm of online communication is a theory that brings a new perspective to hospitality, and it is directly related to how people mainly interact nowadays. It fits perfectly to understand hospitable actions/performance taken place on the online environment, and, specifically, on hospitality collaborative platforms. Hospitality, hospitable actions and interactions at a collaborative online environment should be viewed as forms of multimedia communication between individuals.

By interweaving hospitality, collaborative consumption, collaborative online communication theoretical constructs, we have proposed online hospitality concept – a collaborative communication form of engagement between peers - host and guest - taken on a collaborative platform, mainly before and during accommodation, where truthful, and genuine information about who, what, where, and for how much are provided and exchanged by both through multimedia to make them perceive and feel a safe, satisfying, and authentic online host and hosting experience. – answering questions such as how do consumers make sense of hospitality in the collaborative environment when they are interacting online, and how and when do they engage on and perceive hospitable actions through communication and its implications on their experience.

Three theoretical prepositions were presented to respond those questions: (i) online hospitality is essentially a peer-to-peer interaction, which hospitable actions are considered as exchange of true private information between peers taken place on (and are adapted to) online platforms, mainly before and during accommodation, driven by reciprocal and commercial motivations, in order to provide safety, and authenticity's sense of the experience; (ii) online hospitality is a multimedia online communicational form of engagement where hospitableness roles and actions are performed by peers in a permanent flow of information exchange, based on collaboration, understood as a co-created, collective, and open-ended process; (iii) online hospitality is perceived as a satisfying, and authentic through previous perceived monetary benefits, socially constructed interactions, and online social connections development.

This theoretical work opens up empirical venues for future research, which must first focus on providing empirical evidence of online hospitality concept by inquiring Airbnb, Couchsurf and Home Exchange consumers on their hosting and host experience's perceptions. Besides online interviews, methodologically speaking, online approaches such as sentiment analysis, data mining from profile descriptions and consumers' evaluations are recommended. Furthermore, it is important to understand what is the effect of multimedia online communication on perceived hospitable actions before and during accommodation and social connections development, and in what way media such as Skype, Whatsapp, and Instagram are used to communicate, and provide truthful, genuine information. Finally, we propose further investigation of the role of authenticity in consumers' perceptions authenticity in online collaborative platforms.

It is also possible to reflect on practical implications to the hospitality industry from this theoretical proposal. The online hospitality approach is about individual interaction's perceived meaningful experience through multimedia communication and has the potential to bring the effects of the new business models on to the traditional ones. Traditional hospitality organizations, despite the valid collaborative platforms professionalization recent process argument, must plan and design their interaction and communication strategies to an increasingly particular and individualized level as far as "perceived person" organization. Also, more than accommodating in "old" online travel agencies and their booking and peer review mechanisms, such as Booking.com, Hotels.com, Tripadvisor, they have to open their own multi-communication channels to provide and develop a permanent, collective, co-created, open-ended and transparent interaction.

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A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF FAILED SERVICE RECOVERY ANTECEDENTS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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Abstract

Understanding the factors lead to failure of service recovery will provide ideas on enhancing existing service recovery strategies and develop preventive actions to maximize the success rate of service recovery actions to be taken. The purpose of this paper is to identify and discuss the possible antecedents of failed service recovery antecedents based on several theories. An extensive and rigorous literature review helps in the development of a conceptual framework for antecedents of failed service recovery in the hospitality industry. This framework offers a fundamental concept for empirical investigation that will further generate evidence to support this framework.

Keywords: Failed service recovery, hospitality, antecedents, service recovery process

Introduction

Service failures still could occur during the service recovery process due to many factors, which have been neglected in existing studies. Investigation on failed service recovery could help companies and employees to manage resources such as time, money and manpower more effectively in carrying out recovery actions to prevent double deviation, which might lead to greater customer frustration, tendency towards brand switching and negative word-of-mouth. Double deviation refers to failure occurrence in the first attempt of service recovery (Johnston and Fern, 1999). In fact, according to Loo and colleagues (2013) in their study about restaurant customer online complaint, in every six cases of service failure, one case of double deviation was found. Based on a rigorous review of existing literature and articles on service recovery, the majority of studies focus on and emphasize the impacts or effective service recovery strategies. Past studies and research have examined service recovery performance and impacts on employees and customers (see Guchait, Lee, Wang, & Abbott, 2016; Swanson & Hsu, 2011; Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2010). Meanwhile, recovery studies on employees emphasize their job satisfaction and intention to leave (Ardahan, 2007; Karatepe, 2006).

The reasons of failure of service recovery are critical for continuous improvement of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. Investigation of failed service recovery can be recognized as another way to maximize the effectiveness of service recovery by preventing those elements that could lead to a failure of service recovery. When no action is taken, this is also considered as failed recovery. One study points out companies did not respond to customers who encountered service failures lose about half of those customers (Hoffman et al., 2016). In this paper a framework is proposed in which failed service recovery antecedents cover expected service recovery from both customers and employees, followed by implementation of service recovery strategies or without any recovery actions. When customers experience dissatisfaction toward recovery actions taken or

dissatisfaction due to no recovery actions taken this is called failed service recovery. There are four main dimensions contributing to failed service recovery happening: (a) customer, (b) employee, (c) company, and (d) other elements. The proposed framework is depicted in Figure 1.

Theoretical Framework

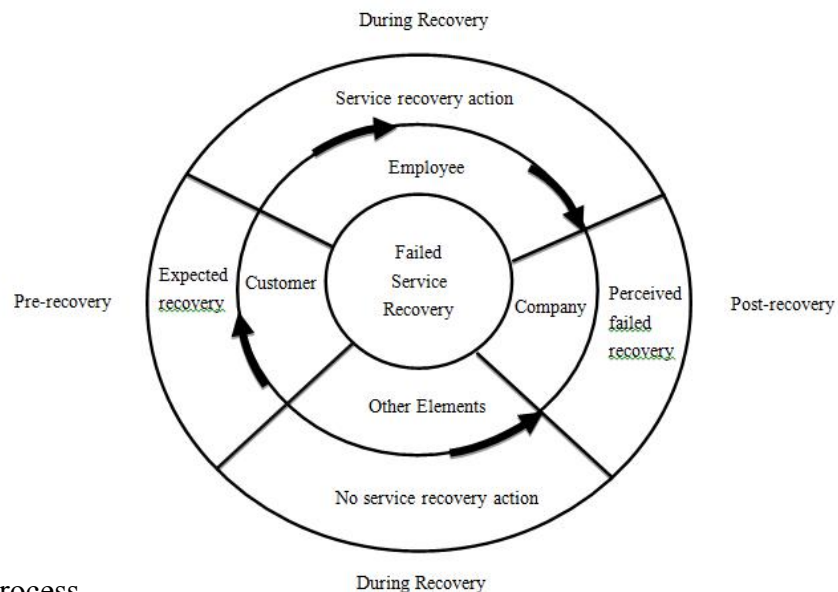
(I) Pre-recovery

When service failure happens, immediately customers will expect that employees or the company should do something to recover from the mistake/s. Customer expectations can vary according to their perceived service quality, severity of service failure, customer loyalty and service guarantee (Miller et al., 2000).

Expected service recovery

In fact, hospitality companies can communicate service recovery expectations and this has some influence on the degree of customer expectations with respect to actual delivery if mistakes happened during service delivery. When customers experience a good recovery, they tend to perceive better and this increases the likelihood of future re-patronage intentions (DeWitt et al., 2008) and such customers are more likely to remain loyal (Smith and Bolton, 1998). Customer service recovery expectations can also be formed by the socially desired and accepted action, such as when a person makes mistakes, this person is expected to apologize and make up for the mistakes.

Figure 1: A Proposed Framework of Failed Service Recovery



(II) Recovery process

Employees aware of service failure (with and without recovery actions)

Service recovery can only take place if the employees are aware of service failure occurrences. Employees will be aware of service failure either by observing it happening or by being informed by customers about the mistakes that have happened. When employees being aware of failure that

has happened, they can either take recovery actions accordingly or continue without taking any recovery actions. In this study, if employees do not take any recovery actions, this can be still considered as a failed service recovery. After employees have taken recovery actions, there could be four different dimensions that contribute to failed recovery.

Four dimensions contribute to failed recovery actions

By reviewing the literature on service recovery and other relevant topics such as service failure and service quality, four dimensions have been identified as possible dimensions that contribute to failed service recovery actions namely, customer, employee, company and other elements (such as busyness and severity of service failure). In the service environment settings, these are the possible four dimensions lead to failed service recovery.

Customer

(A) Attribution theory

During the service recovery process, failed service recovery could happen when customers attribute the mistakes differently to the way in which the employee perceives on attribution. The customer makes judgment about the cause and effect relationships that affect his or her emotions, behaviors and attitudes based on three dimensions of causal attributions, including locus (who is responsible for the service failure that has happened?), control (did the responsible party, company or employee have control over the cause?), and stability (is the failure incident likely to recur?) (Bitner et al., 1990). Customers might perceive that when service failure occurs, they will think about whether employees could and should have done something more to recover from the mistakes and employees should be concerned about how customers would have felt when the recovery action is taken (McCull-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003).

(B) Jaycustomer

A jaycustomer is defined as a person who acts in thoughtless or abusive ways by causing problems that affect other customers, the company and employees (Wirtz, Chew, and Lovelock, 2012). The unreasonable manners of jaycustomers could lead to failed service recovery even though employees have taken appropriate recovery actions accordingly. Hence, in a service recovery context, the jaycustomer is termed as an opportunist who “may not be a chronic gold digger, but rather just someone who recognizes an opportunity to take financial advantage of a company’s service failure and recovery efforts” (Berry and Seiders, 2008, p.34). When a hotel or restaurant faces this opportunist type of customer, even with right recovery actions taken, the customer might still considered this as a failed service recovery.

(C) Evaluation of service recovery

Hoffman and Kelley (2000), propose that customer evaluation of recovery action can be explained with equity theory. They explain that exchange takes place as customers weigh the inputs (costs associated to serviced failure) against the outputs (the service recovery actions taken). The process of evaluation of service recovery is incorporated with the perceived justice component in which customers would evaluate whether the recovery action offered is fair or not. According to Siu and his colleagues (2013), the three dimensional Justice Theory is counted for more than 60% of service recovery evaluations. When service failures occur, customers evaluate failures as they value loss and will seek fairness in treatment for their loss. Even though employees might perceive that they have already taken appropriate recovery actions, if customers are still dissatisfied, it is still evaluated as a failed service recovery.

Employee

(A) The role of stress

Employees play boundary-spanning roles that function as links between the environment and the organization (Aldrich and Herker, 1977). In these “sandwich roles”, employees might encounter some role conflicts in the process of implementing recovery strategies (Wirtz et al., 2012). During recovery encounters, service employees could be struggling to make ideal recovery decisions, which can satisfy customers’ demands and also not cause the company to make any losses, or take any actions according to customers’ demands but are against company rules or policies.

(B) Personality traits

The personality traits of hospitality employees - specifically intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy are relevant to them (Yavas et al., 2010). Intrinsic motivation elicits service employees feel that they are being challenged or their competency at performing their job is being questioned (Keaveney, 1992). When employees have low intrinsic motivation, they might face greater stress and difficulties in responding to service failures and this could lead to failure of service recovery if they have low intrinsic motivation in facing continuous service failures on the job. Furthermore, previous research reports that employees in hospitality industry who have a high self-efficacy level are able to perform their job at elevated level, and also vice versa (Karatepe, 2006).

Company

(A) Service recovery policies and procedures

Johnston and Michel (2008) reveal that service recovery procedures have a substantial impact on employees and process improvements compared to the impacts on customers. The definitions and functions of service guarantee were explored with the characteristics of attribution theory (Callan and Moore, 1998). When companies are not ready to implement unconditional hundred percent guarantees, this could mean disaster for companies and employees (Evans et al., 1996). Different approaches and strategies are required to ensure the success of service guarantee implementation or else this will tend to lead to failed service recovery.

(B) Empowerment

Service employees, due to their boundary spanning roles, are expected to provide prompt, appropriate service and recovery actions to dissatisfied customers (Boshoff and Allen, 2000). Hence, employees should be given some authority and control in decision making; training is needed as well to offer them the perspective of service recovery requires and companies can help to empower employees to take action independently (Hart et al., 1990). Inadequate response by service employees in delivering service recovery could be due to many reasons - one of the critical reasons is the lack of empowerment (Hocutt and Stone, 1998), which could cause failure of service recovery.

Other elements

(A) Severity of service failure

A customer’s perceived intensity of a service problem is called service failure severity and it is associated with perceived loss (Weun et al., 2004). The greater the severity of service failure, the higher the degree of customer’s perceived loss. Weun and his colleagues (2004) argue that, in spite of adequate service recovery process, a severe service failure causes a perceived loss even after

appropriate recovery actions have been executed. If employees have not encountered or been trained to take prompt and good service recovery actions, the chances of failed service recovery is even greater.

(B) Busyness

Busyness in the hospitality industry is critical in affecting the service employees' service delivery performance. Both hotels or restaurants, do have peak and low hours of operations, and busy hours as well as when there is a lack of manpower, this could be a catastrophe to service employees and companies as the situation is challenging to handle. Indeed, a busy situation is harder to handle as employees tend not to spend a long time at the table to explain in detail when needed (Wang and Mattila, 2010). It is undeniable that during busy situations, failed service recovery could be unavoidable.

(III) Post-recovery

Perceived failed recovery

Together with the first two stages, expected service recovery and during service recovery (with or without recovery actions taken) will form the third stage of customer perceived failed recovery. Failed service recovery could happen due to many reasons and factors as discussed above from four different aspects: customer, employee, company and other elements. The perceived failed recovery can be viewed from both customer and employee perspectives as they may have different perceptions toward failed service recovery. Both parties' perceptions are critical as their interactions, feelings and thoughts influence each other while also influencing the final outcomes of their behavioral intentions.

Conclusion

This paper proposes a theoretical framework will contribute to future studies to further investigate and validate the elements of failed service recovery with qualitative or mixed methodology. There could be other possible important elements to be included later in this framework with empirical studies later. In doing so, one important step is to first conduct a qualitative study with critical incident technique or focus group interviews to identify themes of antecedents. Examples of interview questions that can be asked are: 'What are the reasons of failed service recovery?' and 'What was the process of failed service recovery?' The interview participants can be both customers and employees. The second step is followed by a quantitative study to verify and confirm the identified themes in the theoretical framework. This framework can be used by hospitality management companies and managers to have a better picture about the failed service recovery incidents, which can be a good source of improving the existing service recovery training materials and service recovery policies. Employees can learn from failures and try to prevent or minimize the occurrence of failed service recovery, where the ultimate goal is to maximize customer satisfaction of their service experiences and employee job satisfaction at work.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF A MULTISENSORY APPROACH TO RESPONSIBLE
MANAGEMENT IN COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM: THE CASE OF YIM TIN TSAI
VILLAGE IN HONG KONG

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Abstract

This study explores a holistic approach to sensory stimuli based on endogenous resources as a contribution to responsible management in community-based tourism. A case study focused on Yim Tin Tsai (Hong Kong), which represents a local community with salt pans, was explored. After the village became deserted due to villagers' migration, community involvement allowed the salt fields being resurrected and earning a UNESCO distinction. This process increased the interest of visitors in experiencing the cultural, religious, and nature-based assets of the island. Results from the first stage of the research focusing on the visitors' multisensory-informed experiences in the village are presented.

Keywords: community-based tourism; multisensory stimuli; multisensory tourist experience; responsible destination management; sustainable tourism; Yim Tin Tsai

Introduction

Literature stresses that one of the aims of responsible tourism management should be to promote the sustainable use of local resources by ensuring its use and enjoyment of present and future generations (Frey and George, 2010). Additionally, community based tourism has been advocated as one approach to catering for a more sustainable tourism industry (Blackstock, 2005). Recent tourism research has been discussing the managerial implications of a holistic approach to sensory stimuli based on endogenous resources to conceptualise and communicate unique multi-sensory destination experiences by involving different stakeholders in a responsible manner (Agapito et al., 2014; 2016a, 2016b; Kastenholz et al., 2012a).

The present research focuses on a case study in Hong Kong to reflect how a holistic approach to sensory stimuli based on endogenous resources can contribute to responsible management in the context of community-based tourism projects. Yim Tin Tsai, which represents a local community with salt pans, is a small offshore island in Sai Kung. This village was established by the Hakka Chan clan and the main economic activity was salt production in the past. Notwithstanding, after the villagers have migrated to urban areas and overseas, the village became deserted. Recently, due to community involvement, the salt fields were resurrected and the project earned a UNESCO distinction for conserving this industrial heritage landscape and education resource. This process has increased the interest of individuals to visit the island to experience the cultural, religious, and nature-based assets of the village (Sai Kung District Council, 2011, Su, 2018; Wan, 2004).

This study represents the first stage of a larger study in the context of a community-based tourism project in Yim Tin Tsai. Multisensory-informed experiences reported by visitors in the village will be analysed and preliminary insights on opportunities of a multisensory approach to responsible management in the context of community-based tourism projects will be provided.

Theoretical Background

Community involvement in tourism

A responsible tourism approach is based on providing better experiences for visitors and beneficial business opportunities for locals and better quality of life through increased socio-economic benefits and improved natural resource management (Spenceley et al., 2002). According to Frey and George (2010), this approach should focus on: a) competitive advantage; b) assess, monitor and reveal impacts of tourism development; c) ensure involvement of communities and the establishment of relevant economic linkages; d) encourage natural, economic, social and cultural diversity and; e) promote the sustainable use of local resources by ensuring its use and enjoyment of present and future generations.

While community based projects can encompass different forms of community participation, from spontaneous to coercive, “community participation is a desired objective in the tourism development process” (Tosun, 1999, 115). Indeed, the underlying concept is in line with a responsible management approach (Frey and George, 2010; Spenceley et al., 2002) as this focuses on the involvement of the host community in the process of planning and maintaining tourism development in order to create a more sustainable industry (Blackstock, 2005). Moreover, the rationale goes beyond the idea of a supportive community, as tourism industry relies on locals’ involvement considering their role as employees, local entrepreneurs, and the impact of their attitude towards tourism (Blackstock, 2005, Kastenholz et al., 2012a).

Projects involving community participation imply a form of voluntary action in which individuals confront opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship (Tosun, 2000). This approach is based on an “educational and empowering process in which people, in partnership with those able to assist them, identify problems and needs and increasingly assume responsibility themselves to plan, manage, control and assess the collective actions that are proved necessary” (Askew, 1989, 186). Hence, host communities are empowered in shaping their future community and maximising socio-economic benefits of tourism for the community (Inskeep, 1991; Tosun, 2000). Accordingly, community involvement has become an ideology of tourism planning (Prentice, 1993). Therefore, a participatory approach in tourism development could contribute to operationalising the principles of sustainable tourism by generating opportunities for locals to gain larger and more balanced benefits from tourism (Tosun, 2006).

In this context, the process of working cooperatively with others on matters of mutual concern implies a mobilisation of endogenous resources (Til, 1984). Despite the barriers highlighted by several authors, others consider that the community-based approach is the best alternative to achieve sustainable tourism development (Okazaki, 2008). This idea is based on the fact that: a) local issues have a direct impact on the tourist experience; b) local community - local people and local resources - are part of the destination image; c) public involvement is a driving force to protect community’s natural environment and culture as tourism products, while encouraging greater tourism-related income; and d) “tourism-related projects should be connected to the overall socioeconomic development of the community to increase the feasibility and longevity of projects” (Okazaki, 2008, 512).

Frequently, community based projects are developed in countryside areas, which are rich in endogenous resources (Kastenholz et al., 2012b; Sebele, 2010). The countryside capital can be natural (e.g. wildlife populations) built (e.g. rural settlements.), or social related (e.g. cultural

traditions). Typically, countryside capital assets represent an amalgam of these three main types of resources (Garrod, et al., 2006) and tourists both receive satisfaction from countryside experiences and impact on the countryside capital (Garrod, 2006; Kastenholz et al., 2012a).

Sensory stimuli and responsible management in community based tourism

The role of the sensory dimension of tourist experiences has been stressed in current tourism research, supported by a multidisciplinary view on the role of the five external senses (vision, hearing, smell, touch, and taste) in human perception, memory, and behaviour (Agapito et al., 2013). Hence, a marketing management approach highlights the importance of considering multi-sensory information in the process of facilitating positive, satisfying, and memorable tourist experiences (Agapito et al., 2014; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2010; Mossberg, 2007). Accordingly, tourism studies have recognised that destination experiences may be associated with different bundles of sensory impressions related to unique resources that can be explored as themes in responsibly marketing tourist experiences (Agapito et al., 2014; Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2003; Kastenholz et al., 2012b). This line of research offers relevant managerial implications by proposing a holistic approach to sensory stimuli based on endogenous resources, which contributes to conceptualising and communicating unique multi-sensory tourist experiences involving and benefiting all destination stakeholders (Agapito et al., 2014, 2016a, 2016b).

Specifically, destinations located in the countryside are characterised by a rich and vulnerable collection of endogenous resources, such as nature-based and cultural assets, which can be analysed with the aim of designing unique multi-sensory tourist experiences (Agapito et al., 2016a, 2016b). In fact, while tourists increasingly demand for unique experiences, local destinations are called for innovative offerings and communication strategies addressed at consumers who fit the identity of the destination and contribute to sustainable local development (Kastenholz et al. 2012b; Lane, 2009). The efforts in matching sensory experience-based tourists' profiles to destinations encourage the integration of the local community and the optimal use of local resources in the planning of the overall destination experience, benefiting the stakeholders involved and tourism projects sustainability (Agapito et al., 2016b). This idea in line with strategies related to community-based tourism that, if properly managed, can stimulate the preservation of endogenous resources and increase local benefits through participation in tourism activities while enhancing the value of the tourist experience (Saxena et al., 2007; Sebele, 2010).

Methodology

To carry out this study, a case study approach was followed based on a single case (Yin, 2004). According to Stake (1995), data were aggregated by using both secondary and primary data to describe the case under study. Regarding secondary sources, brochures, web pages, news, and official documents were consulted. In terms of primary data, a self-questionnaire was administered to a group of 27 postgraduate students and tutors visiting Yim Tin Tsai in mid-May 2018 as the first stage of a larger study in the village. The questionnaire included five open-ended questions (Agapito et al., 2014) based on direct elicitation (Gretzel and Fesenmaier, 2010) in order to capture the five sensory modalities regarding the visitors' experience, and one open-ended question to assess perceived emotions.

In order to extract sensory categories, the automatic option for a word count of NiVivo was used, followed by a manual process of aggregating words or expressions that were related to a meaningful sensory impression, having as a reference the external five human senses and existing literature (Agapito et al., 2014).. The content analysis was first conducted by the main researcher and further verified by a second researcher. The reported sensory-based words or expressions were

amalgamated into meaningful sensory categories. The sensory categories (sensory impressions) obtaining at least 10% of respondents' references were retained for further analysis.

Findings and Discussion

The case of Yim Tin Tsai: community involvement in tourism, local resources, and stakeholders

Located on a small offshore island in Sai Kung near Kau Sai Chau (Hong Kong), Yim Tin Tsai is a traditional Hakka village of the Chan's clan which has existed for more than 300 years. Yim Tin Tsai is different from a traditional Chinese-style village. This village is a Catholic community and 'Yim Tin' means salt-pan. In the early years, villagers of the island lived on farming and salt-making. In the 1920s, there were nearly 300 residents on the island. Because of the adverse situation of rural life in recent decades, all villagers have migrated to urban areas and overseas countries for living. While the village was abandoned in the 1990s, some members of Chan's clan, who share the same cultural identity, grouped together and contributed to the rejuvenation of their ancestral village. Recently, with its increasing popularity, Yim Tin Tsai has become a tourism destination. Since 2013, the number of visitor arrivals on the island has reached about 25,000 to 30,000 per year, and the figure peaked at 37,000 visitors in 2016 when the historic salt pans were listed in the 2015 Asia-Pacific Heritage Awards by UNESCO (Figure 1). Following these efforts, the salt production unit is now pending for government approval for public sale. This indicates an increased effort in community participation in the context of tourism development process (Sai Kung District Council, 2011; Su, 2018; Wan, 2004).





Figure 1
Salt pans in Yim Tin Tsai - The guided tours shows visitors the salt pans and salt production

The stakeholders involved in the cultural heritage tourism in Yim Tin Tsai include the design and management parties, visitors, tourism resources and villagers. The Joint committee of Development of St. Joseph's the Great Chapel of Sacred Heart Parish (Joint committee) is the design and management party. The members of the Joint committee include representatives from the Catholic Diocese of Hong Kong, Sacred Heart Church, Sai Kung, Salt and Light Preservation Centre, and the Yim Tin Tsai Village Committee. Most of the representatives are also members of Chan's clan. Villagers living overseas will come back to the island once a year to participate in the annual meeting to discuss development matters in Yim Tin Tsai.

Sensory-informed tourist experiences in the village

Of the total of visitors in the village who participated in the questionnaire, 59.3% are females and 41.7% are males. The sample includes 44% of respondents from Hong Kong, 30% from Mainland China, 11% from Macau, 7% from the UK, 4% from Canada, and 4% from Vietnam. The average of ages is 29.7 years old, with a standard deviation of 12.609 (minimum: 18 years old; maximum: 72 years old).

Table
Sensory impressions reported by visitors (% of respondents reporting each impression)

Sight	Hearing	Taste	Smell	Touch
Salt	Birdsong	Salt	Flowers/plants	Salt
Sea	People	Roast chicken	Sea	Heat
Church	Boat	Vegetables	Local Gastronomy	Wood

Green	19%	Waves	22%	Local gastronomy	37%	Salty	22.22%	Tree	18.52%
Hakka	19%	Wind	19%	Sweet	30%	Air	14.81%	Plants	18.52%
Houses	19%	Dog	19%	Local beverage	22%	Chicken	14.81%		
Trees	19%	Guides	11%	Bitter	19%	Sulphur	14.81%		
Flowers	11%	Sea	11%	Local fruit	19%				
				Fresh	15%				

The results of the content analysis of the open-ended questions, through which tourists were asked to report their sensory experience, show that, of the total collected sensory-based words or expressions (280), the sense of taste collected the highest number of impressions (74), followed by sight (61), hearing (59), smell (48), and touch (38). According to previous research conducted in rural villages that focuses on community involvement, the sensory impressions related to local gastronomic experiences are predominant (Fernandes et al., 2015). Additionally, the experiences reported seem to be multisensory in nature, and not dominated by the sense of sight (Agapito et al., 2014, 2017).

As can also be observed in Table 1, the sensory impressions rated with the highest percentage of responses (% of respondents) are: “*hearing: birdsong*” (67.0%), “*sight: salt*” (63.0%), “*taste: salt*” (52.0%), “*smell: flowers/plants*” (44.4%), and “*touch: salt*” (44.4%). Hence, specific assets that are unique to the village are mentioned by visitors, such as “Hakka” culture, “church”, local gastronomy, and nature-based assets. Worth noting is the fact that “salt/salty” is mentioned in relation to four senses: vision, smell, taste, and touch, which evidences the key role of this local asset in the village (salt pans) as key to the visitor experience.

Table 2
Perceived emotions reported by visitors

Emotions	% of respondents
Happy	52%
Relaxed	30%
Peaceful	26%
Comfortable	22%
Excited	19%
Hot	19%
Inspired	19%
Interested	19%
Amazed	15%
In communion	15%

The participants in the questionnaire declared to feel “happy” (52%), “relaxed” (30%), and “peaceful” (26%) after their experience (Table 2). The reported emotions are positive and are in line with visitor experiences related to local destinations with strong community involvement. Particularly, the acknowledgement of being “inspired”, “interested”, and “in communion” suggests that the visitors have a positive attitude towards being involved with the community and local culture.

Conclusions

This research analysed the multisensory-informed experiences reported by visitors in a village in Hong Kong - Yim Tin Tsai -, where a community based tourism approach is being developed. The preliminary findings of this first stage of a larger study suggest that the visitor experiences in the village are multisensory-informed and not dominated by visual impressions. This finding is in line with previous research (Agapito et al., 2014, 2017). Worth noting is the fact that gastronomic impressions (taste) related to local cuisine gathered the highest number of references by visitors. Additionally, other specific assets that are unique to the village were highlighted, such as “Hakka” culture and religious and nature-based assets. The predominant asset of the village – salt (salt pans) – is mentioned by participants as a multisensory resource, which can be seen, touched, olfactorily experienced, and tasted. The visitors' perspective suggests that opportunities regarding the process of stimulating different senses by focusing on local assets could be addressed in the future to increase the value and recollection of the experience (Agapito et al., 2017).

Hence, the focus on a holistic approach to the sensory stimuli in the village could encourage a more inclusive experience to visitors. For example, the use of multiple sensory stimulation has the potential to not only boost the experience for all visitors in general but also for sensory impaired tourists in particular, while continuously co-creating experiences with visitors and locals (Agapito et al., 2013, 2014, 2016a). Moreover, diverse sensory modalities can be used in virtual environments, which can focus both on educational and promotional aims in the context of disseminating the endogenous resources and identity of the village.

The findings suggest that the current tourism strategy in the island provide visitors with the conditions for a positive experience to emerge. In fact, participants expressed feeling “happy”, “relaxed”, and “peaceful” with the experience, as well as “inspired”, “interested”, and “in communion”. This result suggests that visitors have a positive attitude towards being involved with the community and local culture, which is in line with the community-based tourism approach that is being developed in the destination. This is in accordance with a responsible tourism approach as proposed by Spenceley et al. (2002) and Frey and George (2010), which promote the sustainable use of local resources by ensuring its use and enjoyment of present and future generations.

In a second stage of the study, stakeholders in the island that were identified through the analysis of the secondary sources will be included in the research. Qualitative methods will be used to explore the different stakeholders’ perspectives regarding to what extent a multisensory approach can contribute to responsible management in community-based tourism projects, such as the one in Yim Tin Tsai. In order to do so, all dimensions within a responsible tourism management approach, as identified in the literature review (e.g. Frey and George, 2010), will be considered in the second stage of this research.

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HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INTERNATIONAL INTERNSHIPS AND PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY

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Abstract

This research investigates the experiences of UK undergraduate students who have undertaken a one year paid internship abroad within the hotel sector using a phenomenological approach. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with twenty-five final year undergraduate students. The findings shed light on the alignment of key elements of the constructs of positive psychological capital and cosmopolitan human capital, along with strong self-belief in employability as a consequence of the experience. A theoretical model of international experience and positive psychosocial development is postulated and contributes to improved practice in internship and employability mentoring and policy decision-making with respect to current internationalisation and employability agendas in the UK's higher education system.

Keywords: Internships, International Experience, Employability, Positive Psychological Capital.

Introduction

The "Gone International" (2016) report by Universities UK found that undergraduates from all backgrounds benefitted from overseas experience, both academically and in subsequent employment outcomes. However, only 7.5% of business and management students undertook some form of international mobility in 2014-15 and less than half of these students worked abroad during their studies. Government, employers and universities have called for the internationalisation of the student experience with employability embedded into curricula (HEA, 2017). According to Lopez-Moreno (2017) this is because increasingly internationalised economies will need a globally minded workforce, particularly those competing in the booming tourism and hospitality market. Further research is therefore pressingly needed to address existing gaps in our understanding of how international internships contribute to the student development and employability drawing on the experiences of students themselves (Jones, 2013).

This paper examines the following research question. How do hospitality management students who have completed an international internship perceive their employability? This question was addressed through the analysis of original primary interview data collected from final year undergraduate UK students (n=25) who had returned from a one year paid international internship. The findings shed light on nuanced contributors to positive psychosocial development and perceived employability. These findings are used to devise a theoretical model of international internships and positive psychological capital, which contributes to improved practice in internship and employability mentoring, and policy decision-making over internationalisation and employability agendas in higher education

Literature Review - International Internships and Students Perceived Employability

Research on internships and cooperative education has grown substantially over recent years (Coll and Kalinis, 2009; Zegwaard and Hoskyn, 2015). (See table 1). Research into graduate careers in

the UK hospitality industry and particularly international work experience and career futures is less well developed.

Previous research into co-operative education and internships has highlighted the psychosocial development of participants. Areas of psychosocial development include: Confidence (Toncar and Cudmore, 2000; Busby, 2002; Coll, et al., 2003; van Dorp, 2008; UUK & CBI, 2009; Smith-Ruig, 2014) Self-efficacy (Fugate, 2004; Lent, Brown and Hackett, 2002) and Resilience (Archer & Davison, 2008). Gannon (2018) argued that these developments are congruent with constructs from the literature on positive psychology and positive psychological capital. Luthans and Youssef (2004) define positive psychological capital as the positive and developmental state of an individual as characterized by high self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resiliency. This construct is rooted in two distinct areas; firstly the resource based view of the firm and secondly, positive psychology. Within the resource-based theory of the firm, which seeks to explain the sources of sustainable competitive advantage for organisations (Newman et al 2014), human capital has been positioned as one of the most valuable resources. (Crook et al 2001, Newman et al. 2014). Human capital refers to the supply of knowledge, skills, and abilities, resulting in the capacity to perform labour so as to produce value to an organisation. Inspired by ideas from positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Psychological capital has gained increasing attention as a strategic resource due to its potential influence on human performance (Ardichvili, 2011). Positive psychology is a reorientation of scholarly interest away from the treatment of mental illness towards the study of optimal human functioning referred to as positive psychology (Seligman 2004). The Positive psychology movement began to strive to change psychology's focus from not only fixing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Gannon (2018) argued that through coping with adversity, developing resilience and the transformative personal and professional development made possible through successful undergraduate internships individual participants may experience the development of positive psychological capital.

Co-operative Education Research Topics	Authors
The perceptions of educators and employers	Skelton & Westner (2018) Collins (2002) Petrova & Mason (2004) Raybould & Wilkins (2005)
University and industry links	Busby (2003)
The benefits of international internships for professional development and worker value in the labour market	Skelton & Westner (2018) Gibson & Busby (2009)
The cross-cultural nature of international internship experiences	Pucillo (1987) Lim (2000) Beard et al. (2001) Wong & Coll (2001) Coll & Paku (2006) Coll & Kalnins (2009)
Students' expectations, experiences and satisfaction	Skelton & Westner (2018) Ruhanen, Robinson, & Breakey (2013)
Career intentions	Jenkins (2001) Richardson (2009) Nachmias and Walmsley (2015) Robinson, Ruhanen, & Breakey (2016)

TABLE 1. AREAS OF ACADEMIC INTEREST IN CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION RESEARCH

Previous research has also given insights into the cross-cultural nature of international internships (See table 1). However, the ways in which such experiences may be valued by students themselves beyond the immediate end of such programmes is underdeveloped. Jones (2011) in a qualitative study of corporate employers' attitudes towards students' international work experience on volunteer programmes reported that corporate employers in the UK valued the "cultural-economic capital" accrued during international voluntary work placements carried out by undergraduates. This development of cultural sensitivity is not directed at a definite national, ethnic or cultural knowledge per se but in the view of recruiters, "...reflects the valuation of a set of skills acquired through the experience of working in a different cultural context overseas" (2011: 540). Although employers tended to be vague about values they sought in future employees, Jones (2011) states that it is clear that "...the capacity to develop informed opinions based on 'global values', loosely expressed as a positive view of globalisation and an interconnected global society, represents a relevant and desirable capacity for undertaking global corporate work" (2011: 241). This construct is resonant with Ng et al (2011) theory of Cosmopolitan Human Capital. Within the domain of work and human capital, the term cosmopolitans most often refers to "...individuals who have the education, experience and skills that enable them to work effectively in many different cultures" (Ng, Tan & Ang 2009: 5.) This position rooted in Cultural Intelligence theory (Early 2002) and notions of human capital was positioned by Gannon (2018) as a potential area of development within successful international internships and something from which participants both identified and differentiated themselves from competitors within the jobs market. Furthermore, Gannon (2018) argued that the interconnected development of positive psychological capital and cosmopolitan human capital facilitated by successful international internships were antecedent to the development of enhanced perceived employability among participants.

In examining the concept of employability, Fugate et al. (2004: 5) put forward a model that embodies 'a synergistic combination of career identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital'. More specifically, their conceptualisation of employability encapsulates the dimensions of career identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital that interact to enhance career opportunities for individuals within and between organisations. Whilst recognising that each of these three dimensions of employability have independent value in their own right, Fugate et al.'s (2004) concept of employability relies on the interconnectedness of career identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital. The self-perceived employability of individuals is therefore of particular interest to this study.

Rothwell (2015) identifies four distinct research strands within the field of employability. The first, focusing on government policy decision-making was identified as a political strand, with the aim of reducing unemployment and tackling social inequalities. This strand has influenced political discourse on skills development and the demands of the labour market. A second strand concentrates on education as a means of enhancing employability and emphasising the role of employability within the curriculum. This has in part been given impetus by rising graduate numbers since the 1990s and notions of underemployment and graduate unemployment (Vargas, et al. 2018; Satinger, 2011; Purcell et al. 2012). A third strand focuses on employer led employability strategies and stems from the human resource management tradition. Researchers identifying with this strand have sought to investigate how firms can enable employees to sustain employment within a changing jobs market (Natura et al. 2009; Cai, 2013). Finally, a fourth strand focuses on the individual's personal capacity to gain and maintain employment.

Perceived employability is defined by Vanhercke et al (2014:549) as an 'individual's perceptions of his or her possibilities of obtaining and maintaining employment'. Work has been done to establish a psychometric conceptualisation and measure of self-perceived employability (Rothwell

& Arnold 2007, Rothwell et al. 2008). This has been applied in educational settings and has been put forward as a self-assessment tool in career counselling, which in turn contributes to policy decision-making (Vargas et al. 2018). Qenani et al. (2014) examined students' expectations of finding suitable employment against variables such as personal factors, academic factors, university reputation and economic factors and concluded that assisting students to manage how employable they view themselves, universities are promoting active learning at a broad level. They argue that positive self-perceived employability stems from high levels of engagement, self-management, internships and the perception that they have been well prepared by a university. However, examination of the phenomenon of self-perceived employability at an individual level is less well developed.

Huang (2013) in a thematic analysis of undergraduates from China in a single UK university discerned a relationship between perceived outcomes of international experience and graduate employability. The students believed international experience would support the development of cultural sensitivity and personal adaptability as well as enhance the attractiveness of an individual to employers in a globalised labour market. Crossman and Clarke (2010) after a qualitative stakeholder analysis of employers, academic and students in Australia found that all stakeholders identified clear connections between international experience and employability. This was founded on outcomes associated with network building, experiential learning, language acquisition and the development of soft skills related to cultural understandings, personal characteristics and ways of thinking. However, they concluded there was limited understanding of the nature of the relationship between international experience and graduate employability.

Method.

The study was designed and conducted in line with the principles of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (Smith et al., 2009). The dearth of literature as to how students' perceive themselves and their future employability after an internship required an approach that allowed for unanticipated themes to be explored. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) is an interpretive approach, which offers an operationalized method by which to explore lived experiences and to interpret phenomena on an individual level, while allowing meaningful patterns to be identified across cases.

Phenomenological research favours purposively selected individuals who share common experiences 'so that detailed patterns of meaning and relationships can be identified' (Gray, 2013: 208). Therefore students from a British school of hospitality were invited to participate if they were in their final or penultimate semester of study.

Commensurate with the core philosophical positioning of IPA, the sample was selected purposively so that insight could be gained into the lived experiences of a comparatively homogeneous cohort of students who had completed a period of international internship within the hotel industry (Smith et al. 2009). In total, 25 students agreed to be interviewed. Nationality and gender were not used as sample selection criteria and all of the participants were aged 20-23 years old (see appendix 1). Participants were interviewed 12-18 months after the completion of their internship to enable them to have reflected on their experiences in a holistic manner.

Data collection and analysis

Hour-long in-depth semi structured interviews were arranged to be able to address the research questions and enable the participants to express their views and experiences in their own words (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). Open-ended questions were posed to explore how participants made sense of their lived experiences. Of particular interest was the participants' sense of the international nature of the experiences, future employment and personal development.

Smith and Osborn (2008: 66) note that ‘the assumption in IPA is that the analyst is interested in learning something about the respondent’s psychological world’. This understanding may be presented in the form of ‘beliefs and constructs that are made manifest or suggested by the respondent’s talk’ or in other cases ‘the respondent’s story can itself be said to represent a piece of the respondent’s identity’ (Smith & Osborn 2008: 66). It is meaning and not frequency that is a fundamental principle of IPA (Smith & Osborn. 2008).

This analysis followed guidelines on IPA (Smith and Osborn 2008; Smith et al. 2009) as to the transcription, commentary, identification and collation of themes from the interview transcripts. This was done on a case-by-case basis before identifying common themes between and across multiple transcripts. Insight was also gained from Kempster and Cope (2010) and Cope (2011) as to the iterative process of ‘enfolding literature’ whereby in order to create a higher level of analysis needed for the production of a theoretical explanation at a higher level of abstraction, constant movement between existing theoretical knowledge and transcript data are needed.

Presuppositions that cultural distance and previous international experience might be important variables in the accounts of participants were not evidenced in the data. The students expressed very similar views about their experience whether or not the destination was culturally close or whether or not they had some form of international experience such as overseas education. The perceived specialness or distinctiveness of international work experience was highly valued. Four superordinate themes were identified: Adversity, Development, Cross-Cultural Experiences and Career Futures. Further analysis and enfolding of the literature reviewed identified sub-themes that were not entirely predicted in previous research and necessitated a reengagement with literature on positive psychology. Similarly, although the international nature of the experience was expected to be important to participants, the way in which students made sense of this experience and the importance they attached to it and to their future careers was not predicted by engagement with literature.

Superordinate and subordinate themes emerged through the interpretive analysis of 25 participant transcripts. These subordinate themes were identified in over 53,000 words of participant verbatim quotations taken from over 200,000 words of transcript evidence. For the purpose of this paper, themes relating to the students’ sense of enhanced employability will be discussed. In keeping with IPA, verbatim quotations are presented and pseudonyms used.

Findings and Discussion

Four superordinate themes emerged from IPA of participants’ transcripts; Adversity, Development; Cross-Cultural Experiences and Career Futures (see appendix2). Some of these are to be expected and even hoped for in students who have worked overseas. For instance, the primary purpose of such internship programmes is to develop professional skills. However in-depth analysis led to the emergence of important sub-themes that were not predicted in previous research. Similarly, although the international nature of the experience was expected to be an area of importance for participants the way in which students made sense of this experience and the importance they attached to it and to their future careers was not predicted by engagement with previous literature.

Adversity	Development	Cross-Cultural Experience	Career Futures
Homesickness	New Person	Language and	Perceived Employability
Working Conditions	Mastering tasks	Communication	Exploiting Experience
Living Conditions	Promotions	International Networks	Changing Careers
Isolation	Confidence	Cosmopolitan Community	Employers Opinions
Finance	Independence	Cultural Intelligence	Expatriate Work
	Self-Efficacy		Global Opportunities
	Resilience		

TABLE 2. SUBORDINATE THEMES FOR DEVELOPMENT (ADAPTED FROM GANNON 2018)

The expected opinions of potential future employers was a prominent theme. Participants often believed that future employers in the UK would look favourably upon their overseas experience. Although there were several cases where participants mentioned actual job interviews and positive feedback on their experiences, most concentrated on finishing their final year in university and so employer opinions remained imagined at the time of the interviews. Whether or not this is realistic is a matter of conjecture. However, it demonstrates that the participants were optimistic about what employers would think.

Perceived Employability

There was evidence to suggest that either through a sense of exceptionalism or a sense of achievement, optimism in their individual futures was relayed. According to Scheier, et al. (2001) optimism refers to an individual's expectancy of positive outcomes. Those high in optimism generally build positive expectancies that motivate them to pursue their goals and deal with difficult situations making a positive attribution about succeeding now and in the future (Luthans et al. 2010; Seligman (2002). Individuals demonstrating optimism make sense of their experiences as things that in various ways enable them to go on to create positive outcomes with regards to their future careers.

For Connie, the rejection from her first choice of location in the United States and having to take a second choice hotel in the Republic of Ireland in which she eventually flourished was something she made sense of as both a positive lived experience and something from which she could draw inspiration from for other positive outcomes in the future.

The rejection from America has helped me so much. If I don't get a job, if I go to an interview, I'm like, okay, that's not happened, but something else will happen. I think actually being rejected from that was such a good thing for me, if that makes sense.

Ted who stated that he had little confidence in himself before the internship programme now felt confident and ambitious when asked about his future. He saw future international work within the hotel sector as a possible pathway to securing the financial stability that would enable him to achieve his long-term entrepreneurial ambitions. This positive expectancy of gaining work in the United States and elsewhere could one day lead to him owning his own food and beverage operation. Work within the hotel industry was a positive means to an end.

I'm fairly confident, maybe a bit too confident about it. I've got a lot of ambitions. I want to maybe one day own my own bar or restaurant, or both, who knows? I still want to work in hotels. I thought that maybe after I get my degree, graduate, I'm going to head over to the States, like I said. Probably stay there for five years, more or less, just to get some more experience. And a bit of finance sorted out. And then open up my own place. Really want to, yeah. Hotels, I want to get more experience in the hotel industry. But long term it's not what I want to stay with.

For Ted optimism about his future employment surfaced in the possibility of being “an independent” (business entrepreneur) and was made achievable through his academic interest in hospitality business management and the experience he gained in the industry.

I want to be an independent because I've been studying business. So it's always something that's I've been kind of wanted to be. And I've always been interested in business, I've got a very kind of wide knowledge of business and how it's run. So it's something that I can exercise in the future.

Sophie exhibited a confidence and independence gained by working abroad on her internship year from which she drew conclusions about positive future expatriate work. This confidence in her independence and ability to be fine anywhere was the source of her optimism.

So I think it helped for the future because I know I could basically move anywhere else and I know I would be fine... I would be able to take care of myself and I wouldn't need anyone else, I know I could get a job.

Fleur felt comfort in believing that she had the ability to succeed in a career within the hotel industry even though she felt the need to explore other options before she finally settles on a career choice. She knew that she would do well and had been told she would do well within the hotel sector, which was a source of optimism even though she felt the need to explore career options in other fields of work.

So I kind of want to experience different possibilities first before I, like, make my decision on "yeah, I want to stay in hospitality industry and yes I want to stay in hotels. Because although it's a potential career and I know I'll do well in it and I've been told that I'd do very well in the industry so that's not the issue. It's just my personal happiness - whether I want to stay in the industry or do something totally different.

Participants often believed that future employers in the UK would look favourably upon their overseas experience. Whether or not this is realistic is a matter of conjecture. However, it does seem to show that participants are optimistic about what employers will think. Showing that an individual has gone away and done something different without the support of their friends, family and institutions was an experience that several participants viewed as a positive and that they believed employers would value. Participants believed this demonstrated confidence, independence, resilience and communication skills which they were optimistic employers would see as valuable characteristics.

I think it would show that I have been able to go away for a year and I have got that confidence in myself... and I have lived in a different community... I think they would see that as positive...they would have to meet me (laughs) coz I am amazing (laughs) ... she has met a lot of people working on the front desk... she knows the from office system... she can clearly communicate with a wide range of people and she is confident enough to go and live by herself for a year. (Maggie)

For Emily, the experience was a source of competitive advantage over other job candidates.

In a non-biased way I think that they [employers] would probably choose me perhaps... just because maybe... I took the chance... I did you know accomplish a year abroad whether it was because I didn't have a choice or not I still stuck it out... it shows a kind of commitment to your career as well.

Working in a new country and being away from one's comfort zone was an opportunity for development. In the minds of participants, the experience seemed to offer greater opportunities for

development than domestic work experience might have and therefore might be viewed more favourably by potential future employers.

I'm going basically be straight to the point. Just tell them my experiences. What I've learnt and what I've gained from it. I think my experience abroad would, I'm sure, play as an advantage to me. (Robert)

In this, Robert demonstrated that not only did he value his experience but that he believed that employers would also value his international work experience and that this would in turn increase his employability within their eyes.

This sense of enhanced employability was related in the was reposted by

Analysis of the students' experience indicates that they made sense of their international internship as transformative and something that had positively enhanced their personal and professional lives. A shared perspective among participants was a belief in personal employability developed through the international internship. The participants believed employers, for a variety of reasons, would value their experiences. There are three key findings from this research. Firstly, participants in this research experienced psychosocial developments in line with Luthens (2002) theory of Positive Psychological Capital. This they believed, was a direct consequence of the international internship experience. Secondly, participants experienced a development of cultural intelligence and cosmopolitan human capital. Finally, participants believed the international internship positively enhanced their own employment futures.

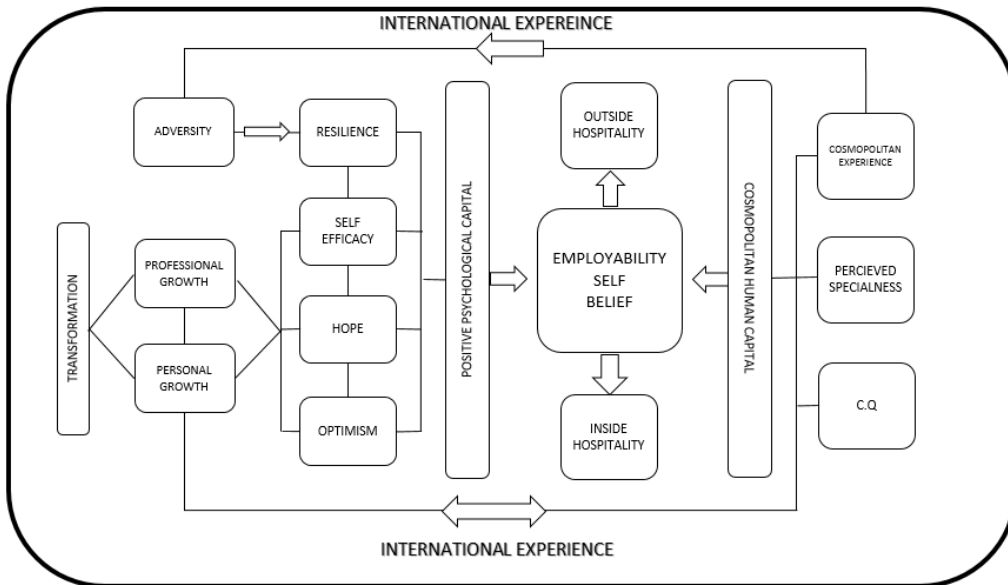


FIGURE 1. A MODEL OF EMPLOYABILITY SELF-BELIEF GAINED THROUGH INTERNATIONAL INTERNSHIPS.

Figure 1 puts forward a model by which that international internship lived experience may be understood as providing an unique or distinctive environment in which psychosocial development and cross-cultural experience flourish creating an enhanced sense of employability (Gannon 2018). The resilience gained through overcoming the adversity of the international experience coupled with reported transformative personal and professional development and can be seen as antecedent

to the development of qualities concomitant with the construct of positive psychological capital. This was true for participants who expressed an intention to pursue careers within the hotel industry and those who expressed intentions to develop careers in other areas. Another important area to emerge from the analysis was related to themes corresponding to specific cross-cultural and international aspects of the experience. The participants' accounts indicated that their expatriate experience was regarded as something special that distinguished them from their peers. The cosmopolitan nature of the internship encompassing cross-cultural encounters with host country nationals and other international workers were sometimes sources of difficulty such as mutual-misunderstanding, culture shock, communication barriers and homesickness. However, the experience was positioned as something positive and to be proud of. Participants also expressed positive development in areas closely aligned with the construct of cultural intelligence (Early, 2002). They believed they had enhanced language and communication skills, knowledge of other cultures and motivation to work in other countries in the future. They articulated the perception that future employers would value this cultural intelligence and cosmopolitan experience thereby enhancing their future employment prospects. This belief in a cosmopolitan human capital (Ng, Tan and Ang, 2011) or cultural-economic capital (Jones, 2011) can be theorised as contributing to participants' general sense of future employability, within both domestic or international settings and inside or outside of the hotel sector.

Conclusions

Although limited to a relatively small cohort of hospitality and tourism management students within one UK university the phenomenological approach undertaken has facilitated an original contribution to theory. This research suggests that the international nature of the internship provides an environment that is at times both challenging and stimulating. The international aspects of the internship were points of distinction that were perceived as separating the students from their peers. It is an environment in which both psychosocial development and cultural intelligence may flourish. Furthermore, these enhancements are congruent with developing a sense of a participant's own employability. This perceived employability may as yet be untested in the employment marketplace but it is nevertheless a positive psychosocial development gained through participation in international internship programmes. This was found to be the case for participants who intended to build management careers within the hotel industry and for those who intended to look for employment in other industries after graduation.

This research has raised several questions for further research. Firstly, future research should concentrate on the comparison of both domestic and international internship experience and student employability. Secondly, research into the extent to which employers' value international experience and the labour market outcomes of students with international experience is needed. Finally, the phenomenological approach adopted here has facilitated a contribution to theory in the area of international work experience. Further longitudinal research on larger cohorts of both domestic and international internship students to examine the nomothetic relationship between positive psychological development and employment outcomes over time is needed.

As educators we have been called upon to prepare graduates for global job markets (HEA 2017), yet actual numbers of business and management students participating in international internships are very small (UUK, 2017a). These calls have been made in a time of unprecedented retrenchment in government investment in higher education (UUK, 2017b). Furthermore, the uncertain outcome of Brexit negotiations may see a possible UK withdrawal from international work and study experience programmes such as Erasmus which currently provides the majority of business students' overseas experience (THE, 2017). The financial and political threats to such international

work experience programmes seem juxtaposed to the Prime Minister's calls for "A truly global Britain" (BBC News, 2017). Establishing and maintaining links with international internship providers is costly and could potentially be seen as a strain on already pressed resources. Similarly, mentoring and support of students engaged in such programmes is an additional cost for universities in a time of financial uncertainty. The insights contributed by this research into the positive psychological development, increased cross-cultural skills and more positive outlook on future employment expressed by students should be used to add to the argument that current provision of such programmes should not only be maintained but further developed to prepare graduates for future careers in which international skills and experience will remain important.

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Appendix 1

Transcript Code	Gender	Nationality	Provider Location	Internship Experience
P1	M	UK	ROI	Food and Beverage, Hotel Operations Management
P2	M	Czech	ROI	Food and Beverage operations
P3	F	UK	USA	Food and Beverage operations
P3	M	UK	USA	Front Desk, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage Operations
P4	F	UK	ROI	Front Desk, Sales and Marketing
P5	F	UK	UAE	Front Desk, Food and Beverage, Events
P6	M	UK	ROI	Food and Beverage Operations
P8	F	UK	USA	Front Desk, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage
P9	F	UK	USA	Food and Beverage operations
P10	F	UK	USA	Front Desk, Back office, Sales
P11	F	UK	USA	Food and Beverage operations
P12	F	UK	USA	Food and Beverage, Front Desk, Customer Service
P13	M	UK	USA	Customer Relations, Sales, Events
P14	F	Lithuania	Cyprus	Food and Beverage operations
P15	F	China	USA	Food and Beverage, Sales and Marketing
P16	F	UK	Hong Kong	Front Desk, Events, Food and Beverage
P17	F	Singapore	China	Front Desk, Events, Food and Beverage
P18	F	Slovakia	China	Front Desk, Events, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage
P19	F	UK	ROI	Front Desk, Events, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage
P20	F	Slovakia	USA	Front Desk, Hotel Operations Management, Food and Beverage
P21	F	UK	ROI	Food an Beverage Operations, Back office, Finance
P22	F	Czech	USA	Front Desk, Events, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage
P23	M	UK	USA	Front Desk, Events, Customer Relations, Food and Beverage
P24	M	UK	UAE	Front Desk, Events, Food and Beverage
P25	F	UK	Spain	Front Desk, Back Office, Sales, Finance

TABLE 3. PARTICIPANTS AND DESTINATIONS

Appendix 2

Theme	Sub-Theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	P15	P16	P17	P18	P19	
Adversity	Homesickness			X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X								X
	Working Conditions	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Living Conditions	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X			X		X	X	X	X		
	Isolation	X	X		X				X		X					X	X				X
	Finance	X			X	X			X	X	X			X						X	X
	New Person	X		X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
	Mastering tasks	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	
	Promotion & Responsibility Confidence	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Development	Independence	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X		X		X					
	Self-efficacy	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Resilience	X				X		X						X		X	X			X	
	Optimism	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	X	X		X	X		
	Language & Communication International Networks	X		X		X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X				X	X
	Cosmopolitan community	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X					X	
	Cultural Intelligence	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Employability self-belief	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Career Futures	Exploiting Experience	X	X		X		X	X	X					X	X	X		X	X	X	
	Changing Careers	X		X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X	
	Employers Opinions		X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	
	Future expatriate work	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X				X	X	X
	Global Opportunities	X	X	X	X				X	X		X	X	X	X				X		X

Table 4. Superordinate and subordinate Themes

MICE EVENT VALUE MEASUREMENT

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Abstract

Relative to the size and growth of the MICE industry, studies looking at why millions of people attend events are limited. We develop a new scale for measuring event value outcomes. Using 20 qualitative interviews with event participants, Study 1 explores which outcomes participants value, and identifies scale items. Study 2 is based on a survey of 256 event participants and uses exploratory & confirmatory factor analysis to refine the final eight value dimensions, which includes new values, e.g. inspirational value; as well as unmeasured values, e.g. self-esteem; and under- explored values, e.g. social vs relationship vs professional. Study 3 employs this scale across a series of events to predict between 34-43% of event satisfaction, loyalty and word-of-mouth. Most importantly, how much each value contributes to these three KPIs varies, with hedonic value being the only consistent predictor. The paper suggests how the new scale can be used by further researchers and practitioners in this area.

Keywords: Survey, evaluation, customer value, events, ROI, event evaluation, corporate hospitality, scale development, participant satisfaction, event value measurement, event KPIs

Introduction

In addressing the question of evaluating MICE events, academic studies have begun to shed light on why people attend MICE events (Bojanic & Warnick, 2012; Chen & Breiter, 2007; Jago & Deery, 2005; Lee & Back, 2008; Lee Min, 2013; Mair & Thompson, 2009; Mitchell, Schlegelmilch, & Mone, 2016; Oppermann & Chon, 1997; Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Brown, 2001; Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Var, Cesario, & Mauser, 1985; Witt & Witt 1995; Yoo & Chon, 2008; Zhang, Leung & Qu, 2007). However, several issues are apparent from this body of work. First, relatively few studies have identified the individual values created during events. Those which have, propose; functional, social and emotional values (Lee & Min 2013), education benefits, (Severt et al. 2007) and personal/professional development (Mair & Thompson 2009). Others have suggested, but not measured them (e.g. Oppermann & Chon, 1997; Zhang et al. 2007; Mitchell et al. 2016). So, whether these are the only values found in MICE events remains unanswered. Secondly, most previous scales have been developed and tested on participants of specific conferences, and thus scale items were influenced by the specifics of the conference. This leaves the development of scale items highly susceptible to situational factors, such as event type, timing and organization. It also produces a lack of consistency and agreement as to what motivates participants, with researchers suggesting a wide range of factors, e.g. purchase decision involvement (Bojanic & Warnick, 2012), perceived behavioural control (Lee & Back, 2008), travelability (Yoo & Chon 2008), emotional values (Lee & Min 2013), and total cost (Zhang et al. 2007). Third, even when similar factors are found, there has been confusion and overlap within them. Mair & Thompson (2009) highlight this in relation to ‘conference/association activities’ and ‘self-enhancement’ or ‘personal/ professional development’ for example, as well as a factor named ‘activities and opportunities’ containing items such as ‘business activities, travel opportunities, visiting friends and relatives and self-esteem enhancement.’

Our purpose is to help event organisers understand why participants attend and how this knowledge can be used to improve attendance and keep existing participants loyal. In doing this, we pose several research questions; What value do participants extract from events? Which value dimensions are most important in predicting event KPIs, such as satisfaction, loyalty and WOM? How can researchers and practitioners use a participant event value measure?

Towards A Framework For Mice Event Evaluation

2.1 Event outcomes as participant value

Here we take a customer value approach. Customer value is ‘how a customer perceives a product or service in the activities of acquisition, consumption, and maintenance’ (Huber, Hermann, & Morgan, 2001, p. 41). This is the difference between the total benefits customers receive from a product or service, and the total costs that come with those benefits, such as evaluating, obtaining, using and disposing the product (Holbrook, 1996; Kotler, 2000). Both monetary and non-monetary aspects are included in costs (Boksberger & Melsen, 2011, p. 231) with non-monetary costs including; learning, emotional, search and time costs (Huber, Hermann, & Morgan, 2001, p. 45) episode and relationship sacrifices (Ravald & Grönroos, 1996, p. 23) as well as risks that come along with a purchase (Cronin et al. 1997, p. 376). We argue that value is more theoretically linked to motivation theories and drives behaviour (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991; Crompton & McKay, 1997; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). It is also likely to be more predictive and generalizable between events and therefore could for a useful focus for measurement when evaluating events and be more amenable to comparing the success of different events.

2.2 Which values are most important to event success?

Many studies do not even attempt to link motivations or event value to key outcomes (e.g., Crompton & McKay, 1997; Crompton, 2003, Yoo & Chon, 2008; Whitfield et al. 2012). However, a recent meta-analysis work on predictors festival satisfaction and loyalty revealed that festival activities – such as program, entertainment, thematic activities - and environment (atmosphere, convenience, facilities) as the most important (Tanford & Jung, 2017) . While this work is on festivals, it does raise the issue of what is the relationship between event values and event KPIs? Most studies model event value (Gallarza & Saura 2006) or sense of community (Hahm et al. 2016) or educational benefits and activities and opportunities (Severt et al. 2007) as affecting satisfaction, which in turn affect loyalty and/or word of mouth. However, evidence contradicts this linear view. Correlations with WOM range from

.35 for accessibility to .8 for emotion value and from .32 for extra convention activities to .61 for professional education (Lee & Min, 2013). Similarly, extrinsic factors, such as quality and efficiency of events, are linked to loyalty, while social value is linked to satisfaction (Gallarza & Saura 2006) and those who perceive high value engage in more positive word of mouth and more social media (Lee & Min 2013). Also, only networking and cost (negative effect) influenced return intentions, while location, convenience and security were non-significant (Mair & Thompson 2009). This evidence suggests the value-outcome relationship varies. We propose it is more useful to understand which value affects which outcomes and suggest that different event values create different outcomes. To investigate this relationship, we conducted three studies.

Study Methods

2.3.1 Study 1: A qualitative investigation into event value.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the value that participants and organizers see in events, to expand existing work. Personal semi-structured interviews (40min - 60min) with 10 event organizers and speakers as well as 10 event participants were conducted and audio-recorded. Event participants, speakers and organizers were used to triangulate all actors responsible for creating event value. Interviews were transcribed and content analyzed for value themes (Neuendorf, 2016) and verbatim statements for scale item generation. Eight value dimensions were identified from the interviews, literature and previous studies and an initial pool of 140 items was generated to measure them. Only items which addressed a single outcome aspect and did not mix up inputs, processes or outputs were used and formulated as short, simple statements (Harrison & McLaughlin, 1993).

2.4 Study 2: Measuring event value

2.4.1 Item selection, scenario and sample

Initial item screening was undertaken by a panel of two expert raters (members of the marketing faculty) who were asked: “How representative are the following statements of the behaviors, beliefs and attitudes of “value X” (1=very unrepresentative, 7=very representative). The scenario of a perfect event was used to avoid the problem of event-specific items, which was alluded to in the literature review. An online survey was conducted during May 2016, using a snowballing sampling technique among employees of several Austrian companies; *Hewlett Packard, Erste Bank, Raiffeisenlandesbank, Raiffeisen Informatik, Microsoft, UNIQA, Kapsch, Henkel, Denzel, ÖSB Consulting, ERGO Versicherung, Binder Grösswang Rechtsanwälte, Strabag and Telekom Austria*. Around 1000 people were sent the survey and of those who responded, 256 had attended

a business-meeting event within the last year. The sample makeup contained 139 male respondents (54.3%) and 117 female respondents (45.7%). 100% had a Bachelor degree or professional equivalent or higher. The age of participants ranged from 20-71 years, with a mean of 31 years and a standard deviation of 9.32 years.

Results

First, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to identify underlying dimensions (Malhotra, 2010, p. 634). The maximum likelihood method was applied as the data were relatively normally distributed (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahan (1999, p. 277). For the exploratory factor analysis, SPSS extracted eight dimensions with at least three items on each dimension with a high standardized factor loading (>0.4). Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.923 and Barlett's test of sphericity was highly significant (exact value = 0.000). Cronbach α for all dimensions larger than 0.6 and overall χ^2 value, with 2346 degrees of freedom, was 10.601.

Next, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used, based on the items and dimensions resulting from the EFA analysis (Thompson, 2004; Gatignon, 2010). A reflective first-order model was constructed with the program AMOS to test for model fit and validity. Traditional scale development uses reflective measurement models where the observed indicators are supposed to be caused by the latent variable (Churchill, 1979). This means that omitting one specific indicator of a reflective scale does not result in alternations in its content (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The purified scale comprises of eight dimensions incorporating 37 items. The overall χ^2 value, with 330 degrees of freedom, is 606.083. The scale demonstrates a satisfactory fit. Item factor loadings are larger than 0.4. CFI is 0.9 and RMSEA is 0.057 (PCLOSE = 0.049). Eight values were confirmed, namely; inspiration, reputation, learning, self-esteem, relationship, professional, hedonic, social.

2.5 Study 3: Real events application and testing of the value-outcome relationship.

Study 3 was designed to examine what is the relative importance of these ideal values and which predict event KPIs, such as satisfaction, loyalty and WOM. Survey items included those from study 2 and event KPIs of satisfaction, loyalty and WOM were measured by well-established existing scales (Lee & Min, 2013). All were rated on 1-5 'Strongly disagree' to 'Strongly agree' scale. Similar to Hahm et al. (2016), data were collected from five separate events to test the generalisability of the values across events and to try and rule out event-specific variations and focus on the general pattern. This is consistent with our Study 2, which looks at the 'ideal' event. Collection took place mainly at the Wien Messe convention centre in Vienna and events included; TEDxVienna, 8th IMUCV, Alpinmesse Innsbruck, the International Society for Pediatric and Adolescent Diabetes in Innsbruck and DrupalCon. Surveys were distributed to participants towards the end of the events while waiting for their transport to complete then or by giving them information with a link to the survey online. Few differences were found between the events before they were merged for analysis.

2.5.1 Analysis

Three models were estimated using stepwise multiple regression to determine which of the eight values affect the key performance indicators. Each regression model included one of the dependent variables (i.e. Model 1: 'satisfaction', Model 2: 'loyalty', Model 3: 'WOM'). Stepwise regression was used since there was no indication as to the specific order in which the variables should be entered in the model. The stepwise method means the program selects variables in steps and

variables are included/excluded into the model based on mathematical criteria - the semi-partial correlation is used as a criterion for selection (Bendel & Afifi 1977). After excluding cases with missing values, the final sample for analysis consisted of 287 valid responses ($n=287$).

Results

Table 5 shows the results of the three multiple regression models which were all significant and explained a good

amount of variance. Model 1 ($F(8,278) = 23.389, p < .00$), shows hedonic value as significant in explaining 40% of the total variance in satisfaction with the event ($\beta = .402$). Model 2 ($F(8,278) = 17.662, p < .00$) shows hedonic, social and inspirational values as significant in explaining 34% of the total variance in loyalty ($\beta = .337$). Model 3 ($F(8,278) = 25.821, p < .00$) indicates that hedonic, learning and social values were significant in explaining 43% of the total variance in intention to share positive word-of-mouth for the event ($\beta = .426$).

Taken collectively, we confirm that every outcome variable is predicted by a different set of values.

Conclusion

Our purpose was to help event organisers understand why participants attend events and how this knowledge can be used to improve attendance and keep existing participants loyal. In answering this, we argue for outcomes of events and value to be the main focus for understanding event success. The new event-value scale comprises eight dimensions: hedonic; professional; reputation; learning; relationship; social; inspiration; self-esteem. Unlike much previous work, we have provided definitions for our factors and explored their practical use in determining overall event value. The scale predicts between 34-43% of event KPIs and shows good psychometric and statistical properties, with all Cronbach α s being above .65. Since the scale was derived using a different methodology, namely the 'ideal' event, it is less likely to suffer from situational and event-specific factors and, hence, may be of more use to the MICE industry. As the scale measures additional elements of non-economic value, it allows better estimates of the full value of MICE events. Our results highlight that the relationship between event value and each KPI is different which leads us to our 'value-outcome varies' hypothesis.

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SOCIAL MEDIA MARKETING IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE EVOLUTION OF EUROPEAN HOTELS' APPROACHES FROM 2012 TO 2018

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Abstract

Information and Communication Technologies advances, the development of social media and of mobile devices have changed the customers' journey and the ways consumers interact with companies. The modern customers are more demanding, and they are looking for engaging experiences with peers and with brands they love. Social media give to both consumers and marketers the opportunity to interact, becoming also an important channel for customer care: "social care". Although, at present, social media are mainly marketing and communication tools rather than separate retail channels, the ability to engage customers by means of social media could increase customer loyalty, electronic word-of-mouth and consequently this could have important effects on corporate sales and revenues. Therefore, social media marketing is moving from brand marketing to conversions and sales.

These changes affect in particular the travel sector. Due to the difficulties the tourist has in evaluating an intangible service prior to the consumption, Social media are widely adopted by travellers in all the steps of the travel journey: to gather information, travel planning, decide where to stay and share experiences. User-generated content of other customers supports the travellers especially in the steps of information searching, holiday planning and purchase decisions. In such a context, the development of social media strategies tuned with "social" consumers' expectations becomes increasingly important. Therefore, travel companies should understand which are the most appropriate ways of using social media and the key elements of a successful integrated marketing strategy.

With this in mind, the aim of this study is to investigate the use of social media in the hospitality industry. In particular, the purpose is to compare the results of a previous study (Minazzi, Lagrosen, 2014) with the current situation (2018) and then to understand whether and how social media approaches have changed over time. Main research questions concern: which are the dimensions that influence the use of social networks and which are the ways used by hotel brands to interact with customers by means of social networks?

Quantitative and qualitative research methods have been combined to identify a group of items useful to comprehend the way in which hotels interact with customers on social media. Facebook was chosen as the one still most used by main hotels.

Despite the improvements respect to the situation analysed in 2012, various European hotels are still in the first steps of development of a social media strategy that presents a moderate level of integration among different media and with the corporate strategy. Customer engagement is still sometimes undervalued. The last part of the paper analyses best practices in the hospitality business, i.e. hotels able to adopt a fully integrated social media strategy aimed at learning from consumers and creating customer engagement. Managerial implications are discussed and future possible path of research are identified.

Keywords: Social media; Facebook; hospitality, hotels.

Introduction

Social media have a great influence on purchase decisions across all regions around the world (Nielsen, 2012a) and affect customers' behaviour (Leung, Law, van Hoof, & Buhalis, 2013). The modern consumers are more demanding and looking for engaging experiences with other customers and with brands they love. Social media give to marketers new opportunities to engage with customers, becoming also important channels for customer care (Nielsen, 2012b): "Social Media Customer Care" (SMCC) (Minazzi, 2015). We assist nowadays at the phenomenon of proliferation of social media sites, even if Facebook continue to be the most popular social network (PhoCusWright, 2012). Moreover, thanks to an increasing widespread connectivity, consumers have more opportunities to use social media wherever and whenever they want (Nielsen, 2012b). Social media marketing is moving from the current brand marketing to conversions and sales (PhocusWright, 2012). Even if at present they are mainly considered marketing and communication tools rather than separate retail channels (PwC, 2013), being able to engage customers by means of social media could increase customer loyalty, electronic word-of-mouth (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008) and consequently have important effects on corporate sales and revenues (Dellarocas, 2003; Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Dellarocas & Zhang, 2007). Tourism is particularly affected by the changes previously cited. Travellers use social media in different stages of the consumer behaviour: to gather information, travel planning, decide where to stay, purchase and share experiences (Buhalis & Law, 2008; Cox, Burgess, Sellitto, & Buultjens, 2009; Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; O'Connor, 2008; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010; Inversini, Marchiori, Dedekind, & Cantoni, 2010; Anderson, 2012; Yoo & Gretzel, 2012; Leung et al., 2013, Mauri & Minazzi, 2013). In light of previous trends, hotel companies should be able to synchronize with "social" consumers expectations (Minazzi, 2012), understanding which are the appropriate ways of using social media and the key factors of a successful integrated marketing strategy.

The purpose of the study is to explore how top European hotel brands employ social media.

The aim of this study is to investigate social media approach of top European Hotels. In particular, the purpose is to compare the results of a previous study (Minazzi, Lagrosen, 2014) with the current situation (2018) and then to understand whether and how social media approaches have changed over time. Main research questions concern: which are the dimensions that influence the use of social networks and which are the ways employed by hotel brands to interact with customers by means of social networks?

The paper is divided into three parts: the first part provides the theoretical framework of the study; the second part describes the research methodology; the third part shows and discuss main results of the analysis identifying managerial implications.

Theoretical Framework

Social media development may affect hospitality management in different ways; it could be an opportunity that the company should catch or a threats that the company has to face. As a result, many hotels are unsecure regarding their use of social media (Lagrosen & Josefsson, 2011). Main benefits are connected with the possibility to create a direct relationship with customers and this can generate some benefits. The hotel company could improve customer knowledge and segmentation being able to differentiate the product (Lovett, 2011). The connection between the social medium and the booking engine of the website could stimulating direct room sales (Christou & Nella, 2012), decreasing the amount of commission to be paid to OTAs and other costs of distribution (Noone, McGuire, & Rohlf, 2011). A good position on social media (i.e., social media metrics) could give hotel companies the possibility to increase the hotel rates. Engaging users on social media can increase word-of-mouth (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Godes & Mayzlin, 2009).

On the other hand, the price transparency and dynamism determined by IT and social media developments, along with social media metrics, that are seen as indicators of quality, may influence evaluation of alternatives and consequently increase competition (Lovett, 2011). Hotel companies are pushed in this context to continuously and dynamically align its rates to those of competitors. The literature explores which are the antecedents that lead hotel companies to adopt Web 2.0 strategies. A research stream found that brand affiliation (hotel chain vs. independent hotel) affects the adoption of IT (Wang & Qualls, 2007; Scaglione, Schegg, Steiner, & Murphy, 2005). Hotel chains are characterized by higher availability of financial or human resources, and perceive social media as a way to strengthen a company's brand (Leung, Lee, & Law, 2011; Lagrosen & Josefsson, 2011). Another stream of research studied how IT (mainly the website) is used by hotels to interact with customers. These studies found that there is a connection between company's dimensions (size) and its development of online strategies and interactions (Sigala, 2001; Gilbert & Powell-Perry, 2002; Bai, Hu, & Jang, 2006; Romenti, Minazzi, & Murtarelli, 2011). Smaller companies sometimes use web-solutions in creative and more personalised ways (Lagrosen, 2005). Another group of studies focused on the connection between a company's quality level and the IT adoptions and online interactions orientation of the website. The results show some conflicting positions: some scholars confirm the relationship between the quality level and the website development (Scaglione et al., 2005) and its relationship orientation (Sigala, 2001; Schegg, Steiner, Frey, & Murphy, 2002; Romenti et al., 2011) while others found that sometimes economy hotels demonstrate to have more interest in creating online customer relations (Essawy, 2005).

Therefore, concentrating the attention on social media, the paper wants to explore how top European Hotels brands strategically use social media, understanding which are main factors that influence their strategies.

Research Methodology

The purpose of the paper is to understand the evolution of social media approaches in the hospitality business comparing the behaviour of 12 top European hotel brands in the period 2012-2018. Starting from the results of a previous study (Minazzi, Lagrosen, 2014) the paper investigates main dimensions that influence the use of social networks and the ways used by hotel brands to interact with customers by means of social networks.

Table 1

Categories and items of analysis

Category	Item	Question
Accessibility	Is it easy to find the Facebook page of the hotel brand searching in the Facebook search engine?	1
	Is there a connection to the website of the hotel brand and from the website of the hotel brand?	2, 3, 4
Information	Which kind of information is included in the Facebook page?	5, 5.1
Call to action	Is it possible to check availability and rates directly on the Facebook page?	6
Connections	Is it possible for the user to connect to the profile of the company on other social media (Instagram, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) and to the Mobile Application?	7, 7.1, 8
Performance	Which are the counting metrics on the FB page?	9,10,11
Hotel posts	Hotel posts frequency	12, 13
	Content analysis of posts	14, 15

Research methodology combines quantitative and qualitative research methods. A group of items has been developed to explore how hotels interact with customers by means of social media. The study was conducted in the period February-March 2019 and followed two steps: the first step consisted in the revision of the items used in the previous study adapting it to the current situation; the second step concerned the analysis of the Facebook pages of 12 top European hotel brands by means of the items identified. Respect to the previous 15 we selected the ones remained in the world ranking of the top 50 hotel brands (Hotels Magazine, 2018). To maintain coherence with the previous study hotel brands which are not present in the European countries and hotel brands that mainly offer an extended-stay service were excluded from the analysis.

To be able to compare the results, the Facebook pages of European hotel brands were analysed by means of the 14 items and categories employed in the analysis of 2014. The five categories are: accessibility, information, call to action, connections and performance (Table 1). In the section “Performance” that identifies main counting metrics for social media (Lovett, 2011), we had to adapt the item “people talking about this” because it is no longer visible to the public page of the company, which can now extract this information in the Insights. Considering the community measure publicly available on the Facebook page of companies, people talking about this was substitute by “followers”. Another metric included in the present analysis is “visits” that measure how many people view the page. It’s interesting to analyse this metric because lots of people might be viewing the FB page without clicking Like, and/or may have clicked Like but never visit the page again. The item “were here” was also excluded because generally not available already in the study of 2012.

The second part of the analysis (from item 12 to 14) has the objective of quantifying the number of posts published by the brand in the year (2012 and 2018), studying their frequency during the year. Is there regular pattern in the activity of posting?

The third part of the study provides a content analysis of all the posts published in 2018 undertaken on the basis of the items included in question number 14 (from 14.1 to 14.25) and aimed at quantifying the number of posts for each content category. The list of categories has been adapted to the case of the hotel business from a study of Hays, Page, and Buhalis (2012), which analysed the use of Facebook and Twitter by destination management organizations.

Finally, we conducted a statistical test selecting variables from previous empirical studies; dependent variables such as the propensity to interact on line, number of like, number of followers, number of posts acted as proxies to assess the efficient use of social media by hotels, and their

performance; explanatory variables used have been size, growth, quality, rank, longevity, that have been used to define the constructs and possible cause-effect relationships.

The study adopts a descriptive research approach, and uses primary and secondary data collected through the administration of questionnaires, and from dedicated databases. Data were processed and analysed, by performing different multiple linear regressions aimed at detecting significant relationships; descriptive statistics and inferential statistics are used to present constructs and to establish relevant links.

Results and Discussion

General features of the Facebook page

The first part of the analysis has the objective to investigate 4 categories: accessibility, information, call to action and connections. Results of items from 1 to 4 give us information about “accessibility”. Confirming the results of the previous study, almost all the Facebook pages of the hotel brands analysed can be easily found in the first 7 results of the Facebook search box (91.7%). In all the cases there is a clear connection from the Facebook page to the hotel brand website and, conversely, 75% of hotel brands has a connection from the hotel website to the Facebook page. Nearly 75% of the hotel brands’ Facebook pages have also a connection with the loyalty scheme of the company, improving the previous result of 2012 (27%). Sometimes, hotel multi-branding groups has specific Facebook pages for the loyalty program common for all the brands of the group.

Concerning the items related to “information”, hotel brands’ Facebook pages give general information describing the hotel brand (66.7%), the mission (66.7%) and the brand history (75%). Respect to the previous study (40%), all the hotel brands analysed give the users information about corporate contacts (telephone number, e-mail, Skype, etc.) even though sometimes minimal (i.e. website or an email). In this way, they give a direct and easy alternative to the direct message on Facebook. The impression is that hotel brands have selected the most useful information to be given on Facebook using a more synthetic approach than in the past.

The Facebook page continue to be considered a channel that can increase sales and then a great opportunity for hotel companies to overcome online travel agencies decreasing the amount of commissions to be paid. This is demonstrated by the presence of a “Call to action” request to followers (the “book now” function) on the Facebook home page (83.3%).

Concerning the level of “connection” of the Facebook page with other social media, the new design of the page shows generally two kind of connections present in the 58,3% of the cases (Instagram and Youtube). Otherwise, the link are no longer available or present technical problems in the connection. However, hotel brands analysed have profiles also on other social media as indicated generally in the website of the company. The most employed are Facebook and Twitter, followed by Instagram and Youtube. It is no clear if the lack of connection on the Facebook Page is due to technical problems during the period of analysis or to lack of an integrated strategy.

Table 2
Hotel brand measures (order according to the world ranking 2018)

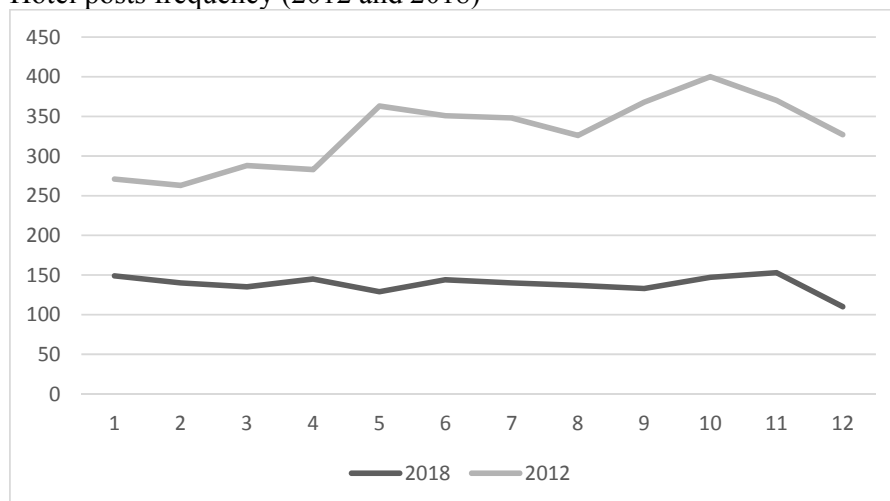
BRAND	Rank 2018/2012		quality *	N. rooms 2012	N. rooms 2018	2012		2018					comparison		N. posts replying to someone	propensity to reply
	like	n. posts				like	followers	visits	n. posts	unfollowing/unlike	var % posts	var % like				
Holiday Inn Express (2012)	1	4	E	196,666	262,398	23.238	23	1,065,399	1,059,011	1,869,659	26	6,388	13,0%	4485%	18	69,2%
Hampton (2009)	3	6	M	181,087	237,334	312.754	484	392,190	373,198	Na	123	18,992	-74,6%	25%	40	32,5%
Holiday Inn (2008)	4	2	M	225,328	232,693	452.395	354	1,058,438	1,048,186	3,528,653	42	10,252	-88,1%	134%	20	47,6%
Hilton Hotels & Resorts (2009)	6	5	U	196,151	211,423	1.010.608	182	1,868,850	1,869,822	Na	71	- 972	-61,0%	85%	4	5,6%
Best Western (2009)	11	1	M	311,894	155,955	687.308	565	1,169,379	1,116,882	4,710,240	484	52,497	-14,3%	70%	172	35,5%
Ibis Hotels (2011)	13	15	E	113,077	145,081	103.308	152	1,821,498	1,822,149	5,341,573	204	- 651	34,2%	1663%	116	56,9%
Double Tree (2009)	16	27	U	70,793	123,773	203.655	336	485,644	474,196	7,896,566	108	11,448	-67,9%	138%	59	54,6%
Crowne Plaza (2011)	19	16	U	105,104	114,800	80.440	249	386,465	382,936	5,250,014	38	3,529	-84,7%	380%	15	39,5%
Novotel (2012)	25	24	M	74,117	92,843	38.010	104	590,295	590,315	6,957,846	141	- 20	35,6%	1453%	38	27,0%
Radisson (2011)	31	20	M	94,436	71,898	77.159	371	121,675	119,651	137,105	302	2,024	-18,6%	58%	14	4,6%
Premiere Inn (2010)	33	38	M	48,725	71,282	67.602	136	290,560	284,700	3,807,434	52	5,860	-61,8%	330%	48	92,3%
Intercontinental Hotels and Resorts (2008)	35	32	U	57,598	65,745	38.654	69	581,345	580,706	1,246,173	72	639	4,3%	1404%	18	25,0%

All the 12 brands analysed have a Mobile application but only 8% promote it with a specific link on the Facebook page. Respect to the analysis of 2012 there is an increase in the use of Mobile Apps but a decrease in the activity of promoting them in the Facebook page. Sometimes, Hotel Mobile apps are also more than one (of the brand, of the group of the rewarding program). Therefore, the hotel companies investigated realize the potentiality of Mobile technologies and applications but only a few manage them in integration with other social media. This use of “connections” seem to indicate that the majority of the hotel chains are not always aware of the opportunities to create interactions between communication channels, developing an integrated social media strategy.

Counting metrics

Table 2 shows the Facebook statistics gathered during the analysis. From 2012 to 2018 we notice an increase in the number of Likes (+218%) especially for: Intercontinental Hotels and Resorts, Ibis hotels, Novotels and Holiday Inn Express. This hotel brands are also the ones that increase the number of posts published in one year (from 2012 to 2018) differently from other hotel brands characterized by a decrease in the number of post published. However, they are not the cases characterized by the highest number of posts. Comparing years 2012 and 2018 and identifying the distribution for each month, the results shows how the total amount of posts published in one year is generally decreased. Moreover, we notice a more balanced pattern over months respect to the previous analysis of 2012 that presented a concentration in Spring and Summer. Therefore, the Facebook page is continuously managed by the company from the point of view of the number of post published. Moreover, the results seems to confirm that the number of posts do not influence the number of “like” and “followers”. In fact, hotel brands that publish a high number of posts often do not excel in other counting metrics. For example, Best western and Radisson published more than 300 posts during 2018 but they are not in the first positions of the ranking for number of “like” and number of “followers”. This could underline the importance of the content of the post rather than of the quantity. In fact, in the case of Hilton, at the first position for number of “like” and number of “followers”, we found a lower number of posts published in comparison to other brands (71 posts in 2018).

Figure 1.
Hotel posts frequency (2012 and 2018)



Concerning longevity of the Facebook Page, early adopters of Facebook (2008) are Holiday Inn and Intercontinental Hotels & Resorts. The regression analysis (Table 4)

shows that Followers appears to be positively related to longevity. Obviously, the number of years the Hotel brand is active on the Page could contribute to the development of people following the page.

Table 3
Correlation Matrix

	Longev-y	Rank2018	Quality	LnR-2018	LnRoom-e	IncrRo-t	LnLike	LnFoll-s	LnVisits	LnNPost	Varposts	Varlike	Propen-y
Longevity	1.0000												
Rank2018	0.1981	1.0000											
Quality	0.5343	0.5209	1.0000										
LnRoom2018	-0.1752	-0.9932	-0.5503	1.0000									
LnRoomIncr-e	-0.4975	-0.3411	-0.4727	0.3048	1.0000								
IncrRoompe-t	-0.0593	0.0858	0.0519	-0.1356	0.7780	1.0000							
LnLike	-0.1182	-0.6660	-0.6989	0.6652	0.1876	-0.2754	1.0000						
LnFollowers	-0.1219	-0.6608	-0.6982	0.6603	0.1818	-0.2832	0.9999	1.0000					
LnVisits	-0.2837	-0.0803	0.0790	-0.0087	0.2202	0.3854	-0.1307	-0.1344	1.0000				
LnNPost	-0.0530	0.2942	-0.0497	-0.3632	0.1409	0.2750	0.2422	0.2437	0.5088	1.0000			
Varposts	-0.5005	0.0734	-0.5373	-0.0704	0.3238	-0.0414	0.4984	0.5052	-0.2024	0.4861	1.0000		
Varlike	-0.5661	-0.3949	-0.6448	0.4302	0.5176	-0.0464	0.4808	0.4838	-0.4935	-0.2387	0.6738	1.0000	
Propensity-y	-0.1456	-0.1561	-0.4490	0.1809	0.5374	0.4954	-0.1037	-0.1115	0.0271	-0.2817	-0.2317	0.1069	1.0000

Table 4
Regression analysis

. regress LnFollowers Longevity Quality LnRoom2018 Propensitytoreply

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	12
Model	2.7521845	4	.688046124	F(4, 7)	=	1.09
Residual	4.41786035	7	.631122908	Prob > F	=	0.4303
				R-squared	=	0.3838
				Adj R-squared	=	0.0318
Total	7.17004485	11	.651822259	Root MSE	=	.79443

LnFollowers	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
Longevity	-.0789301	.2058455	0.38	0.713	-.4078171 .5656774
Quality	-.1113163	.4705499	-0.24	0.820	-1.22399 1.001357
LnRoom2018	.9019786	.5351414	1.69	0.136	-.3634297 2.167387
Propensitytoreply	.0628842	1.051061	0.06	0.954	-2.42248 2.548248
_cons	2.275298	6.426805	0.35	0.734	-12.92168 17.47228

Hilton Hotels & Resorts, Ibis and Best Western are the hotel brands with the highest metrics considering both the number of “Like” and “Followers”. This two metrics are generally similar as should be. However, we tried to calculate a measure of “unfollowing” and “unlike” that are generally negative hints for Facebook. In the previous study (2012) we had noticed that the number of “like” and the number of people “talking about this” often did not correspond presenting generally a high gap. There were a lot of people that like the page but that then did not interact with it. In the present study, it is no longer possible to calculate the “activity index” based on the measure “people talking about it” because it is no longer visible on the public page of the hotel brand. However, using followers and visits it is possible to point out other interesting comments. Generally, there is a high gap between visits and other measures (Like and Followers). This means that someone has visited the page but that he/she decide not to like or follow it (i.e., Double tree, Crowne Plaza, Ibis). A possible reason of the loss of these users could be a communication strategy on the Facebook page maybe not much oriented to customer engagement. More details are given in the content analysis. Concerning, unfollowing and unlike, Hilton, Ibis, Novotel are the only three cases of unlike, the others presents a number of “Like” higher than the number of “Followers”. This means that users decided to unfollow the page. Hampton and Holiday Inn have the highest gap of “unfollowing” but this seems not to be connected with other performance metrics of the Facebook page. For example, Holiday Inn has in any case a high number of Like (1.058.438) and of Followers (1.048.186). This confirms, as in the previous study of 2012, that the number of “Like” is not maybe the most suitable metric to evaluate the success of the corporate Facebook page

(O'Neill, 2011). The “like” option is more related to a single initial action while other indicators can measure actually people who desire to interact with the Facebook page actively. It can really express the community volume of activity. Observing Table 3 the correlation analysis shows that counting metrics seem to be connected with the size of the hotel brand but not with quality. In particular, if we concentrate on the “Followers”, that is people that are interested to be in touch with the company, the regression analysis (Table 4) shows a positive relationship between Followers and Size while a negative relationship with quality. Indeed, we notice that the top five is composed by hotel brands very different considering the quality level, and the hotel group. Therefore, regarding the debate in research as to whether there is a relationship between quality level and website interactivity as proposed by Scaglione et al. (2005), our study, as in 2012, does not confirm such a relationship. Neither, does it support the findings of Essawy (2005) that budget hotels are more effective in creating social media interaction. Rather, we found no relationship between social media interactivity and quality level, size or brand affiliation. Probably, more organizational and/or personal factors determine the level of commitment to social media marketing. This is something that should be explored in further in-depth studies.

Hotel posts content analysis

Moving to the content analysis we analysed the posts published in 2018 on the Facebook page of the investigated hotel brands to be compared to 2012 (Figure 2). The content analysis repeated in 2018 confirms the results of 2012. The dimension that express the dialogic orientation of the brand maintain low percentage Posts that ask for collaboration, that respond to something and someone altogether represents less than 2% of the total posts. The majority of posts as in 2012 includes multimedia content such as photo (69.5%), video (19.5%) and audio (17.5%). Respect to 2012 the number of posts present a link to another website has decreased (24.7%). This result is positive because express a higher effort of the hotel brand in creating authentic content for Facebook. Indeed, moving people to another website interrupt the interaction with the user and consequently the opportunity of engagement. The promotion orientation of the posts is confirmed (75.6%) and the percentage has increased (+60%). hotel brands promote in particular a specific hotel (23%) and has increased the promotion of destinations (40%). A limited role is played by contests that are not much considered as a way to engage the users: only 5% of the posts are contest related. Due to the high promotional orientation of the posts, the general impression is that the use of the Facebook page is more similar to traditional web marketing strategies used on the website. However, before concluding it is useful in this second round of research to investigate the propensity to reply to comments (how many posts with a reply of the hotel brand) that is the actual way companies have to interact with FB users. The posts are generally directed in general to all FB users and is often a starting point for a dialogue with users. The regression analysis (Table 5) shows that the propensity to reply is positively related to Like, Size and Longevity but negatively related with Quality of the hotel brand. Large hotels with more experience on Facebook show more propensity to reply. The impression is that Hotel groups develop specific social media strategies in replying to FB comments common for all the brands of the group (i.e., IHG, Accor). For example, the brands of the group IHG use Facebook for Social Media Customer Care to respond to complaints and to give other kind of information. Sometimes, companies with less posts show a more commitment in responding to comments creating a dialogue (Premiere Inn, Double Tree). Hilton and Radisson are the brands that show the lower propensity to reply to users' comments. In these two cases posts seems to be more promotional and less engaging. From a strictly qualitative perspective, the impression of the researcher during the analysis is that the hotel brands that replies to comments generate a debate that increase

users' comments. This could be a future line of research to be explored and demonstrated by means of a quantitative analysis. The positive relationship between propensity to reply and Like underline the importance of replying to comments to influence social media metrics.

Conclusions

The objective of this paper was to understand how widespread the use of social media in the hotel business is. In particular, we focused on the case of some leading European hotel brands the strategies used on their Facebook pages comparing a study conducting in 2012 with the current situation of 2018. The approach used by companies is mainly confirmed. Facebook is the most used social media used generally to promote the hotel brands trying to stimulate sales (as demonstrated by the content analysis and the presence of the “book now” function in almost all the brands analysed). The attempt is to convert social networking and sharing among customers into sales (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Dellarocas, 2003). Results show that the potentiality of engagement remains undervalued. Engagement has the power to could increase customer loyalty, electronic word-of-mouth, and therefore sales. The posts content analysis shows mainly a promotional focus. The dialogic dimensions able to create an online interaction with users presents very low percentages. In this round of research, we tried to add a new variable represented by the propensity to reply to users' comments. It is interesting to notice that in some cases hotel groups develop common strategies of response for the various hotel brands. In these cases, Facebook is used for Social Media Customer Care (Minazzi, 2015).

Figure 2.

Posts' content analysis

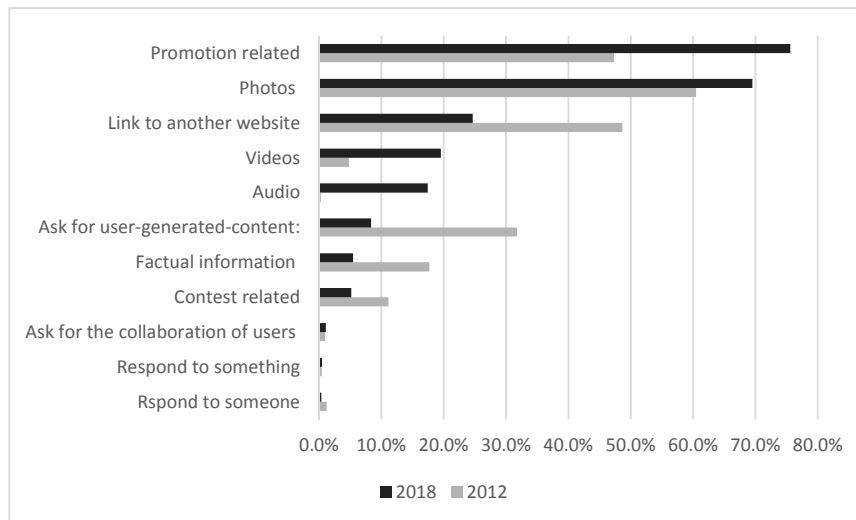


Table 5

Regression analysis: Propensity to reply

```
. regress Propensitytoreply LnRoomIncrease Longevity Rank2018 Quality LnVisits Varp
```

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	8
Model	.347370765	6	.057895127	F(6, 1)	=	63.47
Residual	.000912237	1	.000912237	Prob > F	=	0.0958
				R-squared	=	0.9974
				Adj R-squared	=	0.9817
Total	.348283001	7	.049754714	Root MSE	=	.0302

Propensityto-y	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
LnRoomIncrease	.1801648	.0169857	10.61	0.060	-.035659 .3959885
Longevity	.0021923	.0099887	0.22	0.862	-.1247262 .1291108
Rank2018	.0127247	.0012624	10.08	0.063	-.0033159 .0287654
Quality	-.2922124	.0228973	-12.76	0.050	-.5831504 -.0012745
LnVisits	-.0703412	.0211133	-3.33	0.186	-.3386112 .1979288
Varposts	-.4665527	.0318623	-14.64	0.043	-.8714016 -.0617038
_cons	.0413245	.3716869	0.11	0.930	-4.681405 4.764054

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs	=	12
Model	7.07952618	3	2.35984206	F(3, 8)	=	7579.47
Residual	.002490772	8	.000311347	Prob > F	=	0.0000
				R-squared	=	0.9996
				Adj R-squared	=	0.9995
Total	7.08201695	11	.643819723	Root MSE	=	.01765

LnLike	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]
Propensitytoreply	.010621	.0213748	0.50	0.633	-.0386693 .0599114
LnFollowers	.9921162	.0066962	148.16	0.000	.9766749 1.007558
Longevity	.0047727	.0037788	1.26	0.242	-.0039412 .0134865
_cons	.0773935	.0898003	0.86	0.414	-.1296864 .2844733

Differently from the previous study, hotel brands seems to be more committed in the Facebook page management. They use less links to other websites, paying more attention in the creation of specific content for Facebook. In this sense, the content is improved especially with information about the destination and attractions.

From the side of social counting metrics, Facebook metrics seem not to be connected with size but not with the quality level of the company. Like is a tricky measure that considers people that do not interact with the page. Companies should pay attention on other measure more related to interactions (i.e., gap between visits and Like, unfollowing, unlike, number of comments). Moreover, the moderate level of connection between Facebook and other Social media and Mobile apps could be a signal that each social medium is considered separately rather than as integrated tools of a coordinated strategy. The meaning could be a gradual development of social media strategy that presents a moderate level of integration.

From the managerial implication perspective, hotel brands should focus less on the measure “Like” investing more on interactions. A hotel company should monitor the gap between people that visit the page and other metrics (Like and Followers). Other indicators to be considered are unfollowing and unlike as long as the number of comments a post is able to generate. The number of posts is not necessarily connected with Like and Followers, therefore it is sometimes better to publish less posts but able to create interactions. Therefore, strategies aimed at creating a more interaction with users replying to their posts and asking for their collaboration and experience could create a higher level of engagement influencing maybe also customer loyalty, word-of-mouth and sales. As resulted in the paper, the propensity to reply to posts positively affect the number of Like. Finally, brands should develop an integrated communication strategy that include social media and traditional marketing, and aligned with the rest of corporate strategies.

This study has the following limitations. First, the sample should be enlarged to more cases and a longer period. This could offer a more comprehensive analysis of social media usage by hotel brands. Second, a change in the metrics used by Facebook do not allow a perfect comparison between the two analysis. New indicators more in line with the current situation have been developed to compensate this problem. Third, the study considers mainly the social counting indicators from a customer perspective, that is the metrics that the user can see on the Facebook page and that could influence his perception. It could be interesting to match these results with other metrics that are provided by Facebook Insights for companies.

Finally, future research could study more in depth the content of posts trying to understand the level of interaction reached by the hotel brands. New indicators that express the interaction of hotel brands with users and popularity could be considered (i.e., the number of comments for each post) and their correlation with other metrics.

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CASE STUDIES OF SUCCESSFUL COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM FROM THE
UNITED KINGDOM AND AUSTRALIA: LESSONS FOR AFRICAN
DESTINATIONS

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Abstract

The success of CBT projects depends on a number of principles that govern the development and sustainability of CBT projects; CBT projects have to fulfil the criteria that make them economically sensible as well as socially, culturally and ecologically compatible with the communities in which it takes place. The active participation of the host community in CBT plays an essential role in successful improvement of living conditions. CBT projects are premised on the community being an active player and curator of the tourism experience within their community or geographical location. Community-based tourism has been promoted since the 1970s as a way of raising living standards for the rural poor and empowering local communities. In many localities, tourism has been happening with the exclusion of the host community. In many instances, tourism has been used as a means to exclude tourism activities have been happening, but the main issue was that host communities have been excluded previously. There exclusion of host communities from tourism has led to the economic leakage from tourism, making it a type of plantation economy.

Two cases studies of successful CBT projects are investigated and analysed, one from the United Kingdom and one from Australia. These two successful CBT projects provide lessons that could be used in many developing countries, specifically located on the African continent. The lessons learned for the African Tourism Destinations in CBT development indicates that the community members have to be involved from the inception of the projects, in fact, all stakeholders have to be involved in the initial phase. The major reason that the communities have to be involved from the initial planning is to avoid antagonism that would let to the project failure and sabotage the whole idea of improving the livelihoods of the host community.

From what we have learnt the most important factor in the implementation of CBT projects is the extent of involvement of local community and the extent of control it has over CBT projects. Moreover, incorporating the community members in the tourism planning and management decision-making process, assist them in understanding that they are part of the tourist product; assists them to acclimatize to changes easily, and also helps to open their minds to new ideas regarding the implementation of the CBT projects.

Keywords: Community-based tourism, sustainability, sustainable development, sustainable tourism, pro-poor tourism, African tourism

Introduction

Community-based tourism (CBT) has been promoted as a way of development whereby the socio-cultural, environmental and economic needs of local communities are met through tourism product offerings. CBT is known to contribute to social and economic survival of the marginalised communities in developing countries and the preservation of natural resources in the affected areas. In developing countries tourism has often been observed as the spin around for small-scale enterprises and job creation, and therefore the uplifting of local community's standard of living. According to Suriya (2007:3) CBT is been heavily promoted worldwide, but its viability and sustainability are uncertain due to its nature of generating low income, which means that CBT projects take long before the benefits are delivered to the community. As a result the community loses patience in waiting for the growing stage. Tourism activities in most cases are controlled by community leaders and the richest group of community members dominate the scene and income generation opportunities. The situation then violates the ideology of CBT which aims for the sharing of benefits amongst the community members (Kaosa-ard et al., 2006:1-24).

Where CBT is practiced well there is a potential to provide some exceptional opportunities for communities by offering not only better benefits but also enhancing their contribution in planning and management of tourism in their community. To progress towards sustainability, CBT must contribute to the empowerment of host communities. To achieve this, communities must be allowed to participate in decision-making where important information is needed, with the early stages of empowerment permitting the community to deciding their own development. Community capacity building, as one of the vital factors in CBT success, guarantees the exclusive benefits of tourism to the local community by developing skills, knowledge and entrepreneurial determination to develop into part of the tourism industry, which leads to the reduction of negative impacts. CBT by focusing on the community, seeks to create an economic means for the community that would create economic robustness for the community, a form of economic diversification. This improves the ability of the community to have several revenue streams.

Methodology: Case Study Research

The research method used was case study research. "Case study method enables a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context...Case studies, in their true essence, explore and investigate contemporary real-life phenomenon through detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships" Zainal (2007: 2). Gustafsson (2017) noted that case study is based on a qualitative material and

therefore secondary sources, which includes scientific articles, case studies and other literature. Zainal (2007) noted that researches can adopt either a single-case or multiple-case design. In the context of the research paper, two case studies were used, which means

it is multiple-case design. Feagin, Orum & Sjoberg (1991) noted that case study is defined as in-depth, multifaceted investigation, using qualitative research methods, of a single social phenomenon. "Case studies have been criticised by some as lack of scientific rigour and reliability and that they do not address the issues of generalisation. However, there are some strengths of case study. For example, it enables the researcher to gain a holistic view of a certain phenomenon or series of events and can provide a round picture" Noor (2008: 1603).

Theoretical Framework: Community-Based Tourism

As almost all countries have jumped on the tourism 'bandwagon', countries have also been on the 'conveyor belt' of attracting tourism to their destinations. Attracting tourism is part of the economic development plans of almost all countries, due to the positive economic impacts of tourism on a destination area. The existence of a tourism at a destination is supposedly supposed to contribute towards the standard of living for the host community and contribute to an improved Quality-of-Life (QoL). However, there are cases where tourism has existed at a destination area, and produced limited benefits for the locals and the local economy. Alternative forms of tourism have emerged to mitigate mass tourism which has been associated with limited benefits for the local economy. CBT is associated with alternative tourism as form of alternative tourism. "Alternative forms of tourism, such as those which although they are different, namely community-based tourism and responsible tourism have been advanced as a strategy associated with community development" Giampiccoli & Saayman (2017:1). "The primary purpose of CBT as a community development outcome is to provide development opportunities that distribute benefits that otherwise do not exist across a community. These benefits include economic returns, while also empowering a community with the skills and resources to develop sustainable tourism enterprises.

This form of CBT focuses on removing constraints to participate in tourism and developing human capital" Harwood (2010: 1911). "The origins of CBT have been associated to the reaction to mass tourism, such that it emerged as a possible and plausible panacea to the adverse effects of mass tourism in developing countries" Giampiccoli, Jugmohan & Mtapuri (2015: 1203). CBT is obsessed with ensuring that the community benefit, and the power structure that controls the tourism industry is vested within the community. CBT is therefore tourism initiated by the community for the community's benefit. Giampiccoli & Saayman (2016) noted that CBT is not based on voluntarism of the mainstream tourism sector, but is a form of tourism that starts from within the community. CBT is therefore pro-poor by nature, as it seeks to alleviate the challenges of the host community. Goh (2015) noted that CBT is hope to carry tourism benefits to the poor by generating the money from the CBT project. CBT becomes the means to an end, to allow the host community to receive benefits from tourism. Therefore, the end of CBT is community empowerment which is able to build social cohesion, social and economic capital of the community. "CBT is advocated for the economic gains generated from tourism which can be widely distributed thereby supporting the poverty alleviation objective" Goh (2015: 43).

The tourism industry is located within the neoliberal doctrine, and dominated by international capital, and this has limited the participation and ownership of the tourism industry by locals. It is in the long-term interest of the tourism industry to allow for local control and ownership, to ensure that the host community has a vested interest in the industry and become better hosts.

Giampiccoli, Jugmohan & Mtapuri (2015) used the Eight E's model to present indicators for CBT:

Endogenous-CBT should be an indigenous local effort, should rely on local resources and cultures, and so on;

Environment-especially when reference is made to community-based ecotourism. This group, should also include issues regarding health and sanitation in the sense of environmental conditions and also include available infrastructures;

Education-increase in skills and education related to CBT and generally;

Empowerment-entails holistic empowerment which embraces economic, psychological, social and political empowerment;

Equity-equal distribution (and working towards re-distribution) of benefits and resources amongst the people involved and in the wider society;

Evolving-always improving and changing bases base on the need and the specific changing conditions and opportunities, for example, from informal to formal sector;

Enduring-long term sustainability in all various aspects (cultural, economic, environmental and social);

Entrepreneurship-keep in consideration all the entrepreneurial characteristics. The CBT ventures are, like any other business, has to be economically viable, with proper accountability, a management system, appropriate decision-making processes, networking and so on.

Involving the community in planning tourism projects can benefit communities as such, as noted by Harwood (2010):

Enhance local socio economic benefits;

Increase the limits of local tolerance through participation by locals in the tourism development process;

Assist communities to be more responsive to intensifying competition from the globalization of trade, business and travel; and

Help secure the commitment of local people, without which the sustainable development of tourism in extremely difficult if not impossible.

The community that has initiated CBT will accrue social capital, from mutual trust, collective identity through working as a collective and sharing a future. The same social capital that is an outcome of a successful CBT project would make the host community pleasant tourism experiences. A pleasant experience provided by the host community is increasingly being sought after as tourists seek authentic experiences. CBT must partner with external entities to acquire some skills, mentorship and finance to make the CBT successful. "The community forms some kind of partnership with an external entity, and the resultant benefits will depend on the precise relationships or type of agreement in place, and even more importantly" Giampiccoli & Mtapuri (2012: 36). In summary, the case studies of successful international examples of CBT projects revealed that the following issues must be considered when planning for CBT in Africa:

Community empowerment must be applied at all phases of the project; Capacity building in the community should be of prime importance;

There should be sufficient communication amongst role players; Projections on investment in marketing need to be clearly defined;

Maintenance of high standards that will position the project well in the market is important;

It is important to place big emphasis on a solid set-up plan for any project to prosper; Regular monitoring of the project activities must take place at all phases of the project;

Resources must be available to support cbt projects;

Benefit sharing (partnerships) between all role players is vital;

Involvement of local people in activities so that they feel a sense of ownership of the project;

Roles and responsibilities of all role players should be clearly defined;

A sense of commitment is needed amongst the local people and other role players.

Strydom, Mangope & Henama (2018: 3) "CBT is not trying to attract the same tourists as mass tourism destinations, but tourists who are interested in ensuring their tourism expenditure is retained by the community and directed to improve the Quality-of-Life and standard of living of the host community". The obsession of CBT is about the needs of the host first, instead of the intention of mass tourism, where the needs of the tourists superseded those of the community.

Why Tourism in Africa

"Tourism is a powerful vehicle for economic growth and job creation all over the world. The tourism sector is directly and indirectly responsible for 8.8% of the world's jobs (258 million), 9.1% of the world's gross domestic product (GDP) (\$6 trillion), 5.8% of the world's exports (\$1.1 trillion), and 4.5% of the world's investments" Christie et al. (2014:1). "Tourism is an important sector for African economies. The sector has expanded significantly since the mid-1990s, with the number of tourist arrivals to the continent doubling from 24 million between 1995 and 1998, to 48 million between 2005 and 2008 and increasing to 56 million between 2011 and 2014. In terms of growth, international tourist arrivals to Africa grew by an average of 6% per year during the period under review, 1995-2014" United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. (2018). Naude & Saayman (2004) noted that tourism to Africa has grown significantly since 1990, especially in Southern Africa which has grown by 94% between 1990 and 2002. "The various records from African countries over the past decade show the increasing importance attached to tourism development by various governments" Brown (1995: 238). "The importance of developing tourism in this continent cannot be over-

emphasised” Dieke (2003: 295). According to Christie & Crompton (2001) noted that countries in Africa are now focusing on tourism as a source for growth and diversification. “Tourism in terms of its contribution to gross domestic product, employment and trade is an important sector in many African economies, and its growth is increasingly driven by tourists generating from the continent itself. However, many African countries still face significant challenges and constraints in exploiting the potential of tourism services in trade and economic development” United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2017:1). Many African countries have jumped on the tourism bandwagon as a means to diversify their fragile economies, that are linked to primary industries and extraction industries. Tourism was promoted by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) in Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) to promote export growth through tourism trade. “The attraction of foreign exchange through tourism is able to diversify the export based of a country” Henama (2018:4). “The tourism industry is an export industry because the tourism product is consumed at the destination area, and hence it has to be consumed on site, at the destination. Tourism offerings are characterised by fixed location, which means that the highly sought after tourism experience can only be produced at the destination area, and the tourist must travel to the destination area” Henama (2013:231). In the absence of tourism, it would be impossible for the majority of African countries to attract foreign exchange.

The West remains the major source market for international tourism, and Africa sees the West as a means to attract cash laden international tourists to come and spend in African economies. “Tourism travel flow and directions are also characterised by ‘core-periphery’ relations—a reminder of the gap between the affluent-developed and poor-developing worlds” Dieke (2013: 624). United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2010) noted that nearly 80% is intraregional, and the share of intraregional tourism ranges from over 40% in

Africa. “Tourism is very much welcomed by local communities, because it is perceived as a source of income and thus the reasons for development seem to be justified, since it benefits indigenous communities” Novelli & Gebhardt (2007: 475). Tourism has experienced a sustainable growth trajectory over the past 50 years, which has attracted the attention of policy makers, government and the private sector. The sustained growth of tourism has attracted almost all countries, in the developed and developing world, using tourism as development tool. The habit of holidays has become institutionalised in many countries, leading to a culture of undertaking holidays. This has increased the critical mass of tourists and the emergence of new and redeveloped destinations. “Modern tourism is closely linked to development and encompasses a growing number of destinations” Giampiccoli & Saayman (2016:1). According to Giampiccoli, Jugmohan & Mtapuri (2015) tourism has been presented as a tool for development in many countries. This is particularly imperative for a developing continent such as Africa, where poverty, unemployment and inequality are synonymous with the continent.

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2017) noted that most African countries face significant challenges and constraints in exploiting the potential of tourism services. African countries experience higher levels of leakage from the tourism industry, which limits the developmental potential of tourism in Africa. “While it is true that the issue of leakage may not be totally avoidable in Third World tourism development, it is also fair to speculate that the policies and practices of Multinational Corporations (MNCs) ownership and management of tourism projects contribute to exacerbate the problems. Their managers are often reluctant to purchase local foodstuffs and supplies” Brown (1995: 240). What is pressing for Africa is finding economic growth that would absorb excess labour, as a result of a young population as a result of a demographic dividend. “Youth unemployment is another critical concern as Africa has a young population.

Tourism is playing an important role in generating jobs for young people” United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2017: 4). The arrival of tourists at the destination area, leads the state to create infrastructure that benefits the locals and the tourists, the sharing of infrastructure. “Although tourism development results in the provision of facilities and services, there are, however, instances when these facilities are not accessible to local residents” Dieke (2003: 288).

“Government could begin by reducing visa bureaucracy and improving information and communications technology, security, underdeveloped health care, airlines and transport infrastructure” United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2017:4). The costs to travel within Africa are high, due to low levels of integration between countries due to anti-competitive aviation policies. Many African countries have been slow to open their skies, and have not fully implemented the Single Aviation Market for Africa. Naude & Saayman (2004) noted that transport costs to Africa are high. The cost of travel will continue to decrease as more low cost carriers (LCCs) enter the domestic and international aviation market in Africa. United Nations World Tourism Organisation (2011) noted that international arrivals in emerging economy destinations are expected to keep growing at double the pace (+4.4% year). In addition to aviation, many African countries do not allow for the free movement of people which has been proved to support trade in other continents. Africa has a poor image, and the tourism industry is an image sensitive industry. African countries experience greater levels of conflict, and political instability, which usually leads to source countries in the West would usually issue travel warnings, that dampen travel demand. Naude & Saayman (2004) noted that there is a “neighbourhood effect” of instability in one country will be associated with the whole region. “Despite its positive endowments and good growth in tourism over the past decade, it remains true that Africa’s tourism potential is underutilized and underdeveloped” Naude & Saayman (2004: 2). African government must adopt a Whole-of-Government-Approach-to-Tourism which is a comprehensive methodology on planning the success of the tourism industry by actively removing the red tape that negatively impacts on tourism. The success of tourism in Africa depends on ensuring that local communities benefit directly from the tourism trade as part of the value chain, as participators instead of actors.

Case Study 1: Organig Parc, Carnguwch, Llithfaen, Gwynedd – Wales, United Kingdom

The United Kingdom

Background

Organig Parc is in a designated area of outstanding natural beauty right in the heart of the Lleyn Peninsula, a special and enchanting part of North Wales. The Lleyn is blessed with beautiful coves and superb sandy beaches as well as 60 miles of Heritage Coast to explore; the local town has beautiful shopping streets and also boasts a romantic castle overlooking the sea, whilst other fine castles can be seen at the nearby towns Farm Holiday Guide staff (FHG), 2005:6). According to Francis et al. (2010:2-3) the 300 acre organic farm build of stone walls with trees around the buildings, the two water shuts, the mill stream and the provision of wind powered lights on the road leading to the farm and within are all evidence of the care and attention provided by Richard Ellis who came to this family farm 30 years ago to farm with his 29 year old son. The farm was converted to organic production in 2000 and currently stocked with Limousin cattle and 250 Lleyn sheep, all now inside for the winter.

Creation of the enterprise

According to Farm Holiday Guide (FHG) (2005:2-4) this farm was originally planned to be sustainable for future generations and the continuation of employment opportunities for local people and later in 2001 the farm was converted to holiday accommodation. Work was originally interrupted by the foot and mouth epidemic which devastated many farming businesses in North Wales. The creation of environmentally friendly accommodation was uppermost in the minds of the family. However, eco-friendly construction materials and techniques inevitably increased demand for investment and the family was fortunate in obtaining a grant from the Welsh Tourist board (now Visit Wales). In 2002 the original slate roofs were restored and the exterior stone painted with lime mortar. Floors were laid with locally sourced Welsh slate and oak, old beams salvaged and used as lintels above the fireplaces in the lounges and wood used for the double glazed windows and patio doors. Walls were well insulated throughout with local sheep's wool, and the use of oil fired rayburn stoves provided background heat in addition to constant hot water and cooking facilities. Ample supply of water is available off the hills and the use of aura organic paints ensures low toxicity interiors with virtually no threat to those visitors prone to allergic reactions. Open for business in 2004, this five star accommodation at Organig Parc won the 2007 CLA Rural Buildings Award for Wales. This award provides public recognition for landowners and farmers who "go the extra mile" in constructing or converting farm buildings (Francis et al., 2010:12).

Facilities

According to FHG (2005:9-10), there are five holiday cottages - each with outstanding views of the surrounding countryside and mountains - that can accommodate between three and six visitors. A welcome pack of basic foods is available on arrival and breakfast is provided on request. The houses are furnished and equipped to the highest standards, with colour TV/DVD players in most rooms. Organic principles are continued throughout the houses, with organic cotton bed sheets and pillow-cases, woollen blankets, pillows, bedspreads, together with organic cotton towels. Each cottage has its own washing machine with an indoor clothes drying horse, which is much appreciated by the visitors. Environmentally friendly cleaning products and hand soaps are provided, avoiding the use of potentially damaging bleach or other products which might contaminate the farm's water systems. Re-cycling is enthusiastically embraced by visitors using containers for the collection of tins, paper and glass. Appropriate food waste is composted with other farm-yard wastes, which go back in the land. Wood from fallen trees is cut into logs for the wood-burning stoves (Francis et al., 2010:13).

Activities

Maps in the houses identify walks around the farm but access is restricted to guests staying in the provided accommodation. The metal detecting around the farm is an enthusiasm of many visitors. The trout fishing in the lake is very popular and visits to the farm animals are encouraged by offering tractor and trailer rides around the farm (Francis et al, 2010:3). Organig Parc is now a popular holiday destination with a large number of return visitors on a regular basis. This successful enterprise now offers a secure future for the farm and employment possibilities for future generations on the land.

Lessons learned

According to Francis et al. (2013:12) the Ellis family have learned that combining their traditional culture with every possible aspect of organic and sustainable production, and consequently offering a very high standard of tourist accommodation was a sustainable way of making the project successful. They used these powerful tools to convey a message to their visitors about food production, caring for the environment and maintenance of

culture for the future generation. In the Thabo Mofutsanyana municipality in the Free State province of South Africa, there is the Basotho Cultural Village that bears testimony to some of the characteristics of Organig Parc. This project has preserved the culture of Basotho through its offering of Basotho cuisine, Basotho traditional songs and dance, Basotho folklore stories and above all this it is situated within the Golden Gate Nature Reserve, hence it is bound to care for the environment and conserve the biodiversity within the nature reserve. The Basotho Cultural Village is a community managed project in partnership with SANParks where the community is benefiting from this project in a number of ways. The people employed in this project are from neighbouring communities and they get a certain percentage of sales from the facilities and other activities offered.

Case Study 2: Adapting private partnerships over time –Manyallaluk in Australia

Australia

Background

Manyallaluk is a 3000 square km property near Katherine in Australia's Northern Territory. The community of around 150 people runs a small community-based tourism enterprise. The community of Jawoyn fully owns and manages the tourism enterprise. They offer a series of tours that emphasise learning about their traditions and culture as well as the opportunity to travel to waterfalls, rock pools and ancient rock art sites (Aboriginal Australia, 2011:4). Tourism in Manyallaluk is promoted by a community-owned-and-operated Aboriginal cultural tour organisation that runs one to three day tours throughout the year. The enterprise also manages an onsite camping ground and a 16-unit powered caravan-park. In addition, there is a community-owned shop that sells artefacts made by the local people, as well as basic goods to the tourists (Aboriginal Australia, 2011:2). Today the Manyallaluk is at the forefront of Aboriginal tourism and is the only indigenous operator to have won a place in the Tourism Hall of Fame for winning three consecutive national tourism awards.

The project

During the early years of operation, the Jawoyn people worked with a commercial tour operator (Terra Safari Tours) to bring visitors to the community. This partnership helped the community to establish the CBT venture and freed the community to focus on developing and delivering a quality visitor experience within Manyallaluk. While this partnership had many benefits during the early stages of CBT, having booking fees go to a private tour operator meant that revenues for the community were small. Having established the CBT, the

community sought to promote its own tours and increase the number of visitors booking directly with Manyallaluk. The community printed brochures and commissioned a Darwin based marketing company to distribute flyers on an annual basis. The manager and one guide also under took to attend tourism trade shows in Darwin and Sydney (Aboriginal Australia, 2011:12).

Benefits to the community

The tourism venture offers employment to members of the community and provides income. The employment opportunities spread beyond the direct tourism jobs, for example, to artists whose art is sold to tourists. Manyallaluk residents are generally multilingual, speaking a number of indigenous languages. However, English is not always spoken fluently, especially by children. The tourism venture also helps to improve English language skills by expanding the opportunities to use English and interact with English

speaking visitors. Being fluent in English also widens the opportunities for Manyallaluk residents when they spend time away from the community. The tourism enterprise has also provided greater opportunities for the local women by liaising with the Uganda Community Tourism Association (UCOTA) which assisted with the provision of valuable training in product development, the use of natural dyes, quality control and provided marketing support (Buckley, 2009:32). Before the growth of tourism, there was no local store at Manyallaluk. Consequently local people spent all money outside the community. Now residents shop at the community-owned store and profits have been used to build a cool room and purchase other equipment for the community. Income from the sale of artefacts produced by residents has also increased dramatically since tourists started coming to Manyallaluk. Only permanent residents are eligible for membership in the Manyallaluk Aboriginal Corporation and are allowed to participate in community decision-making. This means that all benefits from the tourism business accrue directly to the local community. Also, no individuals - inside or outside the community - are paid dividends from the profits of the tourism enterprise (Aboriginal Australia, 2011:5).

Lessons learned

This project illustrates that partnerships can be useful to accomplish a discrete task especially during the set-up of a venture. The Manyallaluk enterprise is an example of how successful a predominantly cultural based tourist product can be when those who belong to that culture present it. Some problems were encountered due to ambiguity about the differing roles of tourists and residents and more clarity is needed to ensure that the local population is allowed to control which parts of their lives are on show and when privacy is needed (Nitmiluk Tours, 2011:1).

Lessons for African Tourism Destinations

Conclusions

CBT to be successful, it has to depend on a collaborative effort between various role-players and stakeholders. This means that conflict resolution mechanism must be embedded within the empowerment that the communities and CBT role-players must receive. Small scale community-based tourism can empower local communities. The case studies discussed has shared more light on how diverse CBT development and management can be. This experience has highlighted the fact that as diverse as CBT projects may be, it is not impossible to make it a success even in South Africa because the guidelines on sustainable CBT project development are practiced and acknowledged globally. This means that from each and everyone of the discussed case studies, all the lessons learned can be applied in CBT project development in South Africa. "The success of a tourism destination, depends on securing a steady supply of tourists, to ensure the tourism value chain benefits from their expenditure, matching supply and demand" Strydom, Mangope & Henama (2018: 12)

Nair and Hamzah, (2015:433-434) attests this by showing that the sustainability of CBT projects depends on nine steps to be undertaken from the initial planning of the project:

- Step 1: Asses community needs and readiness for tourism,
- Step 2: Educate and prepare the community for tourism,
- Step 3: identify and establish leadership team/local champion,
- Step 4: prepare and develop community organization,
- Step 5: develop partnerships,
- Step 6: adopt an integrated approach,
- Step 7: plan and design quality products,

Step 8: identify market demand and develop marketing strategy, and
Step 9: implement and monitor performance.

These steps show that since the community is the sole beneficiary of the CBT projects there is a need for them to be empowered and involved from the initial planning of the project. This will enable them to be able to take over the management of the projects after funding dries up.

Recommendations

The following recommendations will not only be applicable to the CBT projects in these case study areas but can be applied when planning and adapting CBT projects:

Sufficient seed funding must be provided to establish CBT projects in order for it to be sustainable over the long-term. If such funding is not provided by government, the support of the private sector or other donor agencies should be required.

If applicable, good partnerships should be established during the set-up of a venture. Sound financial principles must be applied at all times by government, donor agencies and community.

Communities should be trained in all aspects of project management before CBT projects commence. In addition, emphasis must be placed on leadership development, service excellence, product standards, decision making skills, etc. Local people should be given preference as staff members in CBT projects.

The community must be involved from the initial planning stages of CBT projects.

Communities must form an integral part of the monitoring of CBT projects. Monitoring and evaluation strategies must be developed for all projects.

Effective communication between project managers and the community is imperative for communities to be successful. One way of achieving this is through the creation of community liaison forums.

Communities must share in monetary benefits of CBT projects since its initial stages in order to create a sense of belonging and co-ownership.

No CBT projects should be imposed on communities; instead their buy-in from the initial stages is imperative. Key individuals in communities must be identified and consulted in this process.

The importance of issues such as cultural heritage and environmental conservation should be emphasised from the initial stages of the project.

Establish local business linkages in the tourism industry in order to ensure that tourism expenditures stay within the destination rather than leak out to purchase imported goods and services for tourists.

Equitable distribution of costs and benefits of tourism development must take place among present and future generations.

Harmony amongst all stakeholders must be established in order to satisfy the needs of the visitors. This will be facilitated by broadening community support with a proper balance between economic, social, cultural and human objectives as well as recognition of the importance of cooperation.

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (2011: 24) ‘‘tourism has become a fiercely competitive industry. For tourism destination all over the world, competitive advantage is no longer natural, but increasingly man-made driven by science, technology, information and innovation’’. CBT cannot become successful unless if it globally competitive in terms of the physical and service offering for tourists. The success of the CBT depends on ensuring the customer experience is satisfying to the needs and expectations of customers. The role of marketing is crucial to ensure that marketing outlays are able to attract tourists to the CBT project. The community may need additional help to understand the tourism industry, especially for a host community who have never undertaken travel as tourists. This means that the customer experience must ensure repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth recommendations. ‘‘Achieving sustainable CBT is a continuous process that requires constant monitoring and evaluation of impacts and introduction of the necessary pre-emptive and/or counteractive measures’’ Strydom, Mangope & Henama (2019: 16). CBT is imperative for Africa countries, because it creates an environment where local cultures and customs were respected and host community ownership of the tourism industry by the host community. At certain instances, CBT projects can collaborate with the private sector to make the CBT successful. The tourism industry is a collaborative intensive industry that requires the active participation of the government creating an enabling environment and the private sector providing tourism services to tourists. Destinations that have succeeded in tourism have implemented a Whole-of-Government Approach to Tourism, which has removed the blockages and red tapes that impede the growth of the tourism industry.

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FARM TOURISM IN TAIWAN: AN APPLICATION OF LOGISTIC REGRESSION APPROACH

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Abstract

Farm tourism becomes one of the popular management approaches to resolve the difficult competitive market. However, farmers were confused to play farming and service roles simultaneously. This study tries to resolve this problem and adopts logistic regression approach to examine the individual and interactive effect of farm tourism activities on tourists' revisit intention. Questionnaire survey used to distribute 1067 samples in six farms of Taiwan, and 975 valid samples returned. The statistic results demonstrate that not all farm tourism activities can enhance revisit intentions. The odds of a tourist wanting to revisit would be increased by 1.162 times by participation in a DIY experience activity and 1.200 times by participation in a picking activity. These results imply that tourists have already established an image of farm tourism in minds, which tends towards the so-called farm tourism fantasy and form unrealistic impression about farm tourism.

Keywords: SDL, value co-creation, agritourism, tourists' experience of agritourism activities

Introduction

Farmers facing higher input cost, competitive market, and low agriculture product price, the numbers of employees and revenue decrease every year, and results in diversity development of agriculture industry (Di Domenico and Miller, 2012; Su, 2011). In the diversity development of agriculture industry, the farm tourism was one of the most popular management approaches. It combines different agriculture producing products and tourism activities to present different style, and farmers and rural community believe it is the nostrum of economic development (Forbord, Schermer, and Griebmair, 2012; Sharpley and Vass, 2006; Liang, 2017).

However, farm tourism is a kind of tourism style. The purpose of farm tourism was to provide activities with recreation and education when tourists participate farming activities in the working farm or other agriculture environment (Gil Arroyo, Barbieri, and Rich, 2013; McGehee and Kim, 2004). Therefore, the farm tourism satisfies the tourists' need based on effective connection between farm environment and content of rurality (O'Cass

and Sok, 2015). In other words, the farmers need to play farming and service rules simultaneously to create wonderful farm tourism experience (Sharpley and Vass, 2006). Many tourism scholars (Chen, Chang, & Cheng, 2010; Daugstad and Kirchengast, 2013) still argue that critical problem needs to resolve: farmers lack the ability to understand tourists' need and service skill, and thus they couldn't assure that they really design appropriate tourism activities for tourists.

Literature Review

For helping farm business to develop service skill and understand tourists' need, this study believe that tourists will join different farm tourism activities in the farm, and form their own experience after engaged in the rural life (Gil Arroyo et al., 2013). It implies that if we design appropriate farm tourism activities, and thus can understand the influence of farm tourism activities on tourists' response, and help business to assign resources and design tourism activities. As the argument of Su (2011), the farm businesses need to think about how to transfer their rules from producing products to serving tourists. It's not only marketing promotion program, but also provides variety farm tourism activities, such as local natural/history guideline, or folk custom education course, and home-made country products to attract tourists to join the farm tourism. In addition, tourists will join many farm tourism activities in the practical tourism process, and not only single farm tourism activity, and thus the farm tourism activities could have possibility to interactive with each other. The author adopts logistic regression approach to examine the individual and interactive influence of farm tourism activities on revisit intention, and this approach was used in tourism and food management field (Yeung and Yee, 2010; Liang, Yang, Chung, and Chen, 2017).

Moreover, as the argument of Forbord, Schermer, and Griebmair (2012), the diverse manifestations of farm tourism are due to the characteristics of different countries and different agricultural production activities. For example, the tourism activities provided on an Italian farm often include accommodation, the provision of food and beverage, cultural and leisure activities, such as biking, horseback riding, farm tours and farm education (Forbord et al., 2012). Sonnino (2004) suggested that agritourism must be in contact with farming, focusing on food and lodging elements. The concept of agritourism in North America also includes both accommodation and food and beverage services, with the related activities serving recreational and educational purposes (Ollenburg & Buckley, 2007; Tew & Barbieri, 2012). Other researchers suggested that key aspects of agritourism include accommodation, a one-day attractions tour on the farm, and a tour of the farm and the local community (McGehee & Kim, 2004; Rozier Rich, Standish, Tomas, Barbieri, & Ainley, 2010). In other words, the integration of agricultural products and tourism may result in different farm tourism activities.

Since Taiwan is densely populated, farms are comparatively smaller than those in Europe and America, so the industry will utilize every area of the farm to design different tourism activities. This study used a qualitative document analysis and the suggestions of the respondents and leisure farms researchers to classify the activities that require collaboration between the farm business and visitors, into four types. In the first step, the author collected type of farm tourism activities from the website of Leisure Farms Travel and separate them into different categories within activity name and content (<http://www.taiwanfarm.com.tw/>). In the second step, according to Tuan's (2008) classification criteria for farm tourism and the four farm managers' suggestions, as well as four other types based on the theme of the focal activity, as follows: (1) Do It by Yourself (DIY), including the production of items, articles for daily use, traditional rural toys. (2) Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction, such as feeding a calf milk and grass, hay riding, and milking the cow. (3) Natural Ecology Guide, including introductions to various animals

and plants, such as caterpillars and rice. (4) Crops picking experience, including picking vegetables and fruits (as table 1).

Table 1 farm tourism activity categories

Name of Activity	Type of Activity
Do-It-By-Yourself (DIY) Experience Activity	(1) Making Food, such as vegetarian gelatin, jam, ice cream, and vinegar of mulberry & Roselle. (2) Making articles for daily use, such as hand-made botanical soap, and tablecloth dyeing. (3) Making toys, jelly candles, and painting.
Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience	Animal Feeding, such as feeding the calf milk, feeding the koi and the rabbits. Animal Interaction, such as milking the cow, mini horse riding, and hay riding
Natural Ecology Guide	The guide explains the ecology of animals and plants, such as the caterpillars, cows, fruit trees and tea.
Crop Picking Experience	Tourists picking fruits (such as grapefruit, Asian pears, and guavas) and vegetables (such as bamboo, carrots, coffee beans, and Roselle)

Methodology

QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

The questionnaire is based on previously used measurement items. In a pilot study, the author invited 15 people who had visited the leisure farm on that day to fill out the questionnaire, and then made semantic modifications according to their feedback. There are two parts in the questionnaire, as follows: Yeung and Yee's (2010) logistical regression analysis method was used to analyze visitors' revisit intentions after having experienced different farm tourism. The reason for using this method is because Yeung and Yee (2012) stated that different variables (activities) may create interactive effects, and the individual and interactive effects may also be tested simultaneously. Although the tourism activities provided by the farm are quite diverse, almost all the tourists will participate in every activity. Items can thus cover a single farm activity or multiple activities (as table 1), with a total of 15 questions, asking whether or not the tourist/visitor will come back again for the farm tour (dependent variable) after having participated in various activities. In the second part of the questionnaire, recreational behavior and personal information, such as gender, age, recreational cost, and so on, were measured using items taken from Chen et al. (2010).

Table 2 Questionnaire

Did participation in the following activities make you want to come back for a visit again?	Y	N
DIY Experience Activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Natural Ecology Guide	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity & Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity & Natural Ecology Guide	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience & Natural Ecology Guide	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Natural Ecology Guide & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity, Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience & Natural Ecology Guide	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity, Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
DIY Experience Activity, Natural Ecology Guide & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animal Feeding/Animal Interaction Experience, Natural Ecology Guide & Crop Picking Experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SAMPLING DEVELOPMENT

A list of licensed leisure farms provided by the Taiwanese Tourism Bureau was the main source of the samples. After being contacted by phone, Shin Kong Chao Feng Ranch and Resort (F) (<http://www.skcf.com.tw/>), Flying Farm (A) (<http://www.flyingcow.com.tw/>), Chulu Ranch (B) (<http://www.chuluranch.com.tw/>), and Tsau-Ma-Lai Farm (C) (<http://www.farm.com.tw/>) all agreed to allow the research personnel to give out the questionnaire on their farms. In addition, based on the recommendation list (six farms) given by two farm experts with 10 years of counseling experience in farm development, we contacted these businesses and two of them, Jing Yuan Leisure Farm (E) (<http://www.aircoffee.com.tw/>) and Nong Chung County Countryside Farm (D) (<http://www.farmlife.com.tw/>), also agreed to take part in this study.

Four research assistants handed out a total of 1,067 questionnaires (confidence interval 95%, sampling deviation $\pm 3\%$) on the farms during a weekend (Saturday and Sunday) over the distribution months of June and July (eight weeks). The researchers were told to ask groups of tourists questions, and after they agreed to respond to the questions one person from each group was selected to fill out the answers on behalf of the other group members, in order to reduce errors (Chen et al., 2010). The questionnaires were mostly completed in the rest areas on the farms to avoid disturbing the tourists' trips, and a small gift was given to thank the respondents for their cooperation upon completing the questionnaire. A total of 975 valid questionnaires were thus obtained.

Results

PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

The majority of respondents were females (59.5%), with an education of are college or above (54.4%). The largest group was aged 31-40 years old (32.6%), followed by 21-30 (27.5%), and 40 and above (24.7%). In addition, 50% were married most worked in the commercial/service industry (39.9%), were students (24.2%), or freelancers (16.2%). The most common income was US \$1,350 (70.5%), and the respondents were accompanied by family members (4.9.3%) and friends and colleagues (46.7%), with leisure costs of US \$31.5-\$62.5 (20.9%), NT \$62.6-\$93.5 (15.9%) and US \$93.6-\$125 (7.9%).

This study transforms the 975 valid questionnaires into analyzable data based on the collected answers (975 samples \times 15 items=14625). The omnibus test results show that the model's chi square (χ^2) value is 24.979, reaching statistical significance ($df = 4, p < 0.001$), proving that the data has a good fit with the model. Moreover, the Hosmer - Lemeshow fitness index was 0 when using the 0.5 threshold, and the overall correct prediction rate was 85.4%. According to the Wald test results, all hypotheses were accepted at the 95% confidence level, with p values less than 0.01. It can thus be concluded that there are relationships between farm tourism activities and revisit intentions.

The odds ratio, $\text{Exp}(\beta)$, for the farm tourism experience of DIY and picking were 1.162 and 1.200, respectively (Table 1). In other words, the odds of a tourist wanting to revisit would be increased by 1.162 times [odds ratio = $\text{EXP}(0.150) = 1.162$] by participation in a DIY experience activity and 1.200 times [odds ratio = $\text{EXP}(.182) = 1.200$] by participation in a picking activity. However, Animal feeding/interaction and ecological guide could not significantly enhance the tourists' willingness to revisit ($p > 0.05$), and the reason explained in discussion and conclusion.

Table 3 Logistic regression analysis of the relationships among variables

Variable	Coefficient β	S.E.	Exp(β)	5%CI for Exp(β)		Wald	df	p
				Lower	Upper			
DIY Experience	.150	8	1.162	1.058	1.275	9.930	1	.002
Activity								
Animal Feeding/Interaction	.081	8	1.085	.988	1.191	2.926	1	.087
Ecological Guide	-.014	8	.986	.898	1.082	0.091	1	.763
Crop Picking	.182	8	1.200	1.093	1.317	14.682	1	.000
Constant	1.562	1	4.768			662.428	1	.011

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the results of a logistic regression analysis, this study demonstrates that DIY and picking activities can significantly enhance the tourists' willingness to revisit, and this is because the tourists have already established an image of farm tourism in their minds, which tends towards the so-called farm tourism fantasy. People's fantasy of tourism is unrealistic, or based on personal past experience (Bandyopadhyay & Nascimento, 2010; Chen, 2016). Such a fantasy may help form unrealistic impression o about farm tourism. However, tourists may satisfy their individual fantasy of farm tourism through the process of making their own food, daily necessities or traditional toys. Meanwhile, picking fruits and vegetables may allow visitors to experience the "tourism-oriented" farming production activities (Phillip, Hunter, & Blackstock, 2010), while reducing the actual toil of farm production through the combination of farming and tourism elements. As Di Domenico and Miller (2012) argued, the interactive experience of tourists and farming production activities presents a well-controlled image of rural life.

Why was it not possible to enhance the revisit intentions of the tourists examined in this work? The author believes that there are two possible reasons for this. First, the tourists' main motivation for visiting such a farm is to promote family/friend relationships, as well as to get away from the pressure of daily life (Liu, Wu, & Chen, 2012; Chen et al., 2010; Ryan, 1995), and thus activities based on interactions between people and animals or people and plants cannot achieve the aim of better interaction between people. For example, when listening to the guide's interpretation of the ecosystem and descriptions of animals and plants it is important for the visitors not to talk with their friends and relatives, to avoid interfering with the activity. The second possible reason might be because most of the employees on such farms have tourism and leisure backgrounds, and thus do not have rich agricultural background knowledge. As a result, they are unable to give complete answers or explanations that can attract tourists' attention when introducing the characteristics of animals and plants, as well as the environment.

The academic contributions of this study can be divided into two aspects. First, due to the diversity of farm tourism activities, tourists will participate in different activities in the process of their visits. Therefore, this study uses the logistic regression analysis method from Yeung and Yee (2010) to assess the individual and interactive effects of the farm tourism activities, and this approach has also been applied in the field of food safety (Yeung & Yee, 2012) and organic food promotion (Liang et al., 2017). Second, this study demonstrating that not all farm tourism activities can enhance revisit intentions. For that reason, agribusinesses must redesign their activities related to visitor-animal interactions/animal feeding and ecology. For example, many farms have overworked their small animals or tried to make money by selling animal feed, which has produced negative impressions, especially with regard to animal abuse. Farms should also work to give their employees more agricultural knowledge, or establish education courses and a certification system for guides to help them obtain more professional agricultural knowledge.

Limitations Of This Study

There are four limitations to this study, as follows. (1) sampling time. Since the number of farm tourists is lower on weekdays the author only distributed the questionnaire on the weekends in June and July. However, whether there are any significant differences among the tourists/visitors on the weekdays, weekends, and in different seasons still needs further confirmation by future researchers. (2) classification of tourism activities: This study divided the farm tourism activities into four types based on the suggestions of the past research. However, there are different criteria for classifying the activities (e.g. Phillip et al., 2010), and future research may distinguish these based on the farm cultural features in different countries, or the specific purpose of the study. (3) farm scale: This study takes the leisure farms travel network and the experts' recommendations as the sampling scope. As a result, the sample farms all have the sound management systems, complete tourism activities and a service system. Nevertheless, the scale of leisure farms can vary significantly (such as farm area or number of tourists), and so the future researchers may conduct an analysis of tourist behaviors at different farms based on their scale. (4) sampling area, which was restricted to Taiwan. However, as Forbord et al. (2012) note, different regions and countries will have different characteristics of farm tourism, and this is especially true in Asian countries which in recent years have seen the rise of many different types of farm tourism, and this can be another issue for future researchers.

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THE DOWNSIDE TO BEING A SUCCESSFUL TOURISM DESTINATION: FUNDING THE NECESSARY TOURISM INFRASTRUCTURE?

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Abstract

New Zealand has successfully promoted itself to the point of potential over-tourism/peak-tourism with regard to the significant impact that tourism is now having on the country's infrastructure. An international tourist levy is soon to be implemented, and there is a call for the introduction of a bed-tax, but the latter is not favored by the commercial accommodation sector as it is seen as unequitable and does not conform to New Zealand tax philosophy. This paper presents an alternative funding model (compared to bed-tax) for local governments that uses available tourist-spend data to equitably share the funding costs across all tourist-spend recipients (businesses).

Keywords: Tourism, Funding, Infrastructure, Tourism Tax, New Zealand.

Introduction

While many countries are reporting significant growth in tourism numbers (UNWTO, 2018), the associated positive economic impact has a downside for local communities who, in the main, are the funders of the infrastructure that increasing numbers of tourists use (Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment, 2018). Increasing visitors is generally the outcome of successful marketing, however, such success has in some destinations seen the introduction of tourist-taxes as destinations struggle to cope with the increasing tourism influx. Tourism-taxes is the subject of this paper.

New Zealand is not unique in terms of growing tourism numbers (Tourism Industry Aotearoa, 2018a), and tourism is already New Zealand's largest foreign exchange earner (Tourism New Zealand, 2017). However, unlike many countries, New Zealand does not have a 'tourism-tax' such as bed-taxes, visitor taxes, etc. for the specific purpose of providing, maintaining and developing infrastructure such as roads, parks, amenities, etc. That said, this is about to change in late 2019 when international visitors to New Zealand will be charged a Visitor Levy of \$35.00 per person, with the Levy revenue being evenly split for use on maintaining national conservation areas and identified national infrastructural needs (New Zealand Government, 2018). This Levy is anticipated to generate \$80 million, but the government acknowledges that this figure will not be sufficient to fund all tourism related infrastructural impacts, and more money needs to be found to ensure the quality visitor experience New Zealand promotes, of which infrastructure is important. This Levy is new tax territory for New Zealand, and has been very controversial for many in the industry with 'over-tourism' and 'peak-tourism' being said to be the reason for the (negative) impact tourism is having on New Zealand local destinations. While the concept of '(tourism) user pay' is not new, the questions for New Zealand and other countries that do not have such tourism-taxes is: what is the fairest, equitable and most efficient way of funding infrastructure and destinations impacted by tourist?

In addressing this question, this paper begins with a review of the already available literature regard various tourism taxes and levies. In this review we see that bed-taxes were the first form of tourist-tax – first introduced in New York in 1946 (Knipe, 2011), and are the most common form of tourist tax, while Dickinson (2018) reports on tourist taxes of various kinds. Given the ongoing reporting that increased tourism brings to countries and local communities, further research is needed to expose present practice and subsequently debate the merits of how tourism impacts can be funded. To this end, this paper sets out to re-ignite international academic research in this area, which to-date is very limited, with this paper also presenting, for the first time, a conceptual framework of the types of tourist taxes that exist that contribute to Local Government Authorities (LGA's) funding infrastructure. In particular, this paper contributes to the framework and literate with an additional funding model titled the Multi Sector Targeted Tourism Rate (MSTTR) that can be customised by LGA's depending on their level of tourism economic impact.

Literature Review

As mentioned, tourism is New Zealand's largest foreign exchange earner with a total annual tourism expenditure of \$39.1 billion of which the annual international tourism expenditure was \$16.2 billion, an increase of 44% in the past five years contributing 21% of foreign exchange earnings. The industry directly employs 216,000 people and another 149,000 indirectly - almost 1 in 7 jobs (Tourism Industry Aotearoa, 2018b). While the popularity of New Zealand as a visitor destination is arguably the success of effective marketing campaigns, success has its downsides, and for New Zealand, as in many other global destinations, it is the challenge of maintaining the national and local infrastructure that is being impacted by increasing tourism numbers.

With regard funding tourism infrastructure in New Zealand it would be fair to say that New Zealand is a late comer to the concept of charging any form of tourist taxes, with the first being introduced in late 2019. This tax (deliberately termed a 'Visitor Levy') is New Zealand's central government response to the call by the general population for more funding for the conservation estate (heavily used by visitors) and Local Government Authorities (LGA's) who provide infrastructure such as roads, toilets, information centers, car parking etc. (Williams, 2018). While the proposed Visitor Levy is yet to be implemented, central government already assists with Special Regional Funds for tourism infrastructure (Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment, 2018), however, this has limitation, and LGA's continue to seek new ways of gathering funds, other than from their general ratepayers.

Tourist Taxes:

The topic of tourist taxes and bed taxes has received little attention from the academic research community, but is topical in general media. The first reported academic research was in 1979, when Combs and Elledge (1979) reported on the effect a rooms tax has on resort hotels/motels, and Mark and Nishamura (1979) who reported on the economics of a hotel room tax. The 1980's saw three pieces of research related to the pros and cons of tourism taxes (Fujii, Khaled, & Mak, 1985; Hughes, 1981; Weston, 1983), with the 1990's starting to report on the impact of such taxes asking the question of what such taxes should be used for (See: Bonham, Fujii, Im, & Mak, 1992; Dwyer & Forsyth, 1999; Hiemstra & Ismail, 1992). Literature from the 2000's reflects that tourist taxes were originally implemented as a means of gathering funds for operation of the local tourist authority, as a means of transferring the costs from local ratepayers to the tourist who used that service (for example see: Kerr, Barron, & Wood, 2001). This appears a common strategy across the globe during the 1970-1990's, with Knipe (2011) reporting the first 'hotel bed-tax' was introduced in New York in 1946. The introduction of this tax was to the displeasure

of the hotel industry, with Knipe's review noting researchers disagreement (between 1970 and mid-2000) on the negative financial impact that such taxes have on hotels, but the significant gain to the local tax collecting agency.

Moving through the 2000's the literature regard tourist-taxes of various kinds becomes more regular. Examples of this research is how taxes impact destinations (for example see: Aguiló, Riera, & Rosselló, 2005; Gago, Labandeira, Picos, & Rodríguez, 2009; Jensen & Wanhill, 2002; Stephen Litvin, John Crofts, Calvin Blackwell, & Alan Styles, 2006), to the mid-2000's where the research focused on the economics of such taxes (Durbarry, 2008; Gooroochurn & Thea Sinclair, 2005; Thomas, 2007). From 2010 the conversation on tourism taxes takes a turn to consider local authorities as part of the tax (Burns, 2010; Knipe, 2011), to the accommodation industry (mainly hotels) becoming more questioning as to why they need to be the main 'collector' of the tax and how it is impacting their businesses (Editor, 2016; Ibrahim, 2011).

Since 1946 when the first bed-tax was introduced in New York, many countries now have this tax embedded (pun acknowledged) into their tourism systems, for examples Italy, Austria, America, Hungary, Switzerland, France, with Hostelworld defining a bed-tax as tourist tax (or City Tax) as: *Known more commonly as tourism tax is a small fee charged to visitors by the municipality. This goes towards financing and maintaining facilities in the area, producing brochures, tourist activities and modernising tourist attractions including museums and castles. It is however, usually up to each municipality to decide how much they charge, which can change annually.* (Hostelworld, 2019). However, there is no research as to what happens to the tax once it is passed from the accommodation provider to the local authority, and although this is not the subject of this review and paper, this is potentially a ripe research area for academics. While bed-taxes are a part of many countries accommodation (hotel) industry, no such tax exists in New Zealand, although there are calls for such from LGA's who have intensive tourism in their area (Collette, 2018; Editor, 2017; Opinion, 2018; Simon, 2017). As in New York in 1946, the New Zealand accommodation industry would also rather a more equitable method of tourist taxation (Editor, 2017, 2018b).

Acknowledging that bed-taxes are commonly used, the hotel industry argue that they may in effect be subsidizing the tax, that is, in the competitive environment they reduce their rates as the bed-tax may be the difference between competitors prices, yet they must pass the bed-tax amount onto the local authority anyway (Hiemstra & Ismail, 1992; Lee, 2014). Further, there is the possibility of a loss of revenue when potential guest opt for hotels who are not charging a bed-tax, that is, they stay at a hotel outside the tax area – yet visit the area (Combs & Elledge, 1979), while other researchers argue that room pricing can be sensitive and any increase in price can cause a reduction in occupancy and subsequent revenue (Fujii et al., 1985).

While bed-taxes are the most common form of tourist-tax, arguably for the purpose described above, there are other forms of tax, for example Departure Taxes (Wikipedia, 2019) introduced by Japan in January 2019 (JJI, 2019), and a Sustainable Tourism Tax in Spain and Greece (Haupt, 2016), which has been in existence for many years. It appears that countries who do not have any tourism taxes are considering and implementing them, such activity being reported in the media on an almost weekly basis.

The review now returns to the New Zealand position and how the growing tourism industry is impacting on New Zealand's infrastructure and the need to find some way of funding it, in particular local government infrastructure. The 'debate and discussion' has mainly been in the main-stream media (See: Bradley, 2018; Chandler, 2018; Collette, 2018; Dickinson, 2018; Editor, 2017, 2018a, 2018b; New Zealand Treasury, 2017; Opinion, 2018; Simon, 2017; Staff Reporter, 2018; Williams, 2018), and no academic research on this topic is recorded. Indeed, at the time of the writing of this paper the topic is being heavily debated

in New Zealand with hotels engaged in legal arguments with local authorities as to its merits. In part, this discussion/debate can also be attributed to the upsurge of Airbnb whose operators are not funding tourism promotion or paying commercial rates that enable some maintenance and development of infrastructure. (Bradley, 2018; Staff Reporter, 2018). Changes to tax legislation in New Zealand requires central government approval and is a lengthy parliamentary process, potentially taking several years to get approved. However, New Zealand LGA's do have the ability to implement local 'targeted rates' (via the property that the activity is used for, for example, the property that a retail business uses, accommodation providers) after local consultation, which can be as short as three months if any recommendation for a targeted rate is agreed on. It is the basis of this ability that this paper proposes (for New Zealand, at least) a new way of how funds can be gathered from tourism-spend recipients that can then be used for local infrastructure. It presents an alternative to the present bed-tax option.

Conceptual Framework

While various conceptual models related to tourism exist, for example, sustainable tourism development (Farsari, 2012), there is no academic literature that reports a conceptual framework/model for tourism-tax and its relationship to infrastructure funding. This paper sets out to present such a framework using known funding methodologies, but more specifically adds a new element that considers infrastructure being funded by all tourism-spend recipients using data from a Tourism Satellite Account. The author acknowledges that in its present form it is very rudimentary, and need enhancing by other researchers. The known funding methodologies of bed-tax, departure-tax and a sustainable tourism tax have been described above and are shown in Figure 1 Tourism Taxes and Local Infrastructure. Figure 1 presents a comparison of New Zealand's position of tourism-taxes against other international countries and it is clear that New Zealand, for various reasons, until now, has not opted to implement any form of Tourism-Tax.

Figure 1. Tourism tax models related to infrastructure

		International	New Zealand	
	Bed Tax	Many countries e.g. Netherlands, Italy, France, Germany, Switzerland etc. Amount varies across countries	NIL	Local Government/ City Infrastructure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rooding • Parks/Reserves • Promotion • Parking • Toilets • Footpaths • Etc. Used by Tourists to varying degrees
	Departure Tax	Japan	NIL	
	Sustainable Tourism Tax	Spain, Greece	NIL	
	Tourism Levy	NIL	International Visitor and Conservation and Tourism Levy \$NZ35.00	
Proposed New Model	Multi Sector Targeted Tourism Rate	NIL	PROPOSAL FOR NEW ZEALAND	

While the bed-tax topic discussion is not new in New Zealand – it was first mentioned in 2016, its application is not favored by the New Zealand Treasury who view that such a tax does not comply with New Zealand's broad base taxation system (New Zealand Treasury,

2017), and specifically note: *Infrastructure used by tourists is highly variable and is generally localised in nature. A bed or border tax is likely to be a blunt tool that overcharges low infrastructure users and undercharges high infrastructure users. This over and undercharging creates further economic distortions and inefficiencies. It could also be considered inequitable to charge tourists for infrastructure they do not use. As a result, a bed and border tax is likely to be an inefficient way of addressing infrastructure use by tourists. Instead, we consider that it is more likely that localised solutions through targeted user charges and regulation would provide a more efficient and fair way of addressing infrastructure use* (New Zealand Treasury, 2017, page 8). It must be noted that the New Zealand Treasury speaks against a border tax – which is what the International Visitor Levy is, and comes into effect later in 2019, therefore, it is possible that in time, the government may support the introduction of a bed-tax.

However, give the call for local solutions, and a solution that is fair and equitable, the author has developed a methodology that uses local tourism spend data from the New Zealand Tourism Satellite Account to ‘rate’ business that are recipient of the said tourism spend (via their property rates) – a method termed the Multi-Sector Targeted Tourism Rate.

Multi-Sector Targeted Tourism Rate:

As reported above, ‘bed-taxes’ can be considered a ‘blunt instrument’ that is unequitable as it is only applied by one of the many tourism-spend recipients (accommodation) and can have a negative financial impact on such operations. Its introduction in 1946 was arguably an ‘easy’ method of tax collection, this also being a period of time with little technology to gather data of tourism spend in the overall economy, unlike today where sophisticated technology can track where tourists spend their money, for example, in accommodation, transport, retail, services and food and beverage. In New Zealand, the Statistics Department oversee the New Zealand Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) (New Zealand Statistics Department, 2018) which details tourism spend in the following categories: accommodation, food and beverage servicing, cultural, recreation and gambling, passenger transport, other tourism products and four retail sale classifications – an excellent use of technological data gathering that can be put to use elsewhere.

Using the TSA data mentioned above, and knowing the LGA’s required funds related to tourism infrastructure needs, it is possible to firstly identify each tourism spend category percentage share (of total tourist spend) and then apply that category share of that portion via individual property rates. For further details of this model please contact the author. This method clearly requires the LGA to establish what their tourism related infrastructural funds needs are – something that does not happen with a bed-tax, and secondly, only that amount is equitably gathered from tourism spend recipients – therefore ensuing tourists are not ‘over-taxed’. To expand on the first point, regard locations that have introduced a bed-tax, it is unclear and not reported in any literature as to how a bed-tax figure (\$X.00 per night per room) is established, with some literature suggesting that revenue raised is not all used on tourism related infrastructure (Ford & Peeper, 2007; Smith & Blackwell, 2012), as was its intended purpose, while others report good usage (S Litvin, J Crotts, C Blackwell, & A Styles, 2006). To expand the second point, such an approach is equitable, targeted and transparent, as is required by New Zealand tax law.

Discussion

Without doubt, present and growing tourist numbers impact local infrastructure which requires funding for its ongoing maintenance and future development – the issue is who should pay for this, and how should funds be collected. Arguably this is a positive problem

– the result of successful marketing by Tourism New Zealand – New Zealand’s government tourism marketing agency - New Zealand’s infrastructure is a victim of this success. Academic research and literature regard tourist-taxes is minimal and often dated, yet the topic raises many important questions about equity, fairness, efficiency, etc. all requiring robust research, and while a growing number of destinations have chosen to implement a bed-tax to gather revenue for infrastructural purposes, it is questionable if this is the most equitable method, albeit it is potentially the most efficient.

The literature reports that commercial accommodation who must charge and collect bed-taxes may have an unequitable burden placed on them via additional costs such as time spent explaining the tax to guests, accounting for charges and passing it onto local authorities, external audits to ensure appropriate charging, lost revenue due to less guest staying, etc., therefore other methods should be considered. More research such as longitudinal studies are needed to clarify this position – the first such example of this is by Bonham in 1992, and then their later research in 1996 (1992), but nothing aligned to this is reported since.

For New Zealand, Figure 1 demonstrates that tourist-taxation is a new concept, and that New Zealand is looking for solutions to find funds for tourism-impacted-infrastructure, but New Zealand is not the only country who is looking for solutions. With little academic research in the area of tourist-tax, and in particular bed-taxes, and the growing number of countries and cities rushing to implement them, it is possible that good decisions are not being made or alternatives considered. The first bed-tax was implemented in 1946 in an era of little technology to track tourist spend, yet today most countries have sophisticated technology which enables much more refined analysis and more appropriate decisions. Arguably those who ‘rush’ to the bed-tax option – because others are doing it, are doing so without fully understanding what other options are available, and losing the opportunity to get buy-in from all recipients of tourism spend. That said, all other recipients of tourism spend will probably not wish to be part of any model where they would have to share to cost burden, yet it opens another questions related to equity and ethics.

A further aspect to consider is that of how does a destination wishes to be perceived - one that charges taxes, or one that doesn’t? From a marketing perspective not having to advise guests of such taxes may be an advantage, albeit under the MSTTR proposal tourists are in effect contributing to the tourism infrastructure in a small way with every spend – via the businesses who will increase their selling prices to cover the additional cost of their property rates.

No matter what funding model is finally used by destinations or countries it will not be perfect; however, it is incumbent on researchers to objectively reflect on such models, test their impact and relevance and provide new insight into new ways of ensuring that the destination can deliver the marketed promise, which in part is a requisite infrastructure.

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THE IMPACT OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
TRANSCENDENTAL LEADERSHIP AND WORK ENGAGEMENT: EVIDENCE
FROM HOTEL INDUSTRY

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of transcendental leadership on the work engagement of employees in the hotel industry and also investigating intrinsic motivation as a mediator. Several authors on transcendental leadership argue that there exists a positive relationship between transcendental leadership and work engagement, however empirical evidence for this issue has been lacking. Nevertheless, there are indications which introducing transcendental leadership in an organization may have a positive effect on mediating factors of work engagement that subsequently lead to more engaged employees in the workplace. There is empirical evidence that personal resources are positively related with work engagement. As transcendental leadership deals with intrinsic and transcendental motivation of organizational members, it is reasonable to assume that transcendental leadership has a certain impact on the employees' intrinsic motivation which is one of the personal resources. With respect to this, intrinsic motivation might be a mediator between transcendental leadership and work engagement. Therefore, this study empirically determined the relation between transcendental leadership, intrinsic motivation and work engagement. A theoretical proposition of these relations were made and at the onset, pilot study was conducted with twenty full-time hotel employees then based on a sample of 150 full-time employees of four and five-star hotels in North Cyprus, the level of transcendental leadership, intrinsic motivation and engagement in these hotels were measured. This study makes a contribution to the organizational leadership literature by empirically evaluating practices of transcendental leadership, intrinsic motivation and work engagement as the research of this subject is limited in the hotel industry. The results of this study supported our hypotheses.

Keywords: Transcendental Leadership, Work Engagement, Intrinsic Motivation, Hotel, North Cyprus

Introduction

In today's competitive and unstable hotel industry, managers are aware of the importance of hotel employees' work engagement. These employees have a critical role in the hotel organizations as they do their best to meet customer requests, concern with their problems and provide solutions to them. Therefore, it is important for hotel management to establish a work environment where employees are fully engaged to their jobs. Work engagement (WE) is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by

vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). Vigor is related with resilient mind and higher energy in the workplace. Absorption is defined as concentrating and engaging with the job as the time flies so fast and leaving the work is difficult for the staff. Dedication is described as a person's deep WE, challenge, eagerness, and sense of significance (Shahpouri, Namdari, & Abedi, 2016). Employees who are engaged to their jobs, are eager for their work, have higher energy and they are immersed in their work (Bakker, 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

According to the extant literature, personal resources are one of the antecedents to WE (Bakker, 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Personal resources are aspects of the self which are linked to resiliency and they are also related with individuals' sense of ability to control and affect their environment in a successful way (Bakker, 2011; Shahpouri et al., 2016; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). There are different types of personal resources such as optimism, resilience, intrinsic motivation etc. of which have an impact on the WE of individuals (Shahpouri et al., 2016; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). What is more, leadership is another influential factor on the level of employees' WE (Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). As an effective leadership approach, transcendental leadership is defined as "a contribution based exchange relationship. In this relationship the leader promotes unity by providing fair extrinsic rewards, appealing to the intrinsic motivation of the collaborators, and developing their transcendent motivation" Cardona (2000, p. 204). Transcendental leadership optimize attitudes, values, and behaviours of people such as selfless love, faith in order to bring intrinsic motivation to organizational members which have an impact on positive organizational results. These leaders contribute to development of individuals' intrinsic motivation and take into consideration their personal development which in turn affect employee productivity and organizational efficiency. However, according to the literature, the role of transcendental leadership in the employees' WE has not been received adequate attention. With respect to this, Alexakis (2011) proclaimed that this leadership facilitates hospitality employees' efficiency therefore future studies should gain more understanding about the outcomes of this leadership application for hotels. So, the point of departure of the current study is to propose and test a research model which examines the effect of transcendental leadership on the WE of hotel employees through the mediator role of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was defined by Keaveney (1992, p.151) as "feeling of challenge or competence derived from performing a job". Intrinsic motivation is considered in our study because transcendental leaders pay attention for providing intrinsic motivation to their subordinates (Alexakis, 2011; Cardona, 2000; Fry, 2003; Fry, Vitucci, & Cedillo, 2005). Individuals who have a higher intrinsic motivation engender positive results for organizations such as job satisfaction, WE etc. Nevertheless, since there are no validated models covering this issue, our objective is to confirm a positive relationship between transcendental leadership and WE through intrinsic motivation as a mediator based on conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989).

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The next section provides the theoretical background and the development of study hypotheses. The third section describes the research methodology of the study which followed by the interpretation of findings. In the last section, concluding remarks are presented together with the limitations and future research suggestions.

Theoretical Background And Hypotheses Development

There is no doubt that hospitality industry is one of the growing industry in today's competitive globalized world. Leadership is one of the important factors for achieving competitive advantages through engaging employees. At this point, transcendental

leadership mainly concerns with development of intrinsic motivation of individuals (Cardona, 2000; Fry, 2003; Fry et al., 2005), based on COR theory. According to the COR theory, resources have a central role because people endeavor to obtain, retain, protect, and establish resources, whereas stress comes about when valuable resources are threatened with loss or they are lost or when individuals make an important investment into resources and are not able to gain them after their investment (Hobfoll, 1989). Transcendental leadership depicts as leading organizational members to optimize their attitudes, values and behaviours in order to enhance their intrinsic motivation which in turn brings positive outcomes to the organizations (Fry, 2003; Fry et al., 2005). So, it is obvious that intrinsic motivation is a critical aspect of transcendental leadership. Transcendental leaders provide a workplace of which unity is promoted by providing fair extrinsic rewards, also these leaders sacrifice themselves for others' goodness. When hotel employees perceive the aforementioned attributes of these leaders, they are more motivated intrinsically. However, there have not been any empirical study done to show the association between transcendental leadership and intrinsic motivation. For instance, Fry (2003) reported that spiritual leaders increase intrinsic motivation of their followers. Moreover, Vogelgesang, Leroy, and Avolio (2013) specified that employees' intrinsic motivation at work is supported by authentic leaders. Although several studies emphasize the importance of transcendental leadership on intrinsic motivation of individuals (Cardona, 2000) empirical studies are conspicuously absent. Hence, it is proposed that,

H1: Hotel employees' perceptions of transcendental leadership will have a positive effect on their intrinsic motivation.

WE is one of the important behavioural outcomes in the organizations. It is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Vigor is related with resilient mind and higher energy in the workplace. Absorption is defined as concentrating and engaging with the job as the time flies so fast and leaving the work is difficult for the staff. Dedication is described as a person's deep WE, challenge, eagerness, and sense of significance (Shahpouri et al., 2016). Employees who are engaged to their jobs, are eager for their work, have higher energy and they are immersed in their work (Bakker, 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Intrinsic motivation as one of the personal resources is an important determinant of WE. Intrinsic motivation is defined as "feeling of challenge or competence derived from performing a job" (Keaveney, 1992, p.151). Employees with their intrinsic motivation are able to solve problems better in the workplace and are more concern with innovations. Several studies reported that employees with intrinsic motivation display results which are desired by their organizations such as increasing job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment, decreasing emotional exhaustion (Karatepe & Uludag, 2007), enhancing both job performance and service recovery performance of frontline employees (Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2010). However, intrinsic motivation as one of the antecedents to WE needs more research as Meyer and Gagne (2008) underlined that more research is needed to understand how intrinsic motivation can lead employees to be engaged in their works. Therefore, it is postulated that:

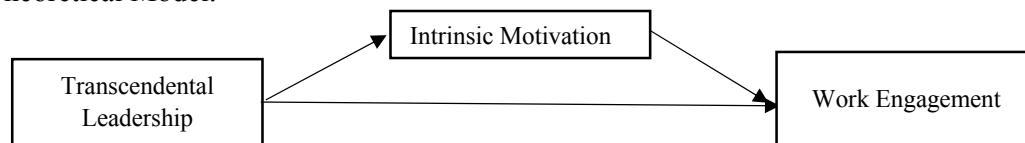
H2: Hotel employees' intrinsic motivation will have a positive effect on their work engagement.

As mentioned before, transcendental leaders mainly focus on providing unity, developing intrinsic motivation of employees, sacrificing themselves to serve others and gaining employees' trust. These transcendental leadership practices lead hotel employees to develop selfless love, faith and trust to their managers, thus increase their motivation

which in turn produce efficient organizational results. As a result of transcendental leader's practices, hotel employees develop intrinsic motivation which has a subsequent positive impact on the employees' WE. According to the literature, some researches have been done about transcendental leadership in distinct industries. Majority of these studies are conceptual and qualitative in terms of methodological approach. Nevertheless, the relationship between the transcendental leadership and WE through mediator role of intrinsic motivation in the hotel industry has not been tested empirically. Tims et al., (2011) found that the effect of transformational leadership on the work engagement of employees was mediated by optimism but not the self-efficacy. In addition, Liu (2008) reported that the impact of transcendental leadership on the organizational citizenship behaviour was mediated by spirituality. Another study was done by Tehubijuluw (2014) displayed that transcendental leadership influences job satisfaction of employees which in turn significantly affects organizational performance. As a result of these discussions, it is hypothesized that:

H3: Hotel employees' intrinsic motivation will mediate the relationship between their perceptions of transcendental leadership and work engagement.

Theoretical Model.



Methodology

Our study's sample included full-time employees of four and five-star hotels in North Cyprus. Firstly, each hotel was visited and had a contact with the management for an explanation of study's purpose and then kindly request permission in order to collect data. The items' questions were in English and translated into Turkish. Before distributing to the whole sample, pilot study was conducted with twenty hotel employees to check clarity, relevancy, and understandability of the questions. Also, each hotel employee was briefly introduced about the study's objectives. In total, one hundred and fifty full-time hotel employees participated in the study, yielding a response rate of 100% (150/150).

Transcendental leadership was measured by using a seventeen-item scale by Fry et al., (2005). A four-item scale by Low, Cravens, Grant, and Moncrief (2001) was used to assess intrinsic motivation. Lastly, a seventeen-item of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Schaufeli et al., (2002) was used to measure WE of employees. The scale includes three subscales which are vigor (6 items), dedication (5 items) and absorption (6 items). Employees responded to all of these questionnaire items based on five-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 1. Respondent's Profile

	Frequency	%
Age		
20-below	9	6.0
21-30	93	62.0
31-40	39	26.0
41-50	5	3.3
51-60	4	2.7
Total	150	100.0
Gender		
Male	93	62.0
Female	57	38.0
Total	150	100.0
Education		
Primary School	1	.7
Secondary School	19	12.7
High School	63	42.0
University	63	42.0
Master	4	2.7
Total	150	100.0
Marital Status		
Married	62	41.3
Single	88	58.7
Total	150	100.0
Organizational Tenure		
Less than 1 year	35	23.3
1-5	84	56.0
6-10	28	18.7
11 years and above	3	2.0
Total	150	100.0
Industrial Experience		
Less than 1 year	19	12.7
1-5	61	40.7
6-10	56	37.3
11 years and above	14	9.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 1 showed the respondents' demographic characteristics. The majority of the respondents, 93, ranged in age from 21 to 30. The ages of 39 respondents were between 31-40. The 9 respondents' age were 20 and below. The rest of the respondents' age were above the 40. In terms of gender, 93 of the respondents were male and 57 of them were female. With respect to education, 63 of study's respondents were graduated from university and other 63 respondents were graduated from high school. 19 of them were graduated from secondary school and this was followed by 4 respondents who had a graduate degree. Only 1 of the respondents had graduated from primary school. The study's respondents were married and single; 62 and 88 respectively. In terms of organizational tenure, the majority of the respondents, 119, had tenures between less than one year and five years. 28 of the respondents were working in their organizations between six and ten years. The rest of the respondents had tenures more than ten years. Lastly, in terms of industrial experience, the majority of the respondents, 117, had experience between one and ten years. 19 of the respondents were working in this industry less than one year. The rest of the respondents, 14, had experience more than ten years.

Table 2. Scale Items, Exploratory Factor Analysis and Internal Consistency Reliability Results

Items	Loadings	EigenValues	%of	α
TL		10.5	42.0	.92
TL-q13	.808			
TL-q11	.787			
TL-q16	.777			
TL-q14	.767			
TL-q15	.752			
TL-q12	.742			
TL-q10	.721			
TL-q6	.717			
TL-q7	.711			
TL-q4	.673			
TL-q17	.510			
WE		3.1	12.7	.89
WEv-q27	.816			
WEv-q26	.790			
WEd-q29	.685			
WEv-q25	.676			
WEa-q33	.676			
WEv-q23	.658			
WEv-q22	.654			
WEa-q36	.621			
WEd-q31	.589			
WEa-q35	.480			
IM		1.6	6.6	.92
IM-q19	.822			
IM-q18	.818			
IM-q20	.813			
IM-q21	.785			

Note: All factor loadings are above .050. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy =0.891. Barlett's Test of Sphericity 2702.635.

Results

Table 2 demonstrated exploratory factor analysis results. Exploratory factor analysis was employed by using principle component analysis with varimax rotation. With varimax rotation to determine if they represent to distinct concepts of interest. The initial results produced three variables. However, six items from transcendental leadership and seven items from work engagement were dropped due to cross-loading as a result of exploratory factor analysis. The final results produced three factor solutions with Eigenvalues more than 1.0. Accounting for 61.3 of variance. The factor loadings range from .48 to .82. These results showed that all items were loaded on their underlying factors. The coefficient

alphas were presented in Table 2. Variables range from .89 to .92, so TL, WE, and IM were all more than .70 which is cut-off level of alpha.

Table 3 showed means, standard deviations and correlations of the study. Transcendental leadership is positively and significantly related to intrinsic motivation ($r=.426, p<.01$) so H1 is supported. Intrinsic motivation is positively and significantly related to work engagement ($r=.617, p<.01$) which means H2 is supported.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of the Study

Variables	1	2	3
1 Transcendental Leadership	1		
2 Intrinsic Motivation	.426**	1	
3 Work Engagement	.516**	.617**	1
Mean	3.62	4.10	3.84
Standard Deviations	.92	.91	.82

Note: ** denotes correlation is significant at the $p<0.01$ level (2 tailed test).

Table 4. Results of regression analyses predicting intrinsic motivation

	Intrinsic Motivation Model 1
Transcendental Leadership	.426***
F	32.75
R ² at each step	.181
Adj R ²	.176

*** $p<0.01$

Our first hypothesis predicted that employees' perceptions of transcendental leadership is positively influence their intrinsic motivation. According to the regression analysis in Table 4, intrinsic motivation was considered as the dependent variable. Results showed that transcendental leadership is significantly and positively related to intrinsic motivation ($\beta=.426, *** p<.01, R^2=.18$). This situation shows that Hypothesis 1 was supported. In table 5, we presented the regression analysis of work engagement as the dependent variable. According to the table 5, it demonstrated that intrinsic motivation is significantly and positively related to work engagement ($\beta=.617, *** p<.01, R^2=.38$) namely supporting hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 3 proposed as intrinsic motivation mediates the impact of transcendental leadership on work engagement. According to the recommendation of Baron and Kenny (1986), the relationship between transcendental leadership and work engagement was first examined. Table 5 displayed that there is a significant positive relationship between transcendental leadership and work engagement ($\beta=.516, *** p<.01, R^2=.26$). In the second criteria, the relationship between transcendental leadership and intrinsic motivation was examined. It was found that there is a significant positive relationship between transcendental leadership and intrinsic motivation (Table 4). In the third criteria for mediation, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and work engagement is positively related. Results from our second hypothesis supported this relationship. In this way, three preconditions for mediation for met for intrinsic motivation

(Hypothesis 3). Lastly, the mediation effect of intrinsic motivation was tested by examining changes in the effect of transcendental leadership when intrinsic motivation were added to the regression model predicting work engagement. Results displayed that when intrinsic motivation is added into the model, the significant effect of transcendental leadership on work engagement reduces which means that intrinsic motivation partially mediates the relationship between transcendental leadership and work engagement. So, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Table 5. Results of regression analyses predicting work engagement

	Work Engagement		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Transcendental Leadership	.516***	.309***	
Intrinsic Motivation		.617***	.486***
F	53.65	91.10	62.42
R ² at each step	.266	.381	.459
Adj R ²	.261	.377	.452

*** p<0.01

Conclusion

This study has investigated how transcendental leadership perceptions of hotel employees influence their WE through the role of intrinsic motivation. Our results indicated that transcendental leadership perceptions of hotel employees is significantly related with their intrinsic motivation. According to this outcome, leaders' transcendental approach lead to enhance employees' intrinsic motivations in the work as these leaders have focus for promoting intrinsic motivation of their employees. Therefore, in hotels such leaders should create a workplace where they help their employees to gain their intrinsic motivation, provide fair rewards and pay attention to their personal development. Secondly, our study found that there is a significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and WE of hotel employees. This result suggests that when employees have intrinsic motivation for their job tasks, they are more committed to their jobs and as a result they engaged more into their works. That is why, hotel management should provide working atmosphere for their employees in which their expectations are taken into consideration and are valued. Moreover, it is important for them to have a good working conditions which have an impact on their motivation towards their jobs. Laslty, as the results indicated, intrinsic motivation partially mediated the relationship between transcendental leadership and WE. So, successful transcendental leadership practices in hotels increase intrinsic motivation of their subordinates which in turn affect positively their WE. Therefore, it is crucial for hotel management to develop transcendentendal leadership approaches among their managers and engage in such practices. These leaders' transcendental leadership practices create personal growth and intrinsic motivation in their employees. In this way, hotel employees can perceive their leader's

fairness and believe that there is a fair work environment and reward system which enhance their motivation and leads them to be more engaged in their works.

This study has some limitations and future research suggestions. Firstly, our study considered only employees in the hotel industry therefore the consequences of this study

cannot be generalized to other industries. Other industries can be considered for future studies. Second, sample size of this study was small so it is suggested to be replicated with a larger sample size. In this study we used only intrinsic motivation as a mediator. Future studies can include other mediator variables into this model such as optimism in order to enhance our understandings. Last but not least, subsequent studies can incorporate different outcome variables such as organizational performance, turnover intention etc.

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THE IMPACT OF EXPERIENCE AUTHENTICITY ON TOURISTS' REVISIT INTENTION

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Abstract

This study investigates the impact of authenticity experience on tourists' willingness to revisit, and the consistency of destination personality as a disruptive variable. Convenience sampling was used, and data obtained from questionnaires. The total number of valid questionnaires was 202. Hierarchical regression was used to test the hypotheses.

The results revealed the following: authentic experience has a positive impact on satisfaction; authentic experience has a positive impact on revisit intention; satisfaction has a moderating effect on authentic experience and revisit intention; destination personality consistency has a moderating effect on authentic experience and satisfaction; destination personality consistency has a moderating effect on authentic experience and revisit intention; and the consistency of local personality has a moderating effect on satisfaction and willingness to revisit. This study has implications for the management of the tourism industry in the future and provides the academic community with a reference for future research.

Keywords: Experience authenticity, Destination personality fit, Satisfaction, Revisit intention.

Introduction

In-depth tourism has become the most valuable variable for various enterprises as well as tourism itself. Travelers can also explore and experience the traditional lifestyles of aboriginal tribes around the island. Different authentic experiences such as the local characteristics of Taiwan's aboriginal tribes, cultural monuments, and traditional culture can engender different feelings in tourists. This may be extended to the development of various unused business groups who, in turn, can create more valuable products, which often exceed the production in which the tourism industry originally engaged.

Previous studies on experience authenticity have focused on factors such as the experience of revisiting tourism, loyalty, and travel behavior. In this study, the destination personality fit was adopted as the interference effect of consumers' experience authenticity on their revisit intention. Furthermore, the study examined whether, because of the consistency of the destination personality, there is an interference effect between authenticity experience, satisfaction, and willingness to revisit.

Literature review

Experiential authenticity

In tourism, authenticity is widely defined as a universal value and a key driving force that motivates tourists to travel to distant places and times (Cohen, 1988; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; MacCannell, 1973; Naoi, 2004). A number of research methods (see Wang, 1999 and Reisinger & Steiner, 2006) have defined authenticity in various ways and provided examples of types of authenticity, for example, object content and current experience of the real self.

As noted in the literature, there are many meanings, which are constantly changing and being reinterpreted (Ryan, 2002). Given the diversity of this perspective, when using the term, travel or travel experience, the author refers to an individual's experience in tourism and tourism activities. Extensive literature on travel or traveling experiences abounds. Furthermore, recent postmodern perspectives and discourses have contributed to the dialog about travel experiences (Uriely, 2005; Jennings, 2006). New terms to define tourism or tourism experiences (Jennings, 2006) exist; these include cultural tourism, ecological tourism, educational tourism, experimental tourism, heritage tourism, and natural tourism.

Satisfaction

Lounsbury and Polik (2000) defined satisfaction as the visitor's overall experience throughout the trip. Tourism evaluation and a recent study on tourist satisfaction employed a cognitive-emotional state approach to determine satisfaction (Del Bosque & Martín, 2008). Visitor satisfaction may be viewed as an assessment tool to assess the travel experience.

H1: Experiential authenticity will have a positive influence on satisfaction.

Revisiting intention

Repetitive visitors tend to have positive word-of-mouth recommendations (Petrick, 2004) and stay longer than first-time visitors (Wang, 2004). The main factors of willingness to revisit include satisfaction (Crompton, 2000; Kozak, 2001; Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001; Yuksel, 2001), past vacation experience (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Kozak, 2001; Petrick, 2001), perceived value (Petrick, Morais, & Norman, 2001), and image (Milman & Pizam, 1995; Ross, 1993).

H2: Satisfaction mediates the relationships between experiential authenticity and revisit intention.

H3: Experiential authenticity will have a positive influence on revisit intention Destination personality fit

Brand personality indicate that brand characteristics of tourist destinations are of great importance to understanding the perceptual image of tourist destinations and choice of tourist destinations (Hosany et al., 2007). Ekinci and Hosany (2006) define destination personality as "a series of personality characteristics related to destination" (page 127).

The theory of self-congruity was originally developed in the context of self-conceptual consumer behavior, which consists of four main types of self-congruity: actual self-concept, ideal self-concept, social self-concept, and ideal social self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). Actual self-

concept refers to how people perceive the fit between themselves and the image of the person who buys the product or brand. Ideal self-concept refers to how people perceive themselves. Social self-concept refers to how people believe in the fit between others who are related to the product or brand image of the user. The ideal social self-concept is the way people want to be seen by others in terms of product or brand image (Sirgy and Su, 2000). The conceptual framework presented in this study assumes that destination personality and self-congruity will have a positive impact on the intent of visitors to return to their destination.

When the destination personality fit brings the consistency of the visitors, the destination meets the personality of the tourists. Allowing different travelers find out destinations that match their personality traits, the following assumptions are made:

H4: Destination personality fit increase the impact of experiential authenticity on satisfaction. H5: Destination personality fit increase the impact of experiential authenticity on revisit intention.

H6: Destination personality fit increase the impact of satisfaction on revisit intention.

Research Methodology

The present research studies the impact of experience authenticity on tourists' revisit intention-The destination personality fit as a moderator. This research presents information about experience authenticity, destination personality fit, satisfaction, revisit intention.

Sampling and Data collection

The data for this investigation was obtained in Taiwan. It was used a convenient sampling approach and using the Internet questionnaires. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) analyzed 202 valid online self-administered questionnaires from University students in Taiwan. The questionnaire consists of two major sections: the first segment deals with respondent's demographic information (gender, age, education, etc.), while the second segment addresses a number of questions relating to the variables of research importance (experience authenticity, destination personality fit, satisfaction and revisited intentions).

Measurements

This paper conducts a quantitative study that will adopt a five-point (1-5) Likert Scale instrument (strongly disagree to Strongly agree), separating the first section of the online self-administered questionnaire into four segments. All the Cronbach's' Alpha coefficients ranged from 0.921 to 0.973, which suggested that the reliability of all the items of the questionnaire were confirmed.

Conclusion

The study explored the impact of experience authenticity on the willingness of visitors to revisit. The consistency of destination personality fit was the interference variable. The purpose was to explore the consistency of destination personality fit in relation to experience authenticity, satisfaction and revisit intention. In relation to the impact of experience authenticity, the results of revealed that experience authenticity has a significant impact on satisfaction. Based on tourists' preferences of education, aesthetics, entertainment and escapism, they tend to generate their own preferences through their own experiences and subsequently, evaluate the quality of the service of the trip. Visitor satisfaction is viewed as an assessment tool for assessing travel experiences and has a significant impact on destination decisions, product and service consumption, and willingness to revisit (Chi & Qu,2008; Li & Petrick, 2008). Besides. the travel experience allows visitors to forget the hassles and pressures of daily life and is filled with factors such as beautiful memories and associations, positive experience authenticity will increase the consumers' willingness to revisit the destination. Previous studies (e.g., Cole & Chancellor, 2009; Hosany & Witham, 2010; Hsu & Crotts, 2006; Chen & Funk, 2010; Oh et al., 2007) have revealed that tourism experience and revisit intention were positively related. A positive relationship was found

between satisfaction and intention to recommend. Prior studies (e.g., Baker & Crompton 2000; Bigné, Sanchez, & Sanchez 2001; Chen & Tsai 2007; Engeset & Elvekrok 2015; Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh 2013) have revealed that satisfied tourists are more likely to say positive things about the destination to others. The result also revealed that the interaction effect of satisfaction and destination personality consistency has a significant impact on willingness to revisit. In other words, the consistency of destination personality has a regulating effect between the degree of satisfaction and revisit intention. It reflects that states of satisfaction are an important factor that has an influence on visitors' willingness to revisit (Chi & Qu, 2008; Li & Petrick, 2008).

Research limitations and recommendations

The present study has a few limitations. Mostly young ethnic groups and student groups aged between 21–30 years old responded to the questionnaire. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies focus on other consumer groups.

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GLOBAL HEALTH INITIATIVE: AN INCOME GENERATION MODEL

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Abstract

Tuition fees have become the main source of income in Jamaican universities. This paradigm shift threatens revenue, coupled with the growth of financially vulnerable students who are at risk for attrition. A model of cultural immersion of university students and faculty from developed countries was established to generate income for a department, university and Jamaica by meeting global health initiatives. Visitors were engaged in lectures, practiced or observed at hospitals, health centres and faith based organizations. Also, community educational tours, historical site visits and local entertainment were included. In exchange they contributed to the vulnerable students' fund established at the UWI School of Nursing; provided scholarships; grants; supported faculty exchange and research collaboration. Additionally, persons in the service sector benefited from the utilization of their services. The benefits generated from this model are far reaching. Challenges were the threat of crime and the buying in from different stakeholders. Systematic approaches employed have somewhat minimized these challenges.

Keywords: Income generation, global health, university

Global Health Initiative: An Income Generation Model

It has been a ubiquitous problem of funding university education both at the governmental and student levels (CaPRI, 2009; Gebreyes, 2015). Critics argue that government funding should be further reduced because graduates often emigrate to more developed countries resulting in reduce economic and social gain for the country (CaPRI, 2009). In Jamaica it was reported that funding to the major universities amounts to nearly 11 billion Jamaican dollars (Johnson, 2017). Despite this, it remains inadequate for tertiary institutions who consistently seek additional funding from diverse sources.

There are many factors threatening the viability of the university such as decreased enrollment due to competition from local and offshore universities. This might have resulted in reduced acceptance levels at the University of the West Indies (UWI) from 57% in 2008 to 45% in 2012 (Downes, 2013). In addition to that, students are finding it difficult to maintain their registration and this may affect programme completion. In 2016, many of the UWI's students were

deregistered and this would affect those completing final examinations. This prompted the Jamaican government to subsidize the school fees for them to ensure completion of their programmes (Johnson, 2017).

Government subvention to the UWI was 35 percent of total income, hence the bulk of the UWI's budget was supplemented by tuition fees, which accounted for 39 percent and other sources filling the gap (Principal's Report 2015/2016). This has been the current trend as governments tighten budgetary spending under the International Money Fund (IMF) agreement (BOJ, 2010) and growing public scrutiny (CaPRI, 2009). Such trends contribute to universities being aggressive in fee collections, as it is recognized as the greatest source for funding. Nevertheless, UWI consistently supports student by giving grants to vulnerable student through the forms of books, bursaries and scholarships and has found creative ways to generate income (Principals Report, 2012).

Other ways the UWI have generated income included instituting new programmes such as engineering and graduate degrees. There have also been increased enrollment in law, medicine and nursing (Principal's Report, 2012). Yet there needs to be other innovative ways of generating income in order for the university to survive in the 21st century. Hence, there is the need to tap into new markets in order to earn to finance itself.

It has been a trend in many developed countries to change their curricula to reflect cultural competent care (Drain et al, 2007; Carlton et al, 2007). This is due to globalization and the impact of migration on disease prevalence, cultural diversity and the ability to give competent care. This provides the perfect opportunity for knowledge exchange as developing nations demonstrate how to provide care in low resource setting such as Jamaica and Mexico (Carlton et al., 2007; Wagner and Christensen, 2015, Africa, (van't Klooster et al., 2008). It optimizes the exposure of students to different health challenges, develop critical thinking skills and identify population health needs (Drain et al., 2007). It is also a significant step in achieving health equity as first world countries can provide expertise to and learn from third world countries (Liu et al., 2015).

Policy

There have been discussions on the role of health tourism as a means income generation in the Caribbean with specifics to rehabilitation, cosmetic and spa services (JAMPRO, 2015). Additionally, there has been a thrust towards community tourism (Gonzales et al, 2001). However, no national policy could be found regarding global health education. Although institutions like the UWI have been facilitating overseas students for a period of time. The benefits to the international students have been widely highlighted in the literature (Ouma and Dimeras, 2013; Smith and Curry, 2011; Wagner and Chritensen, 2015; Zorn et al., 1995). However, there is a paucity of information on the benefits to the host country (Ouma and Dimeras, 2013).

Economics

Jamaica is often marketed as a tourist destination due to its lovely beaches and picturesque views. Yet Kingston is not often promoted for various reasons as it is devoid some of the coastal offerings. It is possible that the presence of polluted waters, urban decay as well as crime and violence may play a role. However, the benefits to host countries involved in global health education are both tangible and intangible. Tour companies benefit from charging fees to students (Ouma, et al 2013). The students are also seen as tourists, so the local hotels would charge them for accommodation. In fact, the University of the West Indies built 138 Student Living as a means of earning income from overseas students and faculty who would use their facilities (138 Student Living, 2017).

Scholarship

There is a lack of mentoring for nurse faculty in the Caribbean. However, collaboration with overseas universities has been beneficial with MOUs been established between UWI and other universities including University of Ottawa (Edwards et al., 2009). The Global Health Initiative has been advantageous to junior faculty. There is research collaboration and supervision for faculty who are PhD candidates. They have been able to do publications and conference presentations based on their experiences (Wagner and Chritensen, 2015).

Throughout the literature, there are several conceptual definitions for global health. Koplan et al. (2009) defined it as ‘an area for study, research, and practice that places a priority on improving health and achieving health equity for all people worldwide.’ Kickbush (2006) defined global health as, ‘those health issues that transcend national boundaries and governments and call for actions on the global forces that determine the health of people.’ This case study will use the former definition as it is comprehensive and captures most of the competencies that are promoted in nursing curricula (Carlton et al., 2007 & Clark et al., 2016). Global health therefore is pivotal in achieving equity in health care and possibly meeting the millennium sustainable goals.

The benefits of global health education to developed countries have been highlighted numerous times in the literature. However there is a paucity of information on the economic and other benefits to developing countries such as the Asian and African regions (Liu et al., 2015). The Caribbean is by no means different from these areas. While there has been agreements between the UWI and these universities from developed countries, there is no general policy from neither the ministries of health, education or tourism governing these arrangements. Yet there is clearly some economic and educational benefits from this symbiotic relationship hence the production of this paper. This case study aims to describe a model of income generation at the UWI School of Nursing that utilized cultural and practical immersion in the Jamaican Health Care System.

Methods

This is a descriptive case study design. Case study designs involve an intensive exploration of a single unit of study and are widely used in nursing since the 1970’s (Grove, Burns & Gray, 2013). It was utilized to describe how the phenomenon of interest provided economic benefits to an organization and the local economy.

Before the visitors came, there was a series of dialogue between the faculty from the host country and the local faculty. This was either done via telephone, Skype or in person. The global desk was created to facilitate the influx of clientele who sought global health experience in a developing country. It had designated personnel to facilitate the process. The administrative person was responsible for coordinating tours and visits. The academic staff arranged lectures and made contact with key stakeholders. Meetings with critical stakeholders at the ministerial and hospital level were held to facilitate the process. Subsequently, a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) was drafted with each group and was modified according to their unique needs. Individualized programmes of engagement were developed and were dependent on the group size, length of stay and curricula global health competencies.

The content delivered included lectures on the public health care system in Jamaica, demography, health disparities and ethno-medicine. Students and faculty were immersed in various health care institutions to do mainly participatory observation. Tours were conducted of the various parts of the country as a means to compare the diversity of the Jamaican health system. Discussions were also held about the hierarchy of the health system and the chains of commands. They also visited monuments as well as attended cultural institutions including the Bob Marley Museum and a Rastafarian settlement. At the end of their visit there was a debriefing session and written and oral evaluations were done. The rationale for the debriefing sessions was to describe their experiences and to clear up any misconceptions as well as to add more information and to suggestions for improvement. Debriefing sessions were held at the UWI School of Nursing and was moderated by the Head of School.

In exchange the international students were required to pay administrative fees and this is calculated per student. Some of these fees were channeled to the needy student fund which helps to provide lunches for our students. One group gave scholarships to students who had difficulty paying for their tuition. They also gave meal and travel vouchers.

Additionally faculty exchange programmes were also explored, as well as research collaboration. The head of department recognizes the need for faculty to be exposed and proposed this as a requirement. The driving philosophy is that high-quality teachers and students need a high-quality education and experience including a global perspective of the social determinants of health. A faculty that experiences different modalities of health care within a global community will bring back these new ideas and modify them with cultural sensitivity to help solve some of our perennial problems. They will also obtain experiences that develop leadership and support leadership activities through networking.

Kingston's artistic appeal was taken advantage of as all international students were taken on windshield tours of Kingston and St. Andrew. Visits to plays, museums and other places of interest were integrated. They visited the National Heroes Park, Port Royal and Culture Yard in Trench Town. Some students also went to the local market including Papine and Coronation markets. Some students who stayed long enough and who could understand the language attended local plays. They were also exposed to other aspects of the island including Ocho Rios, St. Elizabeth and Portland. Drivers, market vendors, craft vendors, and community members also benefitted from sales of products and services.

Initially the programme had some challenges that had to be navigated. These included buying in from key stakeholders and the threat of crime and violence. Strategies utilized included engaging the Nursing Council of Jamaica, the South East Regional Health Authority, health care administrators, Non-governmental Organizations and community leaders.

Findings (Benefits)

The global desk has benefitted Jamaica both at micro and macroeconomic level. Benefits for UWISON over the period 2013-2018 include administrative fees varying from USD\$100 - 300 per person and was dependent on the institution and group size. Also, scholarships were provided valuing approximately USD\$10,000.00 and lunch meals at USD\$3-5.00 for vulnerable students. See table 1.

Table 1: Income Generation:

Variables	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Number of Schools/Institutions	1	2	3	2	2	5
Administrative Fees (US\$)	2400.00	4600.00	8690	6730	4400	12400
Scholarships			2 @ US\$2500.00	2 @ US\$5000.00	2 @ US\$5000.00 each	2 @ US\$5000.00 each
Other Benefits			100 meal tickets @US\$3	200 meal tickets @US\$3	Meal Tickets US680	Meal Tickets US680
Total (US\$)	2400.00	4600.00	13,990.00	17,330.00	15,080	23,080

Tours: (micro and macro level)

At the micro level bus owners were contracted to transport the visitors from the airport to their place of accommodation. They were also transported to clinical sites in order to do observation and practice. Windshield tours were done to give the students an idea of the landscape and geo political scene of the Jamaica. This help to contextualize their understanding of the health care system that exists.

Cultural visits to places such as Dunn's River Falls, Craighton Estate Coffee Plantation and to the Rastafarian Village. The Bob Marley Museum, plays, the National Art Gallery, the Edna

Manley Animation Festival and Emancipation Park were some of the areas visited. Fees were charged for all these visits and this helps to strengthen the macro economy due to the multiplier effect.

In case of the food Industry, students patronized supermarkets, local markets, restaurants, Devon House Ice Cream, Gloria's, South Avenue Grill, Red Bones Cafe, and Usain Bolt Tracks and Records. Students sampled our world-famous coffee by touring the Craighton Estate Coffee Plantation and purchased coffee to take home. Students and faculty interacted with inner-city residents by visiting their establishments and observing them in their natural setting. Souvenir shops were also supported as t-shirts and other Jamaican memorabilia were purchased.

The University of the West Indies were not excluded from these benefits as some students and faculty stayed at the new 138 Student Living Accommodation, had campus tour and purchased UWI memorabilia at the book shop.

Non-economic benefits: knowledge exchange and research collaboration

The UWISON faculty was not left out from the benefits of this model. Opportunities were provided for research collaboration and mentoring for junior staff. Both local and international students interacted with each other in different fora. International students would join classes and labs with the local students. They had dinners and social engagements in which they discussed similarities and differences.

The Missionaries of the Poor benefitted from the expertise of the students as they provided care for the residents. Also, students from Duke University School of Nursing participated in the Health Fair and cared for clients from the Mona Primary School, Whitfield Town Clinic and a Psychiatric Clinic.

In their debriefing sessions students reported that "their experiences were broad and also enriched their knowledge in areas they wanted to have more exposure." They also stated that "The housing situation was excellent; it was convenient and they felt safe and enjoyed mingling and getting to know the other students on campus."

Another student wrote online in 2018,

Although London and Europe shaped my knowledge of the NHS and various other aspects of European Health, I believe that Kingston also impacted me and also prepared me for my future as a nurse. In Kingston, we took courses at the University of Mona, West Indies taught by various health professionals ranging from nursing professors to public health nurses. We took tours to uptown and downtown Kingston and just by observation, we could notice the environmental and health disparities of the rich uptown people versus the impoverished downtown people. In addition, I personally volunteered at two health clinics, the Edna Manley Clinic and Windward Road Clinic in Kingston. Overall, this was a very fun study abroad experience!

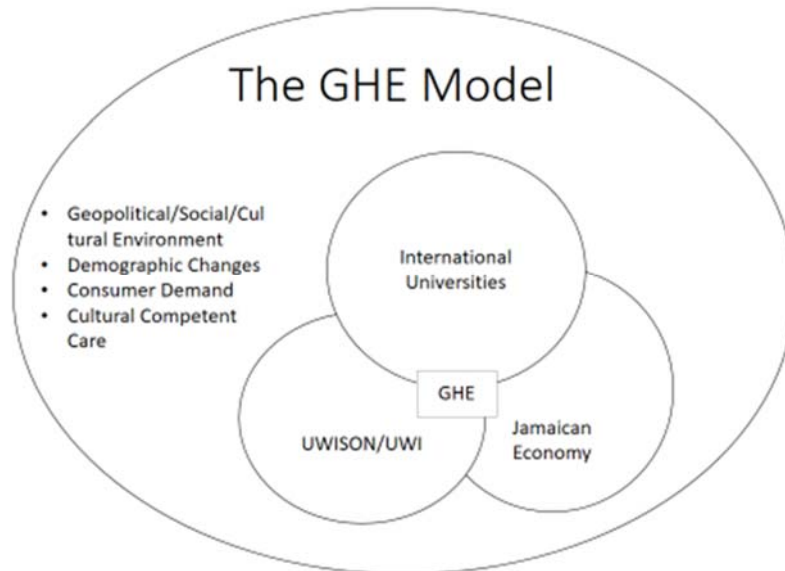
A fourth-year nursing student from the University of Alberta wrote about her experience in Jamaica in the University of Alberta Nursing News in 2015. She reflected on her experience in Jamaica recognizing that "the only true nation is humanity".

In terms of faculty engagement and collaboration, Columbia University in New York pledged their support in helping the UWISON in developing a Midwifery Programme. In 2018 four UWISON faculty participated in an exchange programme at Birmingham City University. In return faculty from Birmingham City University visited the UWISON and is assisting in the development of the Intensive Care Unit Course. Two other faculty from universities in the United States and Canada are supervising faculty doing the PhD programmes. Additionally, University of Alabama (UAB) School of Nursing has provided simulation training for faculty with not just for the faculty of the School of Nursing but also for educators in the Faculty of Medical Sciences. In turn faculty from the University of Alabama were exposed to our health care system and had a tour of Kingston in which they were exposed to the various determinants of health.

This model has benefited Jamaica both at the micro and macro levels. It has reaped both tangible and intangible benefits for all stakeholders including our international partners. It has benefited

the people of Jamaica in its entirety as the students have visited most of the parishes in the island. See Figure 1.

Figure 1: showing The Global Health Education Model



Discussion

The benefits generated from this model are far reaching. This is a viable income generation model for resource deprived countries (Ouma and Dimeras, 2013). The model is timely and met the departmental needs and that of the international students and faculty. It is feasible and can be implemented with little resources and provided an opportunity for faculty to be mentored (Edwards et al., 2009). It however required the flexibility and commitment of key stakeholders to ensure the successful implementation through continuous engagement. Early stakeholder engagement is necessary for the successful implementation of global health experiences. In our own experience, there was initial resistance from the Nursing Council of Jamaica (NCJ) due to concerns over public safety. This was because the mandate of the Council is to protect the public. This was addressed by ensuring that the students were always with trained faculty whether local or overseas and most students participated in mainly observational visits. The Chief Nursing Officer was also integral in the dialogue with the NCJ. They were gradually convinced that the public would be protected and this is a means of capacity building for nurse educators which are in very short supply. There was also resistance from some Directors of Nursing and other senior nursing staff because it was felt that the students were interrupting their time that they could use for patient-care. Also, the visitors were taking from them but not providing anything in return. To solve this problem the school had to engage the senior staff members of the university who would dialogue with the directors of nursing and the ministry.

The Regional Health Authorities are seen as key stakeholders in this initiative. They must be engaged from inception and for logistical guidance as they grant permission for the health facilities to accept students. Bureaucratic process pose a challenge as the flow of information to the ground staff is delayed. This affects their receptiveness of the visitors as they were not involved in the decision-making process. It is possible that earlier engagement with key stakeholders and follow-up is essential for the smooth execution of the programme as well as more public relations strategies.

Another set of stakeholders that have not been engaged is the Ministry of Tourism and the Tourism Product Development Company Limited. Since the programme is still in infancy, it has to be established in order so that we can convince these stakeholders of the viability of the scheme. Yet it is important to talk to these stakeholders because they can provide guidance in terms of safe areas. It can become part of their marketing strategy as this is a niche market that has not been tapped into fully. Systematic approaches must be contextualized to meet each country's need to maintain this niche market and maintain a symbiotic relationship.

While Jamaicans are noted for their warmth and friendliness, this type of visit is educational in nature and so a local person must be there to guide the process. What we have found is that sometimes students may explore beyond safe boundaries. One useful strategy is to have a local person with them. Students were asked to be accountable to each other and to the academic facilitator. The school provided additional support staff for preceptoring depending on the group size to facilitate the process.

Jamaica's crime problem is constantly highlighted in the media and this can deter potential global health visitors. So, students were guided as to where they could go. In their scripted activities they were always accompanied by a local person. However, we are mindful of the areas where there is a flare up of violence and so we don't take them into those communities. Yet students are glad for the experience and the community walks as they got a feel of the real Jamaica and not just the sea and sand that is advertised. For the most part they would heed the warnings that were given to them and so there have been minimal incidents of crime against these students.

Limitations

The case study design does not lend itself to generalization to other groups or global health programmes. A longitudinal approach would be beneficial to capture the benefits from this type of model. However it would serve as a pilot for even larger study and it should be expanded to hear responses from key stakeholders including those in the health care system who interface with these visitors.

Recommendations

Policy framework and marketing

Despite the organizers' best intentions, this scheme of generating income for our students was fraught with some issues. There is no policy framework in place in any ministry that can be used as a guide for this endeavor. Since this is a viable means of income for the university and the larger economy strategies must be in place to address the way forward. Additionally, the tourism stakeholders can market this as a viable destination.

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THE SHARING ECONOMY ACCORDING TO UBER AND AIRBNB IN SOUTH AFRICA:
CHALLENGES, OPPORTUNITIES AND IMMEDIATE PROSPECTS

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Abstract

Sharing economy or access economy is about using digital platforms to allow customers to have access to, rather than ownership of, tangible and intangible assets. The shared economy economises on scarce resources and often involves deeper social interactions than traditional market transactions. The sharing economy has the potential for global revenues of USD335bn by 2025. The growing number of connected digital devices makes matching supply and demand easier than ever before and peer-review systems on these digital platforms are the means of regulating quality. Many African countries already have large informal economies where collaborative, peer-to-peer businesses thrive. African Business Magazine explains that Africans have often had a second job, or rented out a spare room, or shared their cars, making bargains here and there. What is new in the “shared economy” is that companies like Uber and Airbnb have formalised the sector. Sharing economy increased access to tools and other useful physical resources, and creation of secondary economies (eg Uber drivers delivering food or goods). Sharing economy promote online staffing which includes digital platforms for connecting clients and jobs. Many freelancers use these platforms full-time and sharing economy also encompasses the rental of offices, board rooms and hot desks including co-working spaces. Car sharing is part of a larger trend of shared mobility in South Africa, and this shared mobility includes all modes of travel that offer short-term access to transportation on an on-needed basis either for personal transportation or goods delivery. Millions of people all over the world shifted their loyalty from traditional companies to the global businesses that made the concept of the Sharing Economy more popular, such as Uber and AirBnB. And even more fundamentally, these companies and many other new thinkers like them started to re-lay the basic building blocks of commerce according to a new standard.

Keywords: Uber, Airbnb, Sharing Economy, Collaborative Consumption

Theoretical Framework: The Sharing Economy

The emergence of the sharing economy is one of the most defining features of our times, where human being are granted an opportunity to offer services to other services using internet based platforms as marketplaces where buyers and sellers meet. “By privileging “access over ownership” and renting out underutilized assets-your apartment, your couch,

your car, your applications, your spare time-this new sector promises to deliver us of our possessiveness” Parigi & Cook (2015:1). “Sharing economy can be defined as an economic model based on peer-to-peer (P2P) activity for acquiring, providing or sharing access to goods and services facilitated by a community of online platforms. And the use of big data has made it easier to bring together the asset owners and those that want to use those assets. This type of dynamic is referred to as shareconomy, collaborative consumption, collaborative economy or peer economy. Sharing economies creates values by utilizing underused assets” Hong (2018: 1). The critical success factor for the emergence of the sharing economy has been Information and Communication Technology (ICT), allowing people to participate in collaborative consumption, using ICT as a trading platform. “The sharing of goods, services, ideas, or skills is certainly not a revolutionary practice but today, thanks to new Web 2.0 technologies and online person-to-person (P2P) platforms specially developed to facilitate this type of transaction, it is taking on dimensions more and more important also creating new players competing with traditional commerce” Van Der Berg, Camatti, Bertocchi & Albarea (2017:2).

Sharing amongst the world’s populations has been facilitated also by the proliferation of social media platforms such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter and also TripAdvisor, where guests will rate services. High density in urban areas has also facilitated the growth of the sharing economy, enabling disruptive entrepreneurship. “Urbanization forms one basis for the development of a sharing economy. In cities, a high density of consumers is coupled with limited space enabling the sharing of certain resources to take place with ease” Roblek, Stok & Mesko (2016: 378). Sharing has emerged as a business opportunity, and specifically a form of disruptive entrepreneurship. “The sharing economy is an extension of globalization and neoliberalism, as it is premised on using private resources to provide products and services, at times against government regulations. The so-called “sharing economy” generally refers to the phenomenon of turning unused or under-used assets owned by individuals into productive resources” Henama (2019: 38). Sharing economy has revolutionized many aspects of our lives and how will it challenge traditional notions of mobility and individual freedom after the advent of self-driving as described by Ratti (2016). In the United States, cars are idle 95% of the time, so they are an ideal candidate for the sharing economy. Sharing is the critical element in enabling on-demand mobility systems to deliver benefits to riders, drivers, and cities,” Salzberg (2016: 1). The sharing economy will dominate tourism consumption as it’s the preferred partner for tourism consumption amongst the millennials, who represents the current and the future of the tourism industry.

Research Methodology: Literature Review

There is a paucity of academic gaze in terms of book chapters and academic journals on the sharing economy’s impact on the tourism industry in South Africa. The gaze is dominated by non-academic sources such as newspaper articles both print and online. A narrative literature review analyses the literature and prepares a detailed summary on the body of knowledge, which includes a conclusion and identifies research gaps and further research opportunities on the topic. A detailed literature review was undertaken, which prepared the literature for consumption by the academic community generally, and tourism academics specifically. A literature review exclusively uses secondary data. Johnston (2014) noted that secondary data is analysis of data that was collected by someone else for another primary purpose. Once published, the literature review would be relied upon by researchers on the sharing economy, and be used as part of their literature review on the topic. Cronin (2008) noted that the purpose of a literature review is to provide the reader with a comprehensive background for understanding current knowledge. “Literature review papers are often very helpful for researchers, as the reader gets an up to date and well-structured overview in a specific area, and the review adds value” Van Wee & Banister (2015: 1).

Uber: A Disruptive Business Model for Taxi Services

Uber is an on-demand non-conventional taxi business since it owns no cabs and has no cab drivers as employees. Instead, it sends a driver to a user when they ping a mobile app. It is a technology company that matches consumers to car services in many cities around the globe and takes a slice of the fair for the service. Uber identified the challenges of urban congestion, and made it possible for underutilized car assets to become used for trips. As a consequence, Uber has made it possible for car ownership to become an asset, for a depreciating asset, the car or automobile. “Uber Technologies Inc. enables customers to book drivers using their own cars through the transportation app Uber. It is essential as a sector disrupting company on a mission to replace taxi as a conventional public transport” Hong (2018: 7). Uber is a taxi service that is currently disrupting the taxi market worldwide. Unlike any other taxi companies out there, it is non-conventional since it owns no cabs, and the taxi drivers aren’t their employees. However, a better label to give Uber would be a “technology company”, since what they do is they use a mobile app to match consumers to cars as noted by Walji & Walji. (2016).

Cramer, Judd & Krueger (2016), postulated that in many cities, the taxi industry is highly regulated and has restricted entry. The licensing regiment has enabled a situation where there are less taxis as compared to the demand for taxi services. Ride sharing services, such as Uber and Lyft, which use mobile internet technology to connect passengers and drivers, have begun to compete with traditional taxis. Moreover, they indicate that most cities with data available, UberX drivers spend a significantly higher fraction of their time, and drive a substantially higher share of miles, with a passenger in their car than do taxi drivers. In countries such as South Africa, it has stimulated the creation of a new market, of car owners that opted to use Uber to connect to the high speed train network called the Gautrain. In South Africa, the majority of Uber trips are concentrated around Gautrain stations. The innovate business model has been incredibly successful for Uber. Since the company’s founding in 2009, Uber has experienced nearly vertical growth. As of December 2014, Uber is valued at

\$40 billion, a valuation that is double what it was six months prior, and, according to some estimates, is appreciating by \$19,839 per minute according to Gongloff (2014). Uber has been able to diversify its business model to include other sources of revenue, which has sustained its business model.

Uber Tracking

Uber has an app called Uber Partner, that all the cab drivers have to use. This app is the source of all location data that powers Uber experience as noted by Poddar (2017). Carino, (2018), agued that the ride-sharing service Uber has always focused on riding the cutting edge of technology to stay ahead of its incumbent predecessors and competition. Uber driver tracking GPS on drivers’ phones is proof of the value of measuring driver performance for businesses. Uber’s service is built around their smartphone app used by both drivers and customers, which gives them an opportunity to collect GPS, gyroscope and accelerometer data during Uber trips. Data is constantly collected during trips and sent to Uber’s servers for processing and long-term storage. Uber sends drivers comparative reports on their driving habits by analyzing the trip data for rapid acceleration, harsh braking, speeding, or dangerous cornering, but also stores data to find long-term driver- or location-specific trends. The goal of using telematics for Uber is to improve driver safety and reduce car crashes. At the same time, they can gather important and useful information on roads, conditions, and driver reactions.

The Evolution of the Uber Experience in South Africa

“Uber is part of the revolutionary change that is brought by technology that has seen the development of central reservation systems, to the creation of online booking platforms that reduced the cost of doing business, catalysing the development of low cost carriers (LCCs)” Henama & Sifolo (2017: 7). Dube (2015:3) “Uber has an additional convenience-based competitive advantage which allows the service to tap into a whole new market for unmet demand for convenient, fast and flexible point-to-point urban transportation. The Uber application makes it easy to hail or order a cab from any location, at flexible times. Unlike Uber, traditional taxis are usually located at central depots or central places such as bus stations or train stations... It is likely that the app-based service is tapping or inducing new demand of customers that were previously using their own vehicles”. The technology based operation of Uber attracted big business players that sought to benefit from it. The first was the vehicle financing arm of Rand Merchant Bank (RMB), Wesbank announced an agreement with Uber. Uber and WesBank, according to Van Zyl (2015) concluded an agreement to the value of R200m, where Uber partner-drivers will be able to start their own business. The agreement made it possible to boost market access on the Uber platform, where the supply of cars was made much easier, making it possible for Uber to deliver the transport services.

Tipping

Uber is a service intensive-operation and tipping was introduced as a means to improve the service levels. TechCentral (2018b) noted that tipping is completely optional, and was created for clients to reward great service. The innovation of introducing tipping has the advantage of improving service levels when Uber rides are undertaken. Uber partner drivers are therefore compelled to deliver service excellence in each trip, as tipping is an incentive for above average service delivery. Therefore, as part of continued pioneering, the tipping option was introduced to ensure that partner drivers up their delivery of service excellence. This confirms the fact that people respond to incentives, and the tipping option is a means of motivating Uber partner-drivers to improve how they deliver services to guests. According to Overly (2017) noted that Uber drivers in New York had pushed the company to add an electronic tipping option. “In July 2017 Uber rolled out the option to tip its drivers in its South Africa” De Wet (2018:1). The business philosophy of Uber has been customer focused, and this includes conducting research amongst the customers. This includes conducting research on tipping. Wheels24 (2016) noted that research was conducted which asked “Would you tip your Uber driver if it was an option” and the results were as follows: 4783 (29%) respondents said they would tip the driver if it was an option 5394 (32%) said they would tip the driver depending on the service they receive 6533 (39%) of votes said they would not tip Uber drivers

Uber Crime

The opposition to Uber in South Africa primarily by the metered taxi drivers has resulted in acts of violence that have ranged from damaged to property and deaths. Mabe (2015) noted that Uber drivers and passengers have been intimidated from using Uber. Wicks (2016) noted that attacks on Uber drivers by taxi associations had prompted the appointment of a security team to protect Uber drivers and passengers. Crime is not limited to South Africa. “The introduction of Uber to the country was met with resistance from the start with metered taxi drivers saying the international transport brand’s lower rates would kill their businesses” Tau (2017: 1). Mwaura (2016) noted that several Uber taxis have been destroyed and their drivers assaulted in the Kenyan capital Nairobi. Several e-hailing drivers have been routinely attacked in South Africa’s major cities, and this has led to e-hailing customers boycotting the metered taxi driver to their own disadvantage. According to Rawlins (2015) Uber drivers when they approach Uber crime hotspots such as South

African airports and Gautrain stations (high speed train), they would hide the tell-tale Uber phone and ask the passengers to sit in the front of the car to prevent suspicion.

In 2017, there were several death of Uber drivers that were attacked in the industrial heartland of South Africa, which includes the cities of Johannesburg and Pretoria (the national capital city and seat of government). On several occasions Uber drivers have demonstrated by launching a convoy of a fleet of their cars, when there has been a death or an attack on one of their partner drivers. According to Sithole (2016) in 2016 Uber drivers staged a convoy from Zoo Lake to Waverley Bowls Club to attend the memorial service of Isrom Malema, who was shot dead in Rhodesfield on the East Rand. According to Naik (2015) to Uber has sent its drivers e-mails to warn them of possible violence by metered taxi drivers. In response Uber according to Dordley (2018) launched the call-back line which provides riders with 24/7 access to Uber's Global Incident Response Team (IRT) that was created to provide safety for Uber drivers and Uber customers. Gwangwa (2018) noted that the IRT was an addition to the private security response teams in areas like Gauteng stations and another team of former law enforcement professionals who work closely with the police to support any investigation. Broadband (2018) noted that for Uber partner drives to access the IRT feature by:

Clicking "Trip and fare review". Select the trip in question.
Select "I had a safety-related issues". Submit a ticket through the node.
The rider will receive a call within minutes.

Zwane (2017) e-hailing operators have organised themselves into the Uber Drivers Movement which would always lobby for their safety. The organisation of e-hailing operators was important for lobbying government, media and other stakeholders, by reflecting the plight of e-hailing operators. Increasingly the South African public have boycotted metered taxi drivers because of their acts of violence that led to the death of Taxify driver Siyabonga Ngcobo who was a student at the Tshwane University of Technology. Madisha (2018) noted that the police in Pretoria are still hunting for the killers of Siyabonga Ngcobo, a Taxify driver who was found dead and burnt in the boot of his vehicle. Siyabonga Ngcobo was a student at the Tshwane University of Technology was a 21 year old Taxify driver whose gruesome murder shook South Africa. As a consequence, an increased number of people boycotted metered taxi drivers for their acts of violence.

Uber Assist

UberASSIST has been designed to provide additional assistance for senior riders and riders with access needs such as the physically challenged and disabled. Driver-partners are specifically trained to assist riders when getting in and out of vehicles and can accommodate folding wheelchairs, walkers and service animals. Because of the additional needs of the clientele that UberASSIST caters for, Uber only uses Uber partner drivers who have above average ratings, to approve them for them for the UberASSIST platform. In South Africa UberASSIST was launched in Johannesburg and Cape Town. As this service is specifically aimed at those with access needs.

PRO TIPS for UberASSIST:

- After requesting your ride, feel free to contact your uberASSIST driver-partner ahead of time with any specific requests.
- Provide feedback. Our feedback loop asks riders to rate every trip, and we use that information to ensure that riders always receive safe and reliable transport services.
- Please note that uberASSIST vehicles do not have wheelchair accessible ramps according to Pillay (2017). To request an uberASSIST, you enter the code ASSIST from the Promotions section

of the app. From there, uberASSIST shows up on the slider, and you can set your location and request a ride. The cost is the same as UberX (Kristin Wong, 2017).

UberEATS

“Worldwide in 2016, the market for food delivery stood at €83bn or 1% of the total food market and 4% of food sold through restaurants and fast-food chains” Planting (2018: 1). As the world of work has changed in South Africa, this has led to the growth of fast food outlets and home-delivery meals dominated by franchising. Entrepreneur (2018) noted that the franchising sector has shown steady growth over the past four years, contributing 9.7% of GDP in 2014. Uber has diversified its service offerings by operating in the fast food delivery space by operating UberEats, which caused disruption for existing food delivery companies. The changing lifestyles, changing family roles associated with working families has led to the growth of the fast food industry. Therefore, Uber saw an opportunity which was fast growing and had potential to deliver in consistent growth. Uber introduced a food delivery company called UberEATS and this caused disruption in the fast food industry just like McDonald had done after 1994. UberEATS sought to disturb the established monopoly in South Africa, Mr. Delivery which was renamed Mr. D. When the introduction of UberEATS was announced in South Africa, this caused Mr. D, to improve its services and technology. UberEATS was launched in Cape Town in January 2017, using its separate application where patrons could choose meals from selected restaurants making use of partner drivers already on the Uber database.

The treat by Uber had forced Mr. Delivery to focus on investing on technology platforms. This was in anticipation of the intense competition that UberEATS would deliver when it entered the South African market. “And the battle for market share is hotting up between South Africa’s two largest services, Mr. D Food and UberEATS. At Mr. D Food, previously known as Mr. Delivery, online orders have soared to 95% of total orders for the year ending June 2017, compared with 20% last year. It’s app has been downloaded more than 200 000 times in the past six months” Henderson (2017: 1). Groundup (2018) noted that Mr. D Food, was acquired by online shopping store Takealot. The pioneer nature of Uber is always followed by competitors, and Taxify has followed the leadership by Uber by teaming up with OrderIn to deliver food in South Africa. According to TechCentral (2018), home-grown food delivery company OrderIn announced that it had partnered with Taxify to deliver food, in competition to UberEATS and Mr. D Food. The increased competition has benefited customers, with greater customer choice, leading to a proliferation of delivery vehicles that are now servicing guests.

Uber and Travelstart

Travelstart is an online travel agency headquartered in Cape Town according to Van Zyl (2016) founded by Swedish Stephan Ekbergh. Broadband (2006) noted the Swedish online travel entrepreneur Stephan Ekbergh entered the South African travel market by launching his first non-Scandinavian operation, Travelstart.co.za. Customers are able to make travel arrangements by booking on Travelstart’s website. “Passengers booking flights with Travelstart will qualify to get 50% off their next two Uber rides either to or from the airport. After completing a booking, Travelstart will send travellers a SMS with the promo code within 24 hours. When you enter the promo code into the Uber app at the airport, the 50% booking fee will apply. The service is available to all Travelstart customers travelling to or from five of the major airports in South Africa-either Cape Town International Airport, OR Tambo International Airport, Lanseria International Airport, Port Elizabeth International Airport and King Shaka International Airport” Steyn (2017: 2). This partnership was introducing a sales promotional technique to lead to customer preference for Uber when compared to other e-hailing competitors.

Uber Pool

People combine driving their car with other forms of mobility, namely public transport, car-sharing, riding the bike and ride-hailing services like Uber. Especially for young urban people, owning a car is becoming less attractive. People expect mobility to be on-demand and prefer accessibility over ownership. Services like Uber play an important role in this mix, because they bridge the gap - the so called first and last mile - between public transportation and one's final destination. With ride-pooling service uberPOOL users can share their ride and split the cost of the trip with other riders headed in the same direction. This saves money, utilizes existing cars better and results in less traffic, less congestion and lower emissions. And with self-driving cars and self-flying drones, we fast forward into the future. The International Transport Forum (ITF) (2017) released an exciting new report entitled shaping the relationship between public transport and new mobility. The ITF report urges a renewed focus on ensuring positive outcomes in urban transportation, rather than focusing on which party provides the service. The public interest in transportation is to provide a service that is cost effective, environmentally friendly, and equitable, particularly for those who don't have access to a private car (Tsai, 2017).

Airbnb in South Africa

“Airbnb was founded in Silicon Valley in 2008 as airbedandbreakfast.com. A business model based on other peoples' assets and services has an advantage of a sort of multiplier network effect. The more people stay at Airbnb or use the service to rent out their excess property, the more valuable the services platform becomes” Hong (2018: 5). “With platforms like Airbnb, the information technologies compete with the hotel industry” Roblek, Stok & Mesko (2016: 375). “Airbnb is an online marketplace and hospitality service that helps people lease or rent short-term lodging including vacation rentals, homestays, hostel beds, or hotel rooms with 97% of the listing price going directly to hosts” Venkess (2017: 1). “Airbnb is a self-defined community marketplace that connects hosts and users in a short-term rental economy outside of traditional rental industries. Hosts are able to earn additional income and guests can experience the city as a local neighbourhood, eat at local restaurants, eat at local restaurants and shop at local vendors. Initially when Airbnb was founded in 2008” Henderson (2016:14).

According to Barron, Kung & Proserpio (2017) noted that Airbnb, the home-sharing platform provides them with an income stream for when their housing capacity, would otherwise be underutilised. These underutilized assets then accrue economic value when they are registered on the Airbnb marketplace. Mason (2015) noted that the owners of Airbnb are generating economic rent out of their asset. “Airbnb are part of the growing sharing economy, a business model powered by new network technologies and social tools that is refining the ways goods and services are created and exchanged amongst citizens, business and governments. The Sharing Economy is about how resources are used, how hospitality is exchanged, how residents are empowered, and how economic opportunities are distributed across diverse communities. These values are at the heart of Airbnb” Airbnb (2018: 1). “Airbnb guests are most strongly attracted to Airbnb by its practical attributes (e.g., cost, location and amenities), and somewhat less by its experiential attributes (e.g., novelty and interaction)” Guttentag (2016:1). Chutel (2017) noted that in the last five years, more than 2 million people have found holiday accommodation in Africa through Airbnb which now has over 100,000 listings on the continent, African hosts earned \$139 million in the last year. Brophy (2016) noted that South African hosts on Airbnb improved their yearly earnings by R28 000.

How Airbnb Operates

“The Airbnb's user interface is easy to see and operates in a similar way as the major travel search

sites (e.g. Expedia, booking.com, or Orbitz). The traveller sets the primary search parameters (e.g. destination, travel dates, number of guests), the website then displays the available accommodations matching the search criteria, which can be further refined by adding additional parameters (e.g. price, location within the city, ancillary services, availability, etc.). If the accommodation meets the tourist's requirements, a reservation request (only registered Airbnb users are allowed to book) or an inquiring message could be sent to the host. Then, the host responds to the question or accepts or rejects the booking request. The booking is made via the system of Airbnb, thus the host and the guest do not receive each other's contact details. This guarantees that the company would not be bypassed and the fees charged by Airbnb will be paid. In the case of a successful reservation, Airbnb charges 3 percent host service fees for the host and 5-15 percent guest service fee depending on the booking price- for the guest" Boros et al. (2018:29).

Salmon (2015) noted that Airbnb works in South Africa for the following reasons:

- The quality is great.
- The prices are amazing compared to hotels.
- The hosts are friendly and will give you great advice on where to eat and play.
- They are generally self-catering and I like to braai/barbeque with a view.
- They are Airbnb establishments listed in almost every town.

"South Africa is one of Airbnb's successes. The 21st largest global markets for the room rental service, Airbnb is hoovering up more than R210m a year in rentals in SA from its 21,000 listings. This is money that might otherwise have boosted the coffers of the big JSE-listed hotel companies like Sun International and Tsogo Sun" Shevel (2016: 1). "Tourists hub Cape Town is Africa's biggest market for internet accommodation service Airbnb with over 5000 listings in that city. Described as the Uber for accommodation, Airbnb challenges the traditional hotel and guest house industry by enabling ordinary property owners rent out rooms and even entire homes to guests from anywhere in the world. After launching in 2008, the internet service has listings in over 35 000 cities and 192 countries" Van Zyl (2015a: 1). The Cape Town CBD is faced with a severe shortage of housing stock and the fact that it has emerged as a second home tourism destination, the forces of supply and demand have resulted in the city having some of the priciest properties.

According to Tarrant (2018) 170 out of the 240 apartments sold at the Cape Town Foreshore apartment development, would be operated as hotel. The use of apartments for exclusive use on the Airbnb platform has the negative impact of increasing the cost of housing. Reed (2016) noted that the Department of Tourism had begun engaging with Airbnb on regulating Airbnb, because of tensions. Fang, Ye & Law (2016) noted that establishing the legality of Airbnb operations through existing laws and policies is a complicated issue. Tourism Update (2017) noted that Fedhasa, has raised non-compliance of Airbnb with certain industry regulations, including verifying that accommodation providers are in compliance with the South African Liquor Act. Fedhasa, is the Federated Hospitality Association of Southern Africa raised the fact that Airbnb should follow the regulations set out by the Department of Home Affairs ensuring that visitors in South Africa are documented by accommodation providers, and that Airbnb should follow the tax laws set out by the South African Revenue Services according to David (2017).

Airbnb Experiences

Airbnb has established another Strategic Business Unit (SBU) called Airbnb Experiences which will disrupt the tour guiding industry. The arrival of guests at Airbnb hosted homes, had created a need for an additional service to be offered, which would make it possible for guests to enjoy

localised and authentic tours that would fit into the business principles of Airbnb. As a consequence Airbnb launched Airbnb Experiences, where locals can offer hosted tours. IOL (2018) noted that since launching in 2016, Experiences on Airbnb had gone from strength-to-strength both globally and locally, with over 13 000 experiences across 180 cities worldwide and a growth of 2500 percent in the past year. "Experiences are activities or excursions led by passionate local hosts, highlighting their interests and perspective, as well as unique places many visitors might not otherwise get to experience" IOL (2018: 1). Piennar (2017: 2) Airbnb Experiences was "are looking for what we would call, authentic experiences or real experiences. They want to be in a real neighbourhood, with real people, having a real experience, living like a local". Christie (2016) noted that in 2016, Airbnb announced that it was launching Airbnb Experiences, which envisages certain Airbnb "hosts" selling guided tours and other curated experiences on the Airbnb platform, in addition to renting their rooms and homes. According to IOL (2018) Airbnb Experiences are activities or excursions led by passionate local hosts, highlighting their interests and perspective, as well as unique places many visitors might not otherwise get to experience. Airbnb Experiences is not launched in all cities, a select few of cities are chosen to offer Airbnb Experiences. "South Africa is amongst our most successful markets since we launched. We launched Experiences with 12 cities and we're up to 50 cities at this point but Cape Town has outperformed virtually every city out there. And I think it's because this market, in particular, lends itself to those experiences" Piennar (2017: 4). Airbnb Experiences are usually encouraged not to exceed 10 guests, as a means of ensuring that the experience are authentic and high levels of personal attention are delivered to each guest. The Experiences that would be approved, must be differentiated by having a host who is passionate about the experience that has been curated, so that there is a personal story that can increase the uniqueness and authentic nature of the experience.

Conclusions

The fundamental difference between Uber and Airbnb, is that Uber sets the price for marketplace between the user of the service and the service provider. Whereas, Airbnb does not set prices, the hosts are at freedom to set their own price. That is the difference between the two platforms. The sharing economy has emerged as a reliable job creator initiating disruptive entrepreneurship that has accrued value for assets used to provide services within the sharing economy. This has changed the World of Work and the face of entrepreneurship which is increasingly peer-to-peer, cutting out established players through disruption. In the case of Uber, the researchers would like to suggest that Uber on the existing UberX and UberBlack platform, create a differentiation where a female driver can be identifiable for those that have registered for a proposed UberFemale platform.

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Extended Abstracts

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Introduction

The growing sector of fright tourism (Bristow & Newman, 2004) allows consumers to enjoy aspects of fear within the context of horror, the supernatural and mystery, and features highly emotional experiences. As a subset of dark tourism, attractions that allow tourists to satisfy their interest in frightful experiences, based on either historical or fictional events, are also referred to as ‘light-dark’ tourism (Stone, 2006), and ‘gothic’ tourism (McEvoy, 2016). While this niche of tourism is underrepresented in the academic literature, it is a worldwide industry estimated at \$7 billion, according to the Haunted Attraction Association (2016). Emotional experiences are often at the forefront of these experiential attractions, and practitioners use a variety of props, lighting, sound effects, actors and other means in order to create fright, delight and other emotional reactions.

Promotional brochures are used in the tourism industry to communicate with existing or potential visitors (Molina & Estaban, 2006) and are a standard communication tool within the hospitality and tourism industry, even with increased usage of electronic media advertising (Anderek, 2005). Creating marketing materials offers business owners of these attractions an opportunity to use unique imagery and language to entice potential guests into attendance because when deciding what visitor attractions to attend, tourists often look to a variety of sources of information regarding what kinds of experiences the attraction might offer. Tourist brochures (rack cards) often feature a variety of images and language to intrigue the reader. In the case of fright (aka scare) attractions these can include images of witches, demons and other supernatural creatures; castles, dungeons and other horrific locations; and language such as ‘macabre’, ‘chilling’ and ‘terror’. This type of language and imagery is frequently employed by business owners during brochure creation in order to invoke desired emotional responses such as fun, fear and shock (Weidmann, 2016).

Method

This presentation presents one part of an exploratory, qualitative phase of a larger mixed methods project, which investigates affective responses that are intended and generated by promotional materials of entertainment-centric dark tourism attractions in Salem, Massachusetts USA. The site of the infamous witch trials of 1692, during which nineteen persons were executed for witchcraft, Salem has become a popular dark tourism destination. Today the city offers haunted houses, ghost tours, horror museums and interactive witch trial theater experiences in addition to its other tourist attractions such as the House of the Seven Gables and the Salem Maritime National Historic Site. This phase employed focus groups (N=4) undertaken with students and members of the public at the University of North Carolina at Asheville, USA. The purpose of the focus groups was to gather participant reactions to promotional brochures of a variety of entertainment-centric dark tourism attractions in Salem, with regards to emotions the language and imagery evoked. The participants

were questioned about what kinds of emotional experiences they expect they would have when visiting the attractions, based on brochure presentation.

Findings

Focus group participants ranged in age from twenty to forty, with four being foreign exchange students from Europe and Africa. Focus group participants discussed their affective responses to the attractions via brochure imagery and language in terms of feelings, more than in terms of specifically emotions, suggesting the ambiguousness of emotions. They discussed their backgrounds in terms of whether they enjoy scare attractions, horror films and literature, and how their memories and interests influenced their responses to the brochures. For example, a student participant from Morocco stated that they do not show horror films in Morocco, and they also do not have any attractions like haunted houses or ghost tours in their country. Therefore, the imagery on the brochures was not as affective to her as it was to the Americans, due to lower exposure. Thus, the interpretation of the affective response to the imagery was highly personal.

Focus Group participants tended to agree with one another that they all understood from the brochures what type of experience they would expect to have at each of the attractions, although their opinions of the effectiveness and attractiveness of each brochure varied, in some cases tremendously. Words participants used to describe the feelings the brochures suggested for them included nostalgic, shocking, terrifying, interesting, spooky, boring, goofy, unnerving and crowded, among others. Many participants indicated they were more interested in the ghost tours than other attractions, and most concurred with the idea of “I want the history to scare me!”. ‘Realness’ of the imagery and the portrayal of something that could really happen to you was found to be appealing to most focus group members when it came to evoking the emotion of fear. Conversely, fantasy-type imagery was deemed less terrifying, unless relating to childhood fears. The inclusion of photographs depicting real audience reactions was also deemed to be a significant and important way to communicate what the actual experience would be since, as one participant stated, “you never do anything unless you see yourself doing it”.

Including the word ‘Witch’ on brochures was appealing to participants in this context because of the history of Salem, and more words than imagery on a brochure generally led the participants to think of the attraction as ‘more serious’ and less scary. Also, some participants indicated that the words were more powerful for them because the images are what they would expect, given the type of attraction it was, e.g. a haunted house. In some cases, specific terms put them off, such as the use of the term ‘show’ for a live theatrical performance. However, others indicated that a live theatrical performance is a unique attraction and some other way to communicate it was live theater would be needed in order to entice them to go, if the word ‘show’ was not on the brochure. In addition to emotions they expected to experience, other topics participants shared their viewpoints on included credibility of the attractions in terms of TripAdvisor logos, attractions all calling themselves ‘number one’, and preferences for simplicity in design over brochures that are ‘cluttered with imagery’.

Conclusion

This research seeks to understand consumers’ affective response to language and imagery used on tourist promotional brochures for entertainment-centric dark tourism attractions, commonly referred to as haunted or scare attractions. Focus group participants were asked their opinions of the brochures with respect to the emotional experience they expect to have at the attractions, based on the language and imagery utilized by the attractions. The research revealed that a variety of emotions are expected, including, excitement, terror, fun, humor, shock, ‘spooked out’ and, in some cases, boredom and disgust. Although emotions are an ingredient in the whole of an

‘experience’ (Jantzen, 2013) that a tourist attraction offers, emotions turned out to be ambiguous to define. Most respondents found it easier to discuss everything they felt the experience might offer, including that it might be educational, historical, spooky, or dull. Stock horror imagery was generally effective in communicating these emotions or experience elements, but participants often felt that the imagery invoked different emotions in each of them, depending on their own personal history and what they, personally, found frightening. This research contributes to the literature in two ways. First, it provides empirical data about the range of emotions to be experienced in the fright tourism industry, and secondly, it provides an additional avenue of research inquiry into the creation and usefulness of tourist promotional brochures.

Keywords: *Fright tourism; affective response; marketing; focus groups*

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SUSTAINABLE TOURIST BEHAVIOUR: THE PERSPECTIVE OF ECONOMIC SUSTAINABILITY

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Abstract

The idea of sustainable tourism development is widely raised nowadays. In other words, it is very likely that tourists could play an important role in making tourism sustainable economically, socio-culturally, and environmentally. While it is generally agreed that tourism brings significant economic benefits to destinations, because of leakage effect and enclave tourism, the problem of whether the local community could receive as much economic benefits as they should be is debatable. The degree of leakage varies in different destinations. UNEP (2005) claims that ensuring economic benefits secured at destinations is an important principle of sustainable development. There shall be a lot to do to promote economic sustainable tourism in destinations. From the consumer perspective, it is likely that tourists could play a role in economic sustainability on choosing and purchasing local businesses and local products in destinations, but mass tourists in general are likely to prefer international businesses and products.

Despite the implementation of sustainable practices of governments and tourism service providers, studies show that sustainable tourist behaviours are crucial to promote tourism sustainability. Regarding the economic sustainability of tourism, the behaviour of tourists choosing local businesses and local products could be economically beneficial to local communities in destinations, minimising leakage effect at the same time. Most current studies focus on discussing sustainable tourism on production perspective but very little on consumption - the tourists (Shamsub & Lebel, 2012). It is generally seen that most people and most studies tend to relate sustainable tourism with environmental aspects first, then socio-cultural; fewer on economic aspects. Existing literature discussing sustainable tourist behaviour are also rarely found. This study will discuss tourists travelling behaviours and their preferences on choosing and purchasing local businesses and local products in destinations. consumers play a crucial role on enhancing tourism sustainability (Budeanu, 2007; Shamsub & Lebel, 2012). An investigation study on tourists' behaviours and their preferences on choosing and purchasing local businesses and local products in destinations.

Shamsub and Lebel (2012) have done a similar research on investigating in sustainable tourist behaviours by conducting a survey on international tourists in Thailand. Primary data of this study was collected from 383 Hongkongers to investigate their behaviours, choices, and preferences on choosing local business and purchasing local products in destinations through a questionnaire survey. Convenience sampling method was used in this research survey. Snowball sampling method was used in the survey by asking respondents for suitable referrals for the survey. The questionnaire were distributed between the period from mid-January to the end of February

2017. In sections asking about respondents' travelling behaviours, their choices and preferences of transportation, accommodation, food & beverage, tour operators, and shopping, the questions were set based on Shamsub and Lebel's (2012, p. 29) proposed economic indicators in their research. The valid sample of this research was 383. Descriptive statistics and cluster analysis were adopted in this study. Subsequently, the most and the least sustainable area(s) of Hongkongers, as well as the potential demographic characteristics and travel patterns of more and less sustainable tourists were identified.

Choosing local businesses and local products

It seems that there is a relatively higher mean score in some of the questions. Both questions regarding the behaviour of purchasing local produced food and drinks and locally-made souvenirs and handicrafts are noted with a highest mean score (4.09). There is also a rather high mean score (3.84) for respondents going for local brands when shopping. Meanwhile, the question "Generally tend to go for local products" is also noted with a mean score of nearly 4 (3.95). This tends to show that Hongkongers have a high tendency in purchasing local products. In addition, the second highest mean score (3.84) is found in the question for giving preference to local restaurants; this may represent that Hongkongers are very likely to go for local restaurants in destinations. The mean score 3.59 of the question "Generally tend to go for local businesses" may show that there is a tendency for Hongkongers to go for local businesses when travelling. The mean percentage score of the benchmark is 69.94 (24.48/35). It is likely to show that Hongkongers may be likely to go for local businesses and local products when travelling, however, the score may not be high enough to call Hongkongers economically sustainable tourists.

Preferences in local businesses and local products

From the results of the questions, it is noticed that Hongkongers are very unlikely to consciously avoid Hong Kong-based airlines, with the mean score of 2.22. The benchmark percentage score of respondents' preferences in local businesses and local products is 61.15 (21.40/35); slightly lower than their actual behaviours and choices. This may be due to the result of the question that Hongkongers are very unlikely to avoid Hong Kong-based airlines; one of the possible reasons could be that Cathay Pacific Airways, the largest Hong Kong-based airline, has a strong brand identity among Hongkongers because of its long history and its 5-star airline recognition. Another possible reason could be that Hongkongers are unlikely to avoid international accommodation businesses as it is noted with the second lowest mean score (2.595); international accommodation business could be referred to as international hotel chains or hotel groups.

People who tend to be more sustainable are likely to have visited more geographic areas. 66% of them have visited three or more geographic areas; while people who tend to be less sustainable may have relatively visited less geographic areas, with 40% of them visited three or more geographic areas. In other words, people who are more sustainable may have more travel experiences. It was found that people who are more sustainable tend to plan for a longer stay in destinations and vice versa. People who are more sustainable are less likely to join all-inclusive guided tours, while more (about half of them) people who are less sustainable would join all-inclusive guided tours. People who are more sustainable are less likely to join all-inclusive guided tours. Shamsub and Lebel (2012) have also found that tourists who join group tours tend to have less sustainable behaviours. People who are more sustainable are less likely to join all-inclusive guided tours, while more (about half of them) people who are less sustainable would join all-inclusive guided tours. Shamsub and Lebel (2012) have also found that tourists who join group tours tend to have less sustainable behaviours. In addition, it appears that there is relatively a higher number (62.3%) in the younger age group of "18 – 30" among more sustainable respondents. On

the other hand, the population of various age groups are relatively balanced, the low number from age group “61 or above” is likely to be due to the fact that there are only few people (N = 16/383 or 4.2%) from the age group “61 or above” among all respondents of the survey. Wu (2010) claims that Hong Kong’s younger generation tends to have a higher education level (many have finished tertiary education) which Shamsub and Lebel (2012) argue that education level is likely to affect tourists’ tendency of having sustainable behaviours. From the findings there may be relatively more people with higher education level who travel more sustainably, and vice versa. There seems to be many more people who are single to travel more sustainably, while the number of single and married people who are less sustainable is likely to be similar. However, this could be due to the fact that there are younger adults (age group “18–30”) who tend to be more sustainable because there may be many people aged 18–30 that are not-married.

This study has also identified two areas (i.e. shopping and F&B) that Hongkongers are likely to be more sustainable and one least sustainable area (i.e. transportation). It was discovered that they have a higher likelihood on going for local businesses and products than international. Respondents with highest scores in choosing local businesses and products are more likely to have a higher frequency of travelling as nearly half of them usually travel three to five times a year; comparatively, majority of people who most likely go for international businesses and products tend to have less travelling frequency, with majority of them travel only 1–2 times, fewer travel 3–5 times a year. This is likely to be a new finding that the higher the travel frequency, there may be a higher chance of having more sustainable behaviours..

In summary, it is found that Hongkongers may have a relatively high tendency in choosing local businesses and products; however, it could be doubted if the score (69.94) is high enough to call Hongkongers economically sustainable tourists. Comparatively, the score of giving preferences over local businesses and products (61.15) is slightly lower because of several possible reasons, for example, not consciously avoiding Hong Kong-based airlines and international accommodation businesses. Generally speaking, it seems that there may be no significant evidence in showing Hongkongers are more likely to go for and prefer local and less likely to go for and prefer international businesses and products when all scores are compared together. This study has also identified two areas (i.e. shopping and F&B) that Hongkongers are likely to be more sustainable and one least sustainable area (i.e. transportation).

These findings may be of importance in further exploring the novel concept of sustainable tourist behaviours. In addition, they may be relevant for authorities, policymakers, and destination managing organisations (DMOs). The main limitation of this research study is the sampling. The sample size (n = 383) may not be large enough to represent the whole picture of Hongkongers’ sustainable tourist behaviour. It would be interesting to discover if there would be a relationship between tourists’ preferences and actual choices on local businesses and local products; also, between tourists’ attitudes towards sustainability and their actual actions.

Keywords: sustainable tourist behavior, tourism sustainability, economic sustainability, Hong Kong

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REFERENCE GROUPS' BEHAVIOR-ATTITUDE IN-CONGRUENCY'S INFLUENCE ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES' OCBS

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Introduction

The success of hotels relies greatly on motivating employees who are willing to contribute to customer service and organizational functions beyond job descriptions (Ma & Qu, 2011). These employees are previous assets for hotels and are often called “good soldiers” (Organ, 1988), who perform Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB). OCB refers to employees’ contribution in workplace that go above and beyond prescribed job descriptions and contractually rewarded job achievements (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Given the importance of OCBs, many researchers attempted to identify mechanisms that motivate employees’ OCBs (e.g. Organ, 1988; MacKenzi et al., 1993; Ma et al., 2016). Researchers suggested that peer pressure is an important factor that forces employees to engage in OCB (e.g. Jacqueline et al., 2004). Peers, supervisors and organizational leaders are important Reference Groups for employees, which are people that influence the attitudes of individuals who use them as a reference point for evaluating their own situation (Hyman, 1968). Reference groups play importance roles in people’s decision-making (e.g. Hsu, Kang & Lam, 2006). According to the Employee Exchange Relationship assumption (Jacqueline et al., 2004) and the Social Desirability Theory (Testa, 2009), the three reference groups’ attitude and behaviors towards OCB would influence hotel frontline employees’ OCB. However, no researcher has attempted to provide a theoretical explanation for this phenomenon. This study aims to explore how three types of reference groups, namely top management, supervisors and co-workers’ attitude-behavior in-congruency would influence on fellow employees’ OCBs (Figure 1).

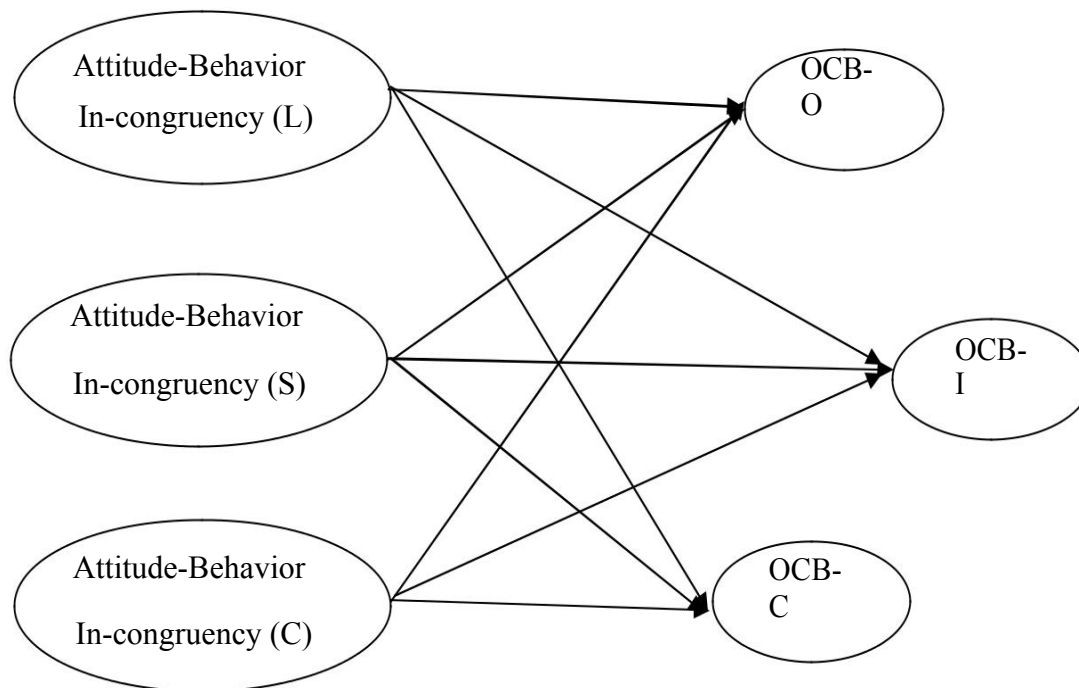


Figure 1 Conceptual Model

Methods

The study used data collected from hotels' frontline employees in Australia using a questionnaire. All measurements were adapted from previous validated scales. 352 valid responses were retained for data analysis using SPSS.

Findings

Regression results suggest that top management's attitude-behavior in-congruency negatively affected employees' OCB-O and OCB-I but did not affect employees' OCB-C. The in-congruency of attitude and behaviors of supervisors and co-workers, however, had no significant impact on employees' OCB-O, OCB-I and OCB-C. The findings of the study suggested the importance of top management's attitude and behavior congruency in the contexts of fostering employees' OCB. Although top management do not interact with hotel employees as frequently as their supervisors and co-workers, decisions made by top management has profound impact on employees. In-congruency between top management's attitude, promises and actual behaviors and actions would have greater impacts on hotel frontline employees. Therefore, it is critical that policies and actions initiated from top management need to maintain consistency and integrity. This study also explore other types of reference groups' role in employees' OCBs, enriched literature on references groups and OCBs.

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FOREIGN TOURIST FIDELITY IN SPAIN

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Abstract

An important part of foreign tourists chooses Spain as a tourism destination after previous visits for leisure. Within them, a significant number of tourists shows fidelity and loyalty to the tourist destination by choosing repeatedly the same destination, even several times within a year. Given the importance of this phenomenon, this paper analyses the factors determining this fidelity, allowing to describe the type of tourist that shows this consumption pattern. Tourists decisions are estimated through a probit model with sample selection showing that tourists characteristics, types of trips and destination attributes determine a faithful travel choice to the same destination.

Keywords: tourist fidelity, probit model with sample selection, tourist destinations

Extended Abstract

Academic research of the tourism sector has experienced a great development in recent years. More and more papers connect tourism activity to various research topics such as climate change, ecotourism and sustainability, image of the tourist destination and so on. Given the importance of the number of tourists who repeat in their choice of tourist destination, the literature devoted to issues related to loyalty and fidelity to the tourist destination is substantially increasing. Campón et al. (2013) provide a good example by analysing more than 80 research articles from scientific journals and doctoral thesis after the year 2000. All these works use different models to determine the factors that lead to loyalty and fidelity towards destinations, accommodation and other touristic products.

For the Spanish case, the sector reached more than 75 million foreign visitors in 2016. Approximately 83% of them correspond to travellers who have already visited Spain. Only for 17% of the total international travellers arriving in Spain, it was their first visit. This figure is a bit

higher, but without reaching 20%, if leisure tourists¹⁰ (70%) are only considered. Moreover, 63.58% of leisure tourists that repeat visit the country at least once a year. Given the importance of the volume of foreign tourists that chooses repeatedly Spain as a tourist destination, this work focuses on analysing the factors that determine the decision to return to Spain more than once a year. That is, factors that lead to frequent visits to Spain are identify. The frequency of visits is mainly explained by the socio-demographic profile of the tourist, as well as other characteristics of both the trip and the destination visited. The analysis is based on the assumption, confirmed by the data, that, among the tourists that visit Spain every year, there is a group that repeats the choice of Spain as a tourist destination. Furthermore, there is a remarkable category of tourists within this group, who visits Spain more than once per year. The interest of the research carried out focuses on the analysis of these tourists, their behaviour and their characteristics.

The analysis of this frequency of visits suggests a problem with the sample selection, question that previous investigations do not take into account. Therefore, to explain the behavior of tourist repetition, a probit model with sample selection is considered. This model assumes that there is an underlying relationship between the decisions that tourists address. In order to structure the decision to repeat visiting Spain more than once a year, it is assumed that each tourist when choosing his/her destination must take a first decision consisting of repeating a visit to a destination that has previously visited, or choosing to travel to an unknown place.

Once the first decision has been taken, the tourist should decide if revisit Spain within in the same year (second-main decision). The main choice will be determined by a set of characteristics some of which may be observed and others not. In these cases, when the second-main decision can be considered not completely random or when the decision cannot be predicted perfectly, a probit model with sample selection can be presented in which the error terms are correlated. To the purpose of evaluating the behavior of tourists who repeat their visit to Spain frequently, that is, more than one visit per year, a heckprobit model (Van de Ven and Van Pragg, 1981) has been estimated.

The probit model with simple selection assumes that there are two related equations: the probit equation (the equation for the outcome or main decision) and the selection equation (first decision). The main equation is a probit equation that defines the decision of a frequently visit. On the other hand, the selection equation is also a probit model for a tourist who has already visited Spain. This equation explains the decision to repeat or not the visit and allows that the dependent variable in the main equation be observed. The probability of each decision is assumed to be a function of a set of determinants that includes variables related to tourists' characteristics and trip and destination attributes. For the model to be well identified, the selection equation should have at least one variable that is not in the main equation. Each probit model has an unobserved standard normal error and they are correlated. Then, a standard probit technique applied to the main equation would yield biased results while a probit model with sample selection provides consistent, asymptotically efficient estimates for all the parameters.

¹⁰ Used data only consider visitors that choose Spain as a leisure, recreation and holiday destination. The methodology for the Statistics on Tourist Movement on the Borders and Tourist Spending (INE, 2015), explains that “*this category includes journeys to visit places of tourist interest, either natural areas, cultural heritage, cities, etc.; attendance at sports or cultural events; journeys for non-professional practice of sports, going to the beach, swimming pools or any leisure and recreation facility; trips to casinos; going to summer camps; rest and relaxation; honeymoons; gastronomic trips, trips to spas or other establishments specialised in relaxation and beauty; stays in owned, borrowed or rented holiday dwellings.*”

We use data from the 2016 Egatur Survey, the Spanish Foreign Tourism Expenditure Survey (Encuesta de Gasto Turístico) carried out by INE. This survey has as main objectives to know the touristic expenditure of foreign visitors and type of expenditure (accommodation, transportation, restaurants, shops, etc.) when they leave Spain. It also measures the number of non-resident visitors arriving to Spain, distinguishing the different access routes (road, airport, port and railway), and the main characteristics of the trips by these visitors: their main destination, accommodation type, country of residence, purpose of travel, the organization of the trip (with or without a package tour), etc. Information is also recorded about the socio-demographic characteristics, activities carried out, frequency of travel, degree of satisfaction and use of Internet in relation to the visit, among others. The population scope in this survey refers to non-residents who enter or leave Spain, and the geographical scope is the entire national territory. The total sample size is approximately 127,000 travelers and provides a wide set of data to estimate the empirical model in order to find the probability of tourists visiting Spanish destinations frequently. For the analysis carried out, the most important feature of the sample is that Egatur Survey doesn't have problems of selection bias because data includes all tourists reaching the country, and not only those who revisit frequently Spain.

Data analysed includes socio-economic and demographic characteristics of tourists, as well as characteristics of the trip and the destination chosen in Spain. The set of variables included in the model have been constructed from this data as dummy variables. Not always the same categories are considered.

The informants are asked about their age measured in years by intervals. This study considers three categories: under 24 years old, between 25 and 64 and 65 or over. The income level is also evaluated but the question does not address monetary ranges. Respondents point a stretch for their level of income which are placed into the following categories: high income level, middle (medium) income level, and low income level. The high and the low income levels include medium-high and medium-low, respectively. The country of residence is also considered as a characteristic of tourists. The Balance of Payments and the System of National Accounts is used to classify the tourists' residence. The main emitting market are considered in the analysis: France, Portugal, Germany, United Kingdom and rest of the world. Sometimes tourists do not travel alone, the tourist group considers the people who travel with the informant. This variable informs about the size of travel group and also indicate his/her relationship between them. The categories considered are single, couple (travelers with partner), family and relatives and others (groups of more than two persons formed with friends, works or study colleagues).

The access mode refers to the way in which a person enters the country. The types of access considered are: road (road border crossings), airports (international flights) and other categories (ports and international railway lines). In order to identify frequency and periodicity, the length of stay, the number of nights that a person spends while travelling in Spain (overnight stays) is asked to tourist. The journey is classified in four categories depending on the length of the trip: under 3 overnight, between 3 and 7, between 8 and 15, and over 15. In addition, the tourist's fidelity is evaluated, the number of times that tourists visit Spain in one year is also analysed. This data informs if this is the first visit or not, and, the number of visits before the current one. For repeated visits, the questionnaire provides information about the frequency of the travel. The frequency categories considered are: at least once a year (i.e. once or more in a year) and less than once per year. The organization of the trip evaluates if the traveler has visited Spain with a package tour or

not. Moreover, the respondent is also asked about his/her use of the Internet to organize his/her holidays in Spain regarding transport mode, accommodation or activities carried out during the trip.

The main destination of a journey is the last stop of the trip and it corresponds to place where the tourist spent the greatest number of nights. The Autonomous Community in Spain are the destinations considered. Seven categories are included in the analysis: Andalusia, Canary Islands, Balearic Island, Catalonia, Community of Valencia, Madrid and other destinations. The accommodation where most nights were spent during the travel is considered the main accommodation. Three major groups of accommodation are distinguished: Hotels and similar establishments, rented dwelling and own house, and "other type of accommodation", that includes camp site, rural tourism accommodation, cruise ship, another market accommodation and non-market accommodation. Finally, a list of activities undertaken while travelling in Spain are included. The specific list is: enjoying and using the beach; visiting cities, visiting rural destinations or camping, using services such as spa, thalassotherapy and the like, gastronomic activities (haute cuisine, visiting wineries, vineyards, tasting), cultural visits (museums, churches, libraries...), attending cultural events (music festivals, opera, bullfighting, ...), other cultural activities, shopping (clothes, jewels, handicrafts, typical products...), etc. A special activity is the short/day trips that do not include overnight stays.

In order to identify the determining factors of this high frequency, the two above mentioned equations are used: the main equation related to the high frequency of visits to Spain, which is only observed if the tourist has decided to repeat his/her visit to Spain; and the selection equation that is related to the fact of revisiting the destination (by those who has visited it in the past). We observe whether tourist repeats the visit to Spain and whether the visitor comes frequently. The econometric results confirmed the correct use of the probit model with sample selection that provides consistent and asymptotically efficient estimates for all model parameters. Therefore, the estimation is appropriate for this type of analysis in which the main decision is conditioned by a previous decision.

The empirical findings highlighted several features of tourists' loyalty and fidelity measured through frequent visits that are now discussed.

Within the tourist characteristics, the different nationalities of the visitors are considered. From the group of main tourism emitting countries, residents in Portugal and France - mainly due to their closeness to Spain - and British tourists are the ones that are most likely to visit Spain with a frequency equal to or greater than once. This is not the case of German tourists whose frequency of visit is not different from that of a tourist from any other country. This result reflects a high loyalty to the tourist destination of both British tourists and our border neighbors. The geographical proximity, together with the expansion that the United Kingdom has experienced in favor of low-cost companies, favors a greater frequency of trips to Spain.

Regarding age categories and income level, it seems logical to affirm that the higher age and income, *ceteris paribus*, the greater the probability of having an annual or higher frequency of visits. By age, older tourists show a greater preference as frequent tourists. Recently, this special type of tourist, senior tourists, is gaining interest, whose differential characteristics with respect to other tourists favor a particularly traveler behavior. So, it should be paid attention to the tourism needs of this age group, as they make frequent trips and do not mind repeating destinations. As expected, maturity in the age favors the realization of more comfortable trips in the sense of known

destinations, predictable and with low level of uncertainty. On the contrary, young tourists prefer to make other types of trips that allow them to know other not visited destinations. Results regarding the income level allow to appreciate that those who declare themselves as not having medium rent, whether high or low, make this type of trips more frequently than those who declare to receive a medium rent. However, the differences in income, as they are self-perceived factors, are not completely representative nor comparable between them.

The effects of the length of the trip, the size of the group and the access mode are analysed within the trip characteristics category. With regard to the length of the stay, estimations show that long stays, those exceeding fifteen days, are those that favor an increase in the frequency of visiting Spain. This outcome seems to be in harmony to results by age that identify retired people, with greater availability of time and who, therefore, can often repeat long leisure stays. Regarding the size of the group in which the trip is made, tourists traveling alone or with family are more likely to be considered frequent tourists, while traveling as a couple, with friends or colleagues are less likely to perform frequent trips. An essential feature of the trip is the transport access mode. As was predictable, the road access mode to our country increases the likelihood of frequent trips. This also explains that French and Portuguese tourists make frequent leisure stays in Spain. This result would help to understand why, as noted below, Balears is not an attractive destination when travel frequency is high.

Another fundamental category to explain the phenomenon of loyalty and frequency in travelling is destination attributes. The specific geographic area, the type of accommodation and the activities undertaking while travelling determine the decision to repeat a trip. As it is well known, leisure tourism in Spain is highly associated with the phenomenon of sun and beach, so tourist destinations are strongly linked to regions with these characteristics. In addition, these regions are the best valued by foreign tourists to repeat their visit. Thus, it is observed that, from the main destination touristic Autonomous Communities, Balearic Islands is the only one that does not favor the attraction of frequent tourists. Valencian Community, followed by Andalusia, are the ones that register the greatest attraction for frequent tourists. At a greater distance, Madrid and Barcelona, as the two larger cities, show more likelihood of being frequent destinations. Autonomous Community of Madrid, Canary Islands and Catalonia also receive tourists who visit Spain at least once a year. These are unique destinations. Madrid is singular because its geographical location and its transport infrastructures. In the case of the Canary Islands, their attractiveness of leisure and sun and beach tourism for British tourists. Finally, for Catalonia, the geographical proximity to France, the easy access by road and the success of this region in attracting European tourists from low cost companies.

Accommodation also reveals to be a fundamental factor. The probability of frequent visits increases when the chosen destination is not a hotel establishment. The likelihood of the tourist making frequent visits increases with home accommodations (rented dwelling and own house). There are not evidences of the influence of activities carried out while travelling on the probability of frequent trips. Results do highlight that tourists who visit cities are more likely to make frequent visits than those who do other types of activities, such as cultural activities (visiting museums, churches, libraries, etc.) or, mostly, sun and beach tourism. With regard to the organization of the trip, foreign tourists who visit Spain continue to opt mainly for a self-organization without resorting on tourist packages. Results show that to buy a tourist package lowers the probability of repeating the visit. However, this characteristic is not relevant in the frequent visit decision.

Other factors considered in the analysis to affect a high frequency of visits have not been relevant. For example, visits to spas, gastronomy or use of the internet to organize some aspects of the trip are relevant as factors that increase the likelihood of visiting Spain again on a tourism trip but do not seem to be factors that favor greater frequency of visit.

These results allow us to draw a frequent tourist profile: over 65 years old people, who live in the United Kingdom or border countries travelling by road, choosing as a tourist destination the Spanish Levante or Andalusia, and staying in homes, whether rented or owned.

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MODELLING THE CHOICE OF TOURISM ACCOMMODATION IN SPAIN

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Abstract

Tourist supply is crucial in the management of tourism. Different products categories are combined in tourism consumption. Accommodation seems to be one of the most important ones. Together with hotel accommodations, other types are becoming more important. Tourists, trips and destinations characteristics might be involved in the choice of a specific type of tourism accommodation. This paper analysis the factors determining the accommodation choice by foreign tourists who prefer Spain as a holiday destination by estimating a multinomial decision model to identify and characterize factors determining the accommodation choice. The study is carried out by analyzing the Tourist Expenditure Survey.

Keywords: Tourism accommodation, Multinomial choice, Tourist Expenditure Survey

Extended Abstract

A variety of services and products conforms the tourist sector. Tourist accommodation seems to be a crucial one, accounting for an important share of total tourist expenditure (Capó et al., 2007; Masiero et al., 2015; Wang and Ritchie, 2012). Eurostat data for 2016 reveals that tourism supply in the EU-28 reached 31 million places, with more than 608,000 (tourist accommodation establishments). Spain registered 3.5 million tourist places, what represents more than 11.3% of the total EU supply, being the third country in terms of tourism accommodation places after France and Italy that both concentrate almost one third (32.1%) of the total supply.

The characteristics of these establishments will affect both the development of tourist destinations and, then the success of the sector as a whole. There are not, however, too many studies analysing the accommodation and its characteristics in Spain. According to EGATUR, the Spanish Foreign Tourism Expenditure Survey (Encuesta de Gasto Turístico) carried out by INE, hotel accommodation in Spain for foreign tourist represented almost 56% of the total accommodations places in 2016. This percentage increases to 63.47% when leisure tourists are considered. Other type of market and non-market accommodations are also chosen by an important part of foreign tourists: almost 8% of total tourist stayed at their own house and a 7.17% at rented dwelling. For leisure tourists, these percentages increase to 8.48% and 7.94% respectively. The accommodation at houses of friends and relatives represents 22.52% of the total tourist and 12.75% for leisure tourists.

The increase in the number of tourists is not accompanied by a proportional increase in the revenues. This fact is mainly associated with the reduction in the length of the stay and the decrease in accommodation expenditure (European Commission, 2010; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2014). In general, foreign tourists from anywhere spend between 4 and 7 days in Spain whatever the type of accommodation chosen. Both factors have had a significant impact in the hotel sector (Losada, N. et al., 2017) and, as a consequence, in the touristic sector. Recently, a change of paradigm is being observed where other types of non-market accommodation are emerging: house exchange and share-use dwelling (timeshare). These new accommodation types show a change in the touristic consumer profile (Ert et al., 2016; Fang et al., 2016; Tussyadiah y Pesonen, 2015). This tendency has a significant impact on the sector's income since it reduces notably tourist expenditure.

All factors pointed out reveal the need for an in-depth analysis of the tourist accommodation sector. The preferences of the diverse population groups on the different types of accommodation should be identified in order to design marketing strategies and economic policies aiming at the development of the sector and, consequently, an income increase.

This paper wants to contribute to the required in-deep analyses by studying accommodation choice of foreign tourist visiting Spain and, so, determining variables that influence that decision. The supply of a variety of accommodation places gives rise to a decision problem in which, together with the budget constraint, other determinants guide the election of one or other type of accommodation.

The analysis before the estimation of the model studies a set of hypothesis regarding the way in which some trip aspects, as well as destination attributes and tourist' characteristics affect the accommodation choice. These factors are: the length of the trip, the way the trip is organised, the repetition of the tourist destination, the age of the tourist, the income level, the level of education, the tourist group, the country of residence, the access mode, the length of stay, the number of times that the tourists visit Spain in one year, the purchase of tourist package or not, the use of Internet to organize holidays in Spain, the main destination of a journey and the list of activities undertaken while travelling in Spain. The model confirms the hypothesis.

Used data to verify the hypothesis comes from EGATUR (2016). This survey has as main objectives to know the touristic expenditure of foreign visitors and type of expenditure (accommodation, transportation, restaurants, shops, etc.) when they leave Spain. It also measures the number of non-resident visitors arriving to Spain, distinguishing the different access routes (road, airport, port and railway), and the main characteristics of the trips by these visitors: their main destination, accommodation type, country of residence, purpose of travel, the organization of the trip (with or without a package tour), etc. Information is also recorded about the socio-demographic characteristics, activities carried out, frequency of travel, degree of satisfaction and use of Internet in relation to the visit, among others. The population scope in this survey refers to non-residents who enter or leave Spain, and the geographical scope is the entire national territory. The total sample size is approximately 127,000 travelers and provides a wide set of data to estimate the empirical model in order to find the probability of tourists visiting Spanish destinations frequently. For the analysis carried out, the most important feature of the sample is that EGATUR Survey doesn't have problems of selection bias because data includes all tourists reaching the country, and not only those who revisit frequently Spain.

Although the available sample includes a representative set of tourists who declare visiting Spain for different reasons, the used data only consider visitors whose main reason for the trip is rest and leisure since they represent a large part of the tourism of greater attractiveness for Spain. This category includes types of activities related to leisure, recreation, holidays and so on. Examples of

them are: journeys to visit places of tourist interest, attendance at sports or cultural events, going to the beach, swimming pools, trips to casinos, going to summer camps; rest and relaxation, honeymoons, gastronomic trips, trips to spas, etc. Data analysed includes socio-economic and demographic characteristics of tourists, as well as characteristics of the trip and the destination chosen in Spain. The set of variables included in the model have been constructed from this data as dummy variables.

Informants are asked about their socio-economic characteristics. The age is measured in years by intervals. This study considers four categories: under 24 years old, between 25 and 44, between 45 and 64, and 65 or over. The income level is also evaluated but the question does not address monetary ranges. Respondents point a stretch for their level of income which are placed into the following categories: high income level, middle (medium) income level, and low income level. The high and the low income levels include medium-high and medium-low, respectively. The country of residence is also considered as a characteristic of tourists. The Balance of Payments and the System of National Accounts is used to classify the tourists' residence. The main emitting market are considered in the analysis: France, Portugal, Germany, United Kingdom, Italy, USA and Canada, and the rest of the world. Sometimes tourists do not travel alone, the tourist group considers the people who travel with the informant. This variable informs about the size of travel group and also indicate his/her relationship between them. The categories considered are single, couple (travellers with partner) and others (groups of more than two persons). Regarding the education level, respondents have been asked for the highest level of completed studies. The International Standard Classification of Education is used to establish three different categories: Basic, Secondary and University Education. The equation of the model only includes the University Education category in order to identify if they are significant differences in choosing accommodation between people with high education level and other levels. In addition, the situation in relation to activity at the time of the interview is asked. The main situations identified are in occupation (working), unemployed (looking for work) and other (retired, pensioners, student, homemakers, and persons not included in any of the above categories).

In relation to the characteristics of the trip, the access mode refers to the way in which a person enters the country. The types of access considered are: road (road border crossings), airports (international flights) and other categories (ports and international railway lines). For the road access, the number of occupants are also required to the informants. In order to identify frequency and periodicity, the length of stay, the number of nights that a person spends while travelling in Spain (overnight stays) is asked to tourist. The journey is classified into four categories depending on the length of the trip: under 3 overnight, between 3 and 7, between 8 and 15, and over 15. Additionally, the tourist's fidelity is evaluated by the number of times that tourists visit Spain in one year. This data informs if this is the first visit or not, and, the number of visits before the current one. The number of visits is represented by four categories: under 3 repeated visits, between 3 and 4, between 5 and 9, and tourists who had visited Spain 10 or more times. For repeated visits, the questionnaire provides information about the frequency of the travel. The frequency categories consider frequent tourists, those who visit Spain at least once a year (i.e. once or more in a year) and non-frequent tourist who visit Spain less than once per year. The organization of the trip evaluates if the traveller has visited Spain with a package tour or not. Moreover, the respondent is also asked about his/her use of the Internet to organize his/her holidays in Spain regarding transport mode, accommodation or activities carried out during the trip.

The main destination of a journey is the last stop of the trip and it corresponds to place where the tourist spent the greatest number of nights. The Autonomous Community in Spain are the destinations considered. Seven categories are included in the analysis: Andalusia, Canary Islands, Balearic Island, Catalonia, Community of Valencia, Madrid and other destinations. Finally, some

activities undertaken while travelling in Spain are included. The specific list is: enjoying and using the beach, cultural visits (museums, churches, libraries...), and short/day trips that do not include overnight stays.

Finally, information about accommodation is as follows: the accommodation where most nights were spent during the travel is considered the main accommodation. Four major groups of accommodation are distinguished: Hotels and similar establishments, Rented dwelling and own house, Dwelling of family or friends, and “Other type of accommodation”. The hotels and similar category includes establishments giving group accommodation services for a price, with or without other supplementary services. The sub-categories include are: establishments as aparthotel, holiday apartments, lodge, hostel, motel, inn and guest house. The group title “Rented dwelling and own house” refer rented dwelling (apartment, villa, etc.) and owner-occupied dwelling. This second sub-category includes second dwellings owned by the respondent. It also covers caravans permanently parked in a camp site. For its part, the full dwelling rental may or may not include the provision of hotel-type services, such as cleaning, meals, etc. The types of accommodation included in this category must be rented entire, or by rooms in private homes. Dwelling of family or friends refers a type of unpaid accommodation (non-market). This category includes dwellings loaned by relatives or friends; and also those freely loaned by the company. Finally, a group for the categories not included in any of above categories, those includes camp site, rural tourism accommodation, cruise ship, another market accommodation and non-market accommodation.

In order to know the way in which the previous characteristics affect accommodation choice, a conditional logit model (often labeled the multinomial logit model) has been estimated. This type of model is frequently used for the analysis of categorical dependent variables with more than two response categories (Greene, 2012).

This model can be motivated by a random utility model. When the consumer i makes choice j in particular, we assume that the utility of choice j , U_{ij} , is the maximum among the J utilities. This statistical model was developed in the context of a model of binary choice by McFadden (1974) and consider the probability that choice j is made as $\text{Prob}(U_{ij} > U_{ik})$. The utility of choice j , U_{ij} , depends on a group of variables, which includes aspects specific to the individual as well as to the choices, and a random term independent and identically distributed with Gumbel-type 1 extreme value distributions. Then, the probability that individual i choice j is made,

$$\text{Prob}(U_{ij} > U_{ik}) = \text{Prob}(y_i = j) = \text{Prob}(Y_i = j) = P_{ij} = \frac{e^{X_i' \beta_j}}{\sum_j e^{X_i' \beta_j}}$$

where X_i' is the row vector of observed values of the independent variables for the i th observation and β_j is the coefficient vector for outcome j .

As noted above, the alternatives considered distinguish four types of different accommodations based on INE classification. Therefore, tourist choices among four accommodation modes¹¹: 1) Hotels and the like; 2) Rented accommodation and own house, 3) Dwelling of relatives or friends; 4) Others types of accommodation.

With the data described above, the logit multinomial model has been estimated by maximum likelihood. Results show how some variables are significant in all their modalities for all alternatives, while others are partially significant. Furthermore, variables impact unequally on the probability of choosing one or the other alternative accommodation.

¹¹ The first one be considered as the base outcome in the estimation.

Thus, the analysis of the tourists' socio-economic and demographic characteristics shows that, if possible, the accommodation in families is the preferred one for any stretch of age and with respect to any other alternative. However, when this option is not possible, because it is not always shown as a real alternative for all individuals, tourists prefer to stay in hotels compared to other options. Nevertheless, as age increases, tourists prefer accommodation at houses. By age sections, results show that young tourists are less likely to choose houses to stay during their holidays, preferring other types of non-conventional accommodations.

In relation to the economic situation of the traveller, the level of studies and the current work situation are both considered together with the income. Having studies is usually related to a better working and economic situation and, therefore, higher income. Results show that tourists with better training show preference for accommodation at houses compared to hotel establishments. Non-conventional accommodations are the last choice of preference compared to any other alternative for higher-education tourists. The labour situation, described as occupied, unemployed or other labour situation, does not seem excessively determinant to reveal preferences for one and another type of accommodation. Thus, tourists who are active are more likely to choose hotels compared to any other category, although tourists in a situation of unemployment do not seem to show clear preferences. On the other hand, income does not seem to be a determining factor in choosing another type of accommodation in relation to hotels. Middle and low income tourists do not show preferences for housing accommodation, although this is less preferred if there is the possibility of accommodation in homes of family and friends. This surprising result should be qualified since the income is a declared income and there is very high concentration for average rents.

The people you travel with (group size) can also determine the probability of choosing one type or another of accommodation. Thus, it is noted that if tourists travel alone they are more likely to stay with family and friends, while those who travel as a couple prefer hotels or other accommodations different from homes. The hotels would be as preferable option for those who travel as a couple. In relation to the origin of tourists, results show that other reasons should be given beyond the country of residence to explain the behaviour observed regarding accommodation choice. However, some features can be noted. The Portuguese, Italian and American, as well as the other unspecified categories (tourists from countries that are not clearly demanders of Spanish tourism) show clear preferences for the option of hotel accommodation in front of any other alternative. The probability of accommodation in housing, compared to the hotel option, is increased for English, French and German tourists, although the French ones show preference for accommodation in the home of family and friends and Germans for other types of accommodation. Tourists who use the Internet in some aspect related to their trip are more likely to stay in hotels than in other types of establishments. The second option preferred by tourists who make use of internet for tourist purposes are (rented, dwelling) houses. The access mode variable is significant in the model for all the alternatives and for the two modalities presented. Results show that travelling by plane implies some kind of clearly traditional accommodation, either hotel or residential. On the other hand, for individuals who access by road, it is observed how, as the number of occupants of the vehicle increases, the probability of dwelling accommodation increases.

Whatever the length of the stay, hotel establishments are preferred to any other type of accommodation, as the coefficients for all categories and alternatives are negative and significant. Whatever the length, it is always more likely a hotel accommodation than another type of establishment. The probability of choosing a hotel as accommodation is higher in the stays less than one week than in other types of stays. In particular, it is appreciated that the stays above fifteen days, which in the model corresponds to the omitted category, show other preferences. As the

length of the stay increases, there is a greater probability of choosing homes and accommodation in family and friends, and a lower probability of lodging in hotels. Traveling with a tourist package represents a decrease in the probability of staying in any type of accommodation other than the hotel. Tourists who buy a tourist package, since it usually includes as a combined product transportation and accommodation, are mostly housed in hotels. Obviously, and as one would expect, you do not purchase a tourist package to stay in homes of family and friends. Tourists visiting Spain for the first time choose mostly hotels or other non-conventional accommodations. Visitors who have already been in Spain and, then, have better knowledge of the destination, do not show preferences for other types of accommodations. However, being a frequent tourist – repeated visits at least once a year – is revealed as a differential factor, in the sense that frequent tourists show preferences for accommodation in housing respect to hotels.

Most frequent destinations are those that are mostly linked to hotel accommodations, although there are some differential behaviours in regions. In the Canary Islands, the probability of staying in hotels is greater compared to any other accommodation option, while the Community of Valencia, and to a lower extent Andalusia, are shown as destinations with high probability in the choice of accommodation in housing respect to hotels. Madrid is positioned as one of the main destinations whose accommodation is hotel. However, it is not the case of Catalonia where there are no significant differences between the probability of choosing a residential and hotel accommodation. Finally, regarding the type of activities carried out, we can point out that leisure tourism is strongly linked to sun and beach tourism, so this holiday topic increases the probability of choice of accommodation in hotels. The same happens with tourists who during their stay point out that they have done activities related to culture or have made short trips. These tourists are more likely to choose hotels as a lodging option.

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ASSESSING THE INFLUENCE OF MEDIATING ROLE OF MOTIVATION TO LEARN TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS IN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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Introduction

Human resources are the most important assets of any tourism and hospitality organizations (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010). Various studies have been undertaken to understand how employee performance can be managed to contribute to the organizational success in the tourism and hospitality industry. This study focuses on the role of training in tourism and hospitality industry and the factors contributing to training effectiveness. Cut-throat competition, higher expectations, increased customer relationship and customer retention have contributed to the increase in human resource training in tourism and hospitality industry. Becton and Graetz (2001) also pointed out that the disparate nature of this industry provides unusual challenges to training and education providers. The research in this area is very limited (Becton and Graetz, 2001) and thus there is need to explore the role of training and the factors influencing training effectiveness.

Katzel & Guzzo (1983) have cited training as the most often used intervention to improve employee productivity. Organizations capitalize in training their sales staff with the expectations that this expenditure shall contribute to the bottom line (Liu, 1996),

Considering the benefits of training, every organization invest heavily in terms of their time, resources and efforts on training their employees (Wilson et al., 2002). Tan and Newman (2013) observed that corporations allocate millions of dollars for training their employees. This huge investment reflects management commitment towards employees and ultimately the organizational performance. The training becomes only effective when the employees undergoing training are motivated to transfer their learning post training (Goldstein and Ford, 2002; Ployhart Hale, 2014). If the employees undergo training but are not transferring the learning, it becomes sheer waste of time and money spent on the training.

Despite transfer of training being the only key indicator to decipher training effectiveness (Leach 5. Liu (2003), the extant literature on training indicates that it continues to be a major concern for organizations (Burke, 2001; Friedman & Ronen, 2015; Machin & Fogarty, 2003; Massenberg, Schulte, and Kauffeld, 2017). This further encourages researchers to explore various factors that can directly or indirectly affect the transfer positively (Baldwin, Ford, & Blume, 2017), so that the competencies, acquired through training, can be applied to varied tasks and settings (Beer, Finnstrom, and Schrader, 2016; Yelon, Ford, and Anderson, 2014). As per studies like May and Kahnweiler (2000) and Wilson et al. (2002), most of the training efforts are usually wasted owing of inadequate transfer, causing training to be ineffective. Highlighting a survey conducted by the Corporate Leadership Council, Beer, Finnstrom, & Schrader (2016) observed that mostly the leaders are dissatisfied with their organizations' training outcomes.

Thus, this study is an attempt to understand the role of various factors influencing the trainee's motivation and training transfer in context of the tourism and hospitality industry. The study has also explored the cumulative effect of various variables on motivation to learn as well as training effectiveness. Owing to the longitudinal design of the survey, the researchers were able decipher

the influence of these variables on motivation to learn (before the training) and on training effectiveness (after the training).

Theoretical Framework

In line with expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), many researchers have recommended that trainees' beliefs (valence) concerning the attractiveness of training outcomes, affects training success (Colquitt et al., 2000). Motivation, being the function of perception, increases job performance, aided by training. This further leads to the feeling of accomplishment and potential for career growth (Mathieu et al., 1992). Trainees can have different preferences of outcomes resulting from training participation. When participants value any outcome related with training, it results into higher motivation levels (Colquitt and Simmering, 1998). They expect that efforts invested in training will lead to mastery of training content (expectancy).

Extant literature reveals that this theory is very useful in predicting trainees' behavior when the work environment is supportive (Mitchell, 1982; Stanley, Gary and Phillip, 2004). However, this is possible only when such behavior is under the control of trainees (voluntary participation). The core theme of this theory is that an individual's tendency to show a specific behavior is a function of expectations that the said behavior will result in a specific outcome, and the value that can be gained from such outcome. Thus, the trainees' motivation is largely based on two beliefs - putting effort during training will result in learning from training; and the content they learn from training will be useful for achieving valued outcomes at the workplace (Brown and Ford, 2002). This theory has been frequently used to understand training motivation (e.g., Mathieu & Martineau, 1997; Colquitt et al., 2000).

Other theories which might be very useful in understanding trainees' motivation include theory of reasoned action (TRA) developed by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), and theory of planned behavior (TPB) by Ajzen (1985, 1991), which is expansion of TRA. These two theories provide very useful framework for understanding motivational and contextual factors influencing participation in various developmental activities. TRA explains the relationship between attitudes and behaviors within human action and helps in predicting how individuals would behave based on their pre-existing attitudes and behavioral intentions. Accordingly, individual's decision to engage in a specific behavior is primarily based on the outcomes he/she expects. Intention to act is influenced by individual's attitude toward that act and the subjective norms. These attitudes are affective and instrumental evaluations of that activity and represent the valence of perceived outcomes of that activity. Thus, it includes expectancy–valence components of motivation. TRA connects expectancy–value perceptions to behavior through intentions especially when the behavior is under high volitional control of an individual. On the other hand, subjective norms reflect social pressures on an individual to perform. Presence of proper training assessment mechanism to evaluate training (training evaluation) may act as social pressure.

TPB helps in predicting behaviors that are not under the complete volitional control of an individual. Policy of mandatory training or creating training transfer climate are such stances.

Though developmental activities are mostly considered as voluntary, but this may not always be true. Sometimes, individuals are nominated for training program by their seniors or departmental heads, making it mandatory to attend.

Thus, extending TRA and TPB to our study, we argue that if training awareness positively influences the trainees' attitude, and if they think their significant others (which comes from positive transfer climate and training evaluation) want them to perform a specific behavior (subjective norm), it will result in a higher intention (motivation to learn) and trainees are more likely to transfer their learning. This will contribute to training effectiveness. Trainees' intentions

are influenced by the support they receive from a positive transfer climate and accountability from training evaluation. Degree of choice further influences trainees' intention to transfer.

Further, there is a counter-argument against the relationship between behavioral intention and actual behavior, which signifies the role of circumstantial limitations between behavioral intention and actual behavior. Thus, we also looked at TPB, which included "perceived behavioral control" to cover non-volitional behaviors for predicting behavioral intention and actual behavior. Transfer climate, degree of choice and training evaluation can act as controllability factors, as suggested in TPB.

The more favorable the perceived transfer climate, the more positive trainee's intention will be towards learning and transfer of learning at the workplace and hence, there is a greater chance of improved training effectiveness. These learning and transfer intentions will lead to learning initiation as well as transfer initiation. In this regard, Wiethoff (2004) also highlighted that in light of TPB, motivation to learn can be viewed as a behavioral intention that predicts trainees' positive behavior, engaging them in transfer activities.

Based on these theoretical frameworks, we argued that trainees' motivation to learn and transfer of training will largely be influenced by situational factors such as transfer climate, training evaluation, involvement in training through training awareness and freedom to choose the training programs.

Following are the hypotheses formulated for this study:

H1: Training awareness will have a significant relationship with sales trainees' motivation to learn;

H2: Training awareness will have a significant relationship with sales training effectiveness

H3: Perceived training transfer climate will have a significant relationship with motivation to learn

H4: Presence of an appropriate sales training evaluation mechanism will have a significant relationship with trainees' motivation to learn;

H5: Presence of an appropriate sales training evaluation mechanism will have a significant relationship with sales training effectiveness.

H6: Motivation to learn will have a significant relationship with sales training effectiveness.

H7: Motivation to learn will mediate the relationship between sales training awareness and sales training effectiveness.

H8: Motivation to learn will mediate the relationship between perceived transfer climate and sales training effectiveness.

H9: Motivation to learn will mediate the relationship between training evaluation/assessment and sales training effectiveness.

Methodology

To test the postulated hypotheses, a longitudinal study was undertaken, and data was collected in two phases from the employees of three tourism/hospitality organizations. A total of 300 employees, who were the part of a training program, were approached. The same program with same instructors and pedagogy was offered to these respondents in different batches

The participating trainees were contacted for the research study before the commencement of the training program. They were informed about the purpose of the study and were assured that their responses would be anonymous and will be kept confidential, and their decision to participate in the study would not impact their training experience. After getting their consent, the participants were requested to fill the first part of the questionnaire that was related to the constructs - training awareness, transfer climate, training evaluation, and motivation to learn. After a gap of eight weeks, the participating trainees were again approached to solicit responses related to training effectiveness. The study authors were not the part of training delivery.

Data from the respondents who completed both pre- and post-training survey were used for analyses. The average age 31.5 years with 3.5 years of experience in the same organization. Nearly 80% of the respondents were males and three-fourth of the sample had completed their graduation. Analysis was done using AMOS 21 and interaction method was used for analyzing the moderating effect.

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THE EXCHANGES OF TOURISM CAN PROVIDE SOLIDARITY TOO IN ADDITION TO
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Extended Abstract

The exchanges of tourism can provide solidarity too in addition to support!

Residents' support for tourism plays a crucial role for successful sustainable tourism development (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011; 2012). As such, the social exchange theory has been used for several years to explain and examine the relationship between the predictors of residents' support (e.g., impacts of tourism) and their support for tourism development (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Nunkoo, Smith, Ramkissoon, 2013). Overall, scholars who have used the social exchange theory found that residents' perceived positive impacts of tourism can positively influence their attitudes toward tourism and contribute to attitudinal support for further tourism development (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Sharpley, 2014). Although social exchange theory has been extensively applied to explain why and under what situations residents would support for additional tourism development, the theory is not without criticisms (Ward & Berno, 2011). The main criticisms of the theory are: inconsistent (mixed) findings (Chen & Raab, 2012), lack of empirical

testing (Woosnam, 2011), and large focus on financial transactions between residents and tourists (Ward & Berno, 2011). As a result, some researchers have suggested that additional theories should be used in tandem with the social exchange theory (Woosnam, 2012).

The purpose of this paper is to examine whether residents' perceptions of existing tourism in Antalya (Turkey) can explain their support for future tourism development (considering social exchange theory) and ultimately whether their future support for tourism development can explain solidarity with visitors to the area. Such theoretical relationships are considered through the application of the affect theory of social exchange. To date no study has considered the social exchange theory in tandem with the affect theory within the tourism field to explain relationships (monetary and interpersonal) between residents and tourists. The proposed study intends to close this literature gap and draw the attention of tourism scholars.

An on-site, self-administered survey instrument was disseminated in four key districts within Antalya, Turkey: Antalya city center, Serik, Manavgat, and Kemer (n=660). CFA of the *Tourism Impact Attitude Scale* (Woosnam, 2012) revealed two factors (i.e., *support for tourism development* (STD) and *contributions to community* (CTC)). The *Emotional Solidarity Scale* (Woosnam & Norman, 2010) revealed three unique factors: *welcoming nature* (WN); *emotional closeness* (EC); and *sympathetic understanding* (SU). The future tourism development scale was unidimensional. Reliabilities for the seven factors were high, ranging from 0.70 to 0.91. In addition to this, all factors were highly valid (i.e., the average variance extracted was greater than 0.5) (see Table 1). Both the measurement model and structural model demonstrated acceptable and adequate fit with incremental model fit indices (i.e., IFI, TLI and CFI) values greater than 0.97, and the absolute model fit indices (e.g., RMSEA) values less than 0.05 (see Table 2). SEM revealed that residents' attitudes uniquely explained 69% of the variance in FTD and that support explained 80% their welcoming nature of the variance in the outcome variable. Findings provide support for the complementary use of social exchange theory and affect theory. Implications are described and directions for future research are discussed.

Table 1

Measurement model results

Constructs and Indicators	Factor Loadings	t-statistics	Composite Reliability	AVE
<i>Sympathetic Understanding (SU)</i>			0.80	0.57
I identify with Antalya visitors.	0.82	N/A ^a		
I have a lot in common with Antalya visitors.	0.68	16.86***		
I feel affection toward Antalya visitors	0.76	18.94***		
<i>Welcoming Nature (WN)</i>			0.70	0.53
I feel the community benefits from having visitors in Antalya.	0.71	N/A ^a		
I am proud to have visitors come to Antalya.	0.75	17.29***		
<i>Emotional Closeness (EC)</i>			0.84	0.73
I have made friends with some Antalya visitors.	0.82	N/A ^a		
I feel close to some visitors I have met in Antalya.	0.88	20.62***		
<i>Support for Tourism Development (STD)</i>			0.91	0.71
I believe that tourism should be actively encouraged in Antalya. I support tourism and want to see it remain important in Antalya.	0.82	N/A ^a		
I support new tourism facilities that will attract new visitors to Antalya.	0.90	29.41***		
Antalya should support the promotion of tourism.	0.86	21.92***		
	0.81	20.44***		
<i>Contributions to Community (CTC)</i>			0.76	0.51
The tourism sector provides many desirable employment opportunities for Antalya residents.	0.73	N/A ^a		
The quality of life in Antalya has improved because of tourism development in the area.	0.78	16.32***		
I have more recreational opportunities (place to go and things to do) because of tourism in Antalya.	0.63	14.08***		
<i>Future Tourism Development (FTD)</i>			0.86	0.51
Overall, the benefits of tourism development in Antalya will outweigh its costs.	0.64	N/A ^a		
In general, new tourism development should be actively encouraged in Antalya.	0.78	16.49***		
Tourism looks like the best way to help my community's economy in the future.	0.63	13.82***		
Tourism should play a vital role in the future of Antalya	0.73	15.63		
I support new tourism development in Antalya.	0.79	16.67***		
Tourism development in my community will benefit me or some member of my family.	0.72	15.48***		

g has to be fixed to 1; hence, t-value cannot be calculated for this item.
asked on a 7-pt scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Note. ***p < 0.001 level (one-
e reliability; AVE= average variance extracted

ement and structural model

	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
	345.969	152	0.000	2.276	0.973	0.966	0.973	0.04
	369.709	158	0.000	2.340	0.971	0.965	0.971	0.04

DF: Degrees of freedom; P: Probability level; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; TLI: Tucker-Lewis index; CFI: Comparative fit index; RMSEA: Root
nation.

y Analysis

	Mean	SD	EC	STD	CTC	WN	SU	FTD
(EC)	3.43	1.12	0.85					
Development (STD)	4.47	0.77	0.42	0.84				
munity (CTC)	3.88	0.87	0.44	0.56	0.71			
WN)	4.01	0.92	0.63	0.69	0.74	0.73		
anding (SU)	3.02	0.99	0.71	0.32	0.41	0.66	0.75	
velopment (FTD)	3.97	0.77	0.54	0.74	0.69	0.88	0.50	0.72

ents are the square root of the variance shared between the factors and their measures (average variance extracted).

correlations between factors. For discriminant validity, the diagonal elements should be larger than any other corresponding row or column entry.

t scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Table 4

Hypothesized relationship between constructs and observed relationship from the structural model

Hypothesized relationship	Beta			Supported ?
	B	(β)	t-statistic	
H1: Support for Tourism Development & Future Tourism Development (STD & FTD)	0.45	0.50	10.24***	Yes
H2: Contributions to Community & Future Tourism Development (CTC & FTD)	0.41	0.44	8.75 ***	Yes
H3: Future Tourism Development & Welcoming Nature (FTD & WN)	1.00	0.90	14.07***	Yes
H1: Future Tourism Development & Sympathetic Understanding (FTD & SU)	0.74	0.50	10.11***	Yes
H2: Future Tourism Development Emotional Closeness (FTD & EC)	0.83	0.55	10.84***	Yes

Note: ***p < 0.001; ns means not significant.

R^2_{SMC} : WN=.80; EC=.30; SU=.25; FTD= 0.69

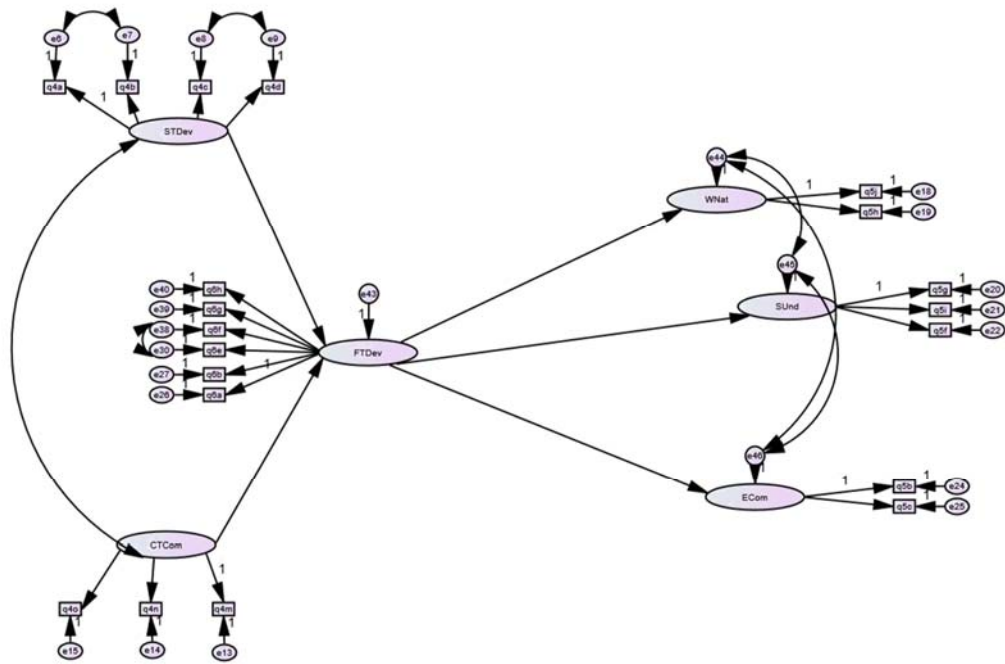


Figure 2. The Structural Model

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Abstracts

EXPLOITING BIG DATA TO UNCOVER GUESTS' EXPERIENCES IN THE UK HOTEL
INDUSTRY: A TRIPADVISOR-BASED STUDY

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Abstract

This study exploits big data to uncover hotels guests' experiences in the UK with considering their gender as a catalyst. Via applying sentimental analysis to 3,067,237 hotel reviews from Trip Advisor different factor influence on hotel guest experience and the type of attributives attract positive/negative comments among male and females travellers across the UK is investigated. The findings reveal several dimensions of guest experience that carried varying weights and, more importantly, have novel, meaningful semantic compositions. Findings not only help the managers to co-create their services but also give new insights into variables that have been extensively studied in existing hospitality related literature. Both theoretical and practical implications as well as directions for future research are discussed.

TRENDS AND CHALLENGES IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE SENIOR TRAVELERS

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Abstract

Population ageing—the increasing share of older persons in the population—is poised to become one of the most significant social transformations of the twenty-first century, with implications for nearly all sectors of society (UN, 2015). Predictions from the United Nations indicate that by 2050, every fifth person on Earth (about two billion people) will be older than 60 years, a doubling of the 2013 figure (United Nations, 2013). The number of over 60s has risen by a third over the last decade, making this the fastest growing consumer segment (Euromonitor, 2017).

Following conclusions on the European Summit on Innovation for Active and Healthy Ageing Final Report (2015), demographic change drives the emergence of a large and growing segment of the population / consumer market (the so-called “overlooked demographic”) whose needs remain largely un-met. However, this market segment has been perceived in the tourism industry as relatively unattractive (Alen et al., 2017; González et al. 2009).

Nevertheless, in recent years, both practitioners and researchers have acknowledged the importance of seniors as a significant market segment of the tourism industry. It interests the tourism industry because of its growing size and increasing participation in travel activities (Huber et al., 2018).

In an era of fast-changing consumer profiles and behaviors, companies must strive for a thorough understanding of what consumers want, need and expect. It is of great relevance to understand new patterns of consumption as well as matching shifting needs of seniors and accounting for these changes and challenges in a proactive way. This will not only provide exciting opportunities for further research with older populations but will also specify practical implications for public policy makers, industry practitioners and travel marketers as a whole (Patterson and Balderas, 2018).

This presentation aims to (1) contribute to deepen into the strategic implications that tourism may have in the configuration of a tourist offer catered for senior travelers, (2) to ascertain shifting trends in senior tourism and to provide marketers and the hospitality industry considerations to respond to seniors changing needs and wants.

Keywords: Ageing, seniors, hospitality, trends, tourism

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LONG-STAY TOURISTS AND THE WORLD OF INTERNATIONAL RETIREMENT MIGRATION

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Abstract

With 10,000 people retiring every day in the US, the retiree population is projected to reach 72 million nationwide by 2030. The pattern is similar in Europe and other parts of the world. In the UK, for example, over 600,000 people turn 65 every year, with over three million people poised to reach state pension age in the next five years. An increasing number of these new-age retirees are looking to retire outside of their country of residence. In 2009, the paid subscription base of *International Living*, a magazine for retirees who live overseas or plan to, was 39,000; today, the magazine has 100,000 print subscribers, 500,000 e-letter readers and over 400,000 visitors to the website every month. The rapid growth of retirement migration has been caused not just by an ageing population, but by an extension of active old age, increased but polarized disposable incomes, changing working and retirement patterns, and increased familiarity with the 'global' through work and leisure (Williams & Hall, 2000).

In response, destinations are proactively reaching out to potential retirees, recognizing that the infusion and re-circulation of retiree in-migrant dollars generates new jobs, especially in real estate, leisure, healthcare and financial services, and raises a region's tax-revenues more than local government expenditures (Poudyala et al., 2008; Lough & Xiang, 2016; Sunil et al., 2007). International retiree migrants also record a high incidence of community participation, volunteering and holding positions of responsibility in community groups and activities (Nelson et al., 2014). Many are 'digital nomads', who leverage technology and continue to work after retirement by outsourcing their talents internationally as freelancers or consultants, while embracing a cheaper quality of daily life abroad (Chalmers, 2018).

Drawing on a growing body of knowledge in the area of international retirement migration, this paper will explore in more depth the reasons behind this growing phenomenon (Migration Policy Institute, 2006; Hayes, 2014; Abdul-Aziz et al., 2015; Wong & Musa, 2014; Ono, 2008; Wong et al., 2017; Williams & Hall, 2000), and then focus on the efforts of destinations seeking to attract this growing niche segment of the world's population. South American countries, for example, are wooing the North Americans with simple-to-obtain residency status, low medical costs, and discounts on flights. Tourist hotspots in the Mediterranean are reaching out to the British, Scandinavian and German retirees with generous tax breaks, incentives to start new businesses, and the opportunities to engage in charitable activities. And the Southeast Asian countries of Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines are targeting Japanese and Australian retirees with dedicated retirement visas with no restrictions on entry and exit, no minimum age requirements, and healthcare discounts - just a few of the incentives being dangled as carrots to attract new retirees, who in turn are motivated by a sense of adventure, pleasant climates, improved accessibility, low cost of living, and growing communities of like-minded retirees (Botterill, 2016; Hayes, 2014).

Keywords: Retirement, migration, destination marketing

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UNRAVELING AIRBNB GROWTH IN A MATURING CULTURAL DESTINATION

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Abstract

Over the past decade, internet-based peer-to-peer platforms have emerged and exponentially grown impacting and re-shaping several industries over the globe. The tourism and hospitality industry has been particularly influenced by the peer-to-peer business model (Guttentag, 2015). As the predominant form within the sharing economy, Airbnb has succeeded in penetrating, although on different level of intensity, both mature and immature destinations. Airbnb, as a disruptive business model has created benefits for both end-users (i.e. guests and hosts) but also gave rise to legislative and safety concerns (Alrawadieh & Alrawadieh, 2018).

A considerable amount of research has been conducted to examine the growth of Airbnb in mature economies (e.g., McGowan & Mahon, 2018; Zervas et al., 2017), but less work has been done within maturing contexts. Being a home of numerous ancient sites belonging to different civilizations, Istanbul is particularly appealing for cultural travelers whose tourist experiences are largely influenced by authenticity and social interaction with locals (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2016). The city enjoys a good tourism infrastructure that responds to the current tourism demand. Figures related to the lodging sector of the city indicate that there are over 710 lodging facilities with a bed capacity of about 140 thousands (Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2018). The alternative accommodation sector is another major room supply in Istanbul. According to recent data obtained from Airdnd (2018), there are about 13.400 active Airbnb houses including entire homes, private rooms, and shared rooms. According to these data, each rental has 1.6 bedrooms on average, this means that Airbnb bed capacity in the city is estimated to be over 21400.

Recently, there has been some debate that the room supply in Istanbul surpasses the actual demand (Vatan, 2015).

The study draws on various secondary data including local news reports, media articles and official reports to understand the growth of Airbnb in the city, the threats and opportunities it brings, and the response of various stakeholders (e.g. hoteliers, local residents). Moreover, semi-structured interviews with budget hotel managers were conducted to gain deeper understanding into how hoteliers view the Airbnb business model and what kind of strategies they develop to save their market share. The primary findings confirm that Airbnb offerings have been growing in Istanbul with more intensity in touristic areas. In times when tourist arrivals declined, lobbying against Airbnb houses increased. Efforts to regulate Airbnb are being made and thus regulations and perhaps restrictions to short-rental houses are likely to be introduced in the near future.

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WORKING IT OUT TOGETHER: A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF VACATION RELATED DECISION-MAKING IN COUPLES

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Abstract

Purpose – In this study, we attempted to identify which interpersonal factors within a couple influence decisions in complex choice situations and which decision reaching strategies couples practice.

Design/methodology/approach - By means of in-depth interviews with couples, we examined which interpersonal factors within a couple affect decisions they make together. Using grounded theory, we developed a conceptual model of couple decision making.

Findings - We have suggested that couples use two types of decision reaching strategies to address complex vacation related decisions: democratic and monocratic. Furthermore, we have investigated that relationship attributes, interpersonal communication, and process involvement may influence the choice of decision reaching strategies couples use, and that these strategies might affect the total satisfaction with a decision process, or its outcome.

Research/practical implications - The findings of this research have implications for vacation marketers who wish to target a couple as a consumer segment. Knowing how couples make vacation related decisions, travel companies may develop effective promotional tools such as advertising and direct marketing, and as a result, communicate their products and services in a more efficient way.

Originality/value – Whereas the literature on group decision-making is useful for understanding choice processes in couples, it is evident that some of our findings are unique to this context, and therefore contribute to new insight in the area of group decision making. The model we introduce has incorporated concepts that, at present, have received little or no attention to complex decisions.

Keywords: decision reaching strategies, relationship attributes, complex choices, intimate couples

HOW HOTELIERS SEE THE GUEST COMPLAINTS? FACTORS INFLUENCING ORGANIZATIONAL RESPONSES TO GUEST COMPLAINTS IN SAUDI ARABIA

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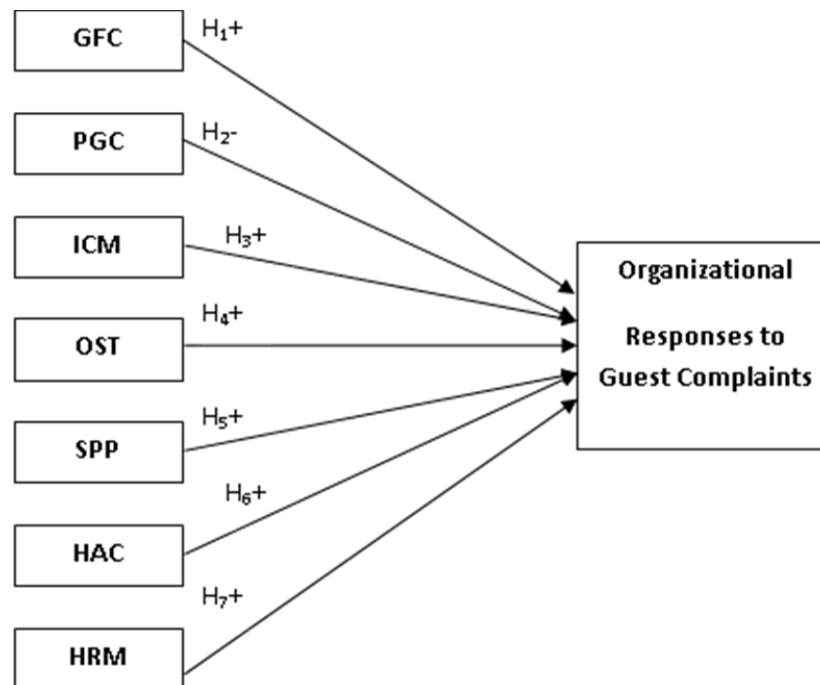
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Abstract

Increasing competition, customer rights movement and existence of convenient information sharing technologies force companies to provide seamless service, thus satisfy their customers to the fullest possible extent. Nonetheless, failures and mistakes are recurrent incidents in service companies, especially in hospitality industry. When these unwanted failures occur, it is how companies react and handle complaining customers separates the successful ones from those not. Moreover, guests' evaluations of organizations' responses to their complaints in service encounters are important elements of customer satisfaction and long-term loyalty. This is true for the countries such as Saudi Arabia, that aims continuously improve its share from the global tourist market. This can only be achieved by making sure that everybody working in the industry understands the importance of guest complaints. Especially, how hotel managers respond to the guest complaints mimicked by the lower management and rest of the hotel. Thus, this study attempts first to find out the current complaint handling practices in the hotel industry of Saudi Arabia, an internationally recognized religious tourism destination and containing the two holiest cities for Muslims. Then, highlight factors influence organizational responses to guest complaints. Expectantly, this study will provide some useful insights about the important phenomenon that is mostly studied from the customers' point of view. To do so, self-administrated questionnaires is used to reach out Saudi hoteliers. All four and five star hotels in the Kingdom are targeted. Out of 700 questionnaires printed and distributed 583 usable ones returned with a response rate of 83.3percent. The research model has been designed and multiple regression analysis in SPSS 24.0 has been used for the measurement of the hypothesized relationships. All of the theorized hypotheses are accepted. Results revealed that 'guest focus and commitment' found to be the most significant factor affecting 'organizational responses to guest complaints'. This is followed by 'effective organizational structure' and 'clear system, policy and procedures'. Discussions, implications for managers, limitations, and implications for future research will be presented in the present study.

Keywords: Complaint Management, Current Practices, Hotels, Saudi Arabia.

Figure 1: The Conceptual Model



Hypothesized Relationships:

H1: Guest focus and commitment will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H2: Prejudgments towards guest complaints will have a significant negative relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H3: Understanding of the importance of complaints management will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H4: Effective organizational structure will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H5: Clear system, policy and procedures of complaint management will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H6: Proper handling the complaints will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

H7: Effective human resource management will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

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INVESTIGATING ATTENDEES' SATISFACTION: CASE OF KIRKPINAR OIL WRESTLING COMPETITIONS

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Abstract

Turkey, strategically located between continents with its diverse natural, cultural and historical heritage, has been always been a popular tourist destination. The city of Edirne being Turkey's gate to Europe, bordering Bulgaria and Greece, has been attracting visitors through the ages. Especially, tourists from the Balkans and from Western Europe seeking a getaway filled with historical, gastronomical and cultural experiences visit Edirne and enjoy its hospitality. Among many of its rich offerings the Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling competitions, listed in the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity of UNWTO, attracts ever increasing number of spectators to the city both nationally and internationally. However, research on the attendees' perceptions of the Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling Competitions (KOWC) as well as their satisfaction with the hosting city is scarce. Thus, this study aims to fill this gap by providing an exploratory investigation of attendees' perceptions. To achieve this, attendees of 2018 KOWC are requested to participate in the research filling out a questionnaire, based on the relevant literature review, July 2018 through convenience sampling. Out of 500 questionnaires printed and distributed 412 usable ones returned with a response rate of 82.4 percent. The research model has been designed and multiple regression analysis in SPSS 24.0 has been used for the measurement of the hypothesized relationships.

In light of regression analysis results; all of the theorized hypotheses are accepted. Expectedly, KOW contest had the largest impact of attendees' satisfaction. This is followed by accommodation, food and beverage and shopping and tourist attractions. Implications for managers, limitations, and implications for future research were presented in the current study.

Keywords: Kirkpinar Oil Wrestling Competitions, attendee satisfaction, Edirne, Turkey

FACTORS INFLUENCING CHINESE POST 90S FEMALE OUTBOUND TOURIST'
LUXURY FASHION PURCHASES ABROAD

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Abstract

In 2017, mainland Chinese made 130.51 million outbound trips, a 7.0% growth rate compared with 2016 (CTA & Ctrip, 2018). Chinese consumers are constantly on move and buying more luxury products outside China. This paper offers insights into the consumption motivation and purchasing behaviour of Chinese consumers against the background of increasing luxury fashion brand purchased by those post-90s female tourists. Chinese post-90s is a distinct generation that emerged during the period of rapid economic advancement in China; they also differ to western millennial. To acknowledge the distinctiveness of their behaviours, this study adopts the generational cohort theory to explore consumers' luxury purchasing experience abroad. This exploratory qualitative study employs semi-structured in-depth interviews with photo-elicitation to understand multisensory luxury purchase experience of Chinese post-90s female tourists. At the moment, this study is still at a developing stage, data will be collected before the conference. Theoretically, we aim to understand the complexity of luxury shopping from a generational perspective. Through investigating the motivations and factors impacting on Chinese post 90s female outbound tourists' luxury shopping behaviour, it also provides insights on how this generation conceptualises luxury shopping in China. Practically, it offers suggestions to global and international luxury brands on how to attract Chinese outbound tourist and identify ways to become an integral part of their travel itinerary.

Keywords: Chinese outbound tourist, Chinese post-90s, luxury purchase, millennial

A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ARAB TOURISTS' MOTIVATIONS TO VISIT LONDON, UK

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Abstract

This study aims to develop a conceptual framework of Arab tourists' motivations to visit London UK. The study has four objectives, the first one is to identify the travel motivations of Arab tourists' and assess why they are choosing London as a destination. The second objective is to determine the itinerary of Arab tourists' while in London. The third objective is to compare the identified motivations and itinerary between summer and winter tourists. The last objective is to justify the identified motivations and itinerary from the perspective of Arabic culture and traditions. The data will be collected through a mixed method of interviews and focus groups. Interviews will be with Arab tourists visiting London during winter and summer seasons to achieve the first three objectives. In addition, two focus groups will be conducted to collect the required data for the last objective. This study will address the limited research on Arab tourists' motivations and culture. It will also support London DMOs (Visit London) and other DMOs to understand Arab tourists travel motivations and preferences.

Keywords: Arab Tourists, Tourists Motivations, Tourism Marketing.

Introduction

Research on Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) strategy development appears to be scant (Pike & Page, 2014), especially in the context of Arab tourists (Moufakkir & AlSaleh, 2017). Additionally, linking the cultural justification to tourists' motivations is not fully addressed in the literature (Alghamdi, 2007; Cohen, et al., 2014; Li, et al., 2016). Therefore, this study aims to explore the motivations that drive Arab tourists to travel to London, UK. In addition, this study will probe their preferred activities while visiting and investigate how those motivations and preferences are influenced by the values/ traditions of Arab culture. This insight will be used to develop a conceptual framework of Arab tourists which will support DMOs to develop suitable marketing strategies that suit the needs and expectations of Arab tourists.

Literature Review

Despite the richness of tourism motivation's literature, rare studies have explored Arab tourists' motivations in choosing a specific destination (E.g. Prayag & Hosany, 2014; Abodeeb, 2014), and this lucrative market continues to be overlooked (Farahani & Mohamed, 2013). Additionally, Cohen et al. (2014) stressed that most previous studies on tourism motivations focus on motivation itself and ignore reasons behind those motivations, especially cultural aspects, which reveal its significance to explain tourists' motivations and behaviours (Plangmarn, et al., 2012). Researchers call for future studies to discover the motivations of Arab tourists and to justify them from the

perspective of the Arabic culture. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap in literature by exploring Arab tourists' motivations to visit London and investigating the influence of the values/traditions of Arab cultures on those motivations to provide a conceptual framework of Arab tourists' motivations (E.g. Alghamdi, 2007; Moufakkir & Al Saleh, 2017).

Research Design

The study adopts a qualitative approach to develop in-depth knowledge, rich data and understanding to explore Arab tourists' motivations and to justify them from the Arabic values perspective. The data will be collected in two stages, the first is through interview, and the second is via focus groups. This will overcome the weakness associated with employing a single method. Besides it provides a richer approach of data collection and interpretation (Saunders, 2015). The samples of this study will be Arab tourists who have visited London more than three times in the past five years for pleasure. A purposive-snowball sampling technique will be employed in this study as it proved its effectiveness in similar previous studies (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Finally, the data analysis method will be thematic analysis to achieve the objectives of this study.

Practical Implications

This study will provide a pragmatic framework of how to understand the motivations, cultural values and preferred activities of Arab tourists. This will be useful for London DMOs (Visit London) and other DMOs who are interested in targeting Arab tourists to develop marketing strategies that fulfil Arab tourists' needs and expectations which in consequence will enhance their motivations to visit.

Originality

This study will explicitly address calls for further research on limited studies on culture and motivations of this distinct group of individuals (Arab tourists). Also, this study will add to the limited research on strategy development particularly in tourism marketing.

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BUILDING DESTINATION BRAND ATTACHMENT: THE ROLE OF COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE COMPONENTS AND DESTINATION BRAND STEREOTYPES

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Abstract

Destination branding management has been an important issue for destination marketing organizations (DMOs) and tourism researchers since the late 1990s (Pike & Page, 2014). Using destination branding, DMOs can create a unique destination proposition to differentiate it from competitors in order to attract visitors (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2002). Researchers have introduced various brand performance concepts (e.g., brand equity, brand loyalty) to operationalise the development of the destination branding framework (e.g., Blain, Levy, & Ritchie; Kladou, Kavaratzis, Rigopoulou, & Salonika, 2017; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Oppermann, 2000). Afterwards, previous research started to assign a set of human characteristics associated with brands to tourism destinations (e.g., Ekinci, & Hosany, 2006). Recently, the development touched upon building relationship (i.e., attachment) with tourism destination, adopting the concept of brand attachment (e.g., Huang, Zhang & Hu, 2017). Brand attachment is defined as the strength of emotional bond towards a brand (Thomson, MacInnis, Park, 2005). This construct has been found to predict favourable consumers behaviours such as intention to recommend, purchase, revisit, resilience to negative information and act of defending the brand (Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2014). Despite important outcomes of brand attachment, little has been done to explore this concept to the tourism destination field. Most tourism researchers widely adopted other concepts such as place attachment (e.g., Hwang, Lee, Chen, 2005) and destination attachment (e.g., Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). The purpose of this study is to contribute to the destination branding literature by exploring antecedents of destination brand attachment. Particularly, we argue that destination brand stereotypes can influence the strength of the bond towards a destination brand. People perceive and differentiate each other on the basis of stereotypes, which also lead to predict cognitive, emotional, and behavioural reactions (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). In the same way, stereotypes play a key role in consumers' perceptions of companies and brands (Aaker, 2010; Ivens, Leischnig, Muller, & Valta, 2015). Nevertheless, there is a paucity of studies that applies the concept of brand stereotypes into destination branding. This study argues that destination brand stereotypes play a prominent role in predicting destination brand attachment. Two cognitive attributes (i.e., destination brand awareness and perceived quality) and two affective attributes (i.e., lifestyle congruence and enduring culture involvement) are proposed as the drivers of destination stereotypes which, in turn, influences on destination

brand attachment. Based on a survey of 612 respondents, the research model is evaluated using structural equation modelling (SEM) with the AMOS software. The results show support to the conceptual framework. Cognitive and affective attributes, contribute to build destination brand attachment both directly and indirectly with the complementary mediation of destination brand stereotypes. Based on the findings, this research has important theoretical and practical implications in understanding the antecedents of destination brand attachment.

Keywords: Destination brand attachment, Destination brand stereotypes, Destination brand awareness, Perceived quality, Ideal self-congruence, Enduring culture involvement

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THE INFLUENCE OF TRAVEL COMPANIONS IN THEME PARK EXPERIENCES

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Abstract

As one of the major trends in the development of international tourism, theme parks have become one of the most important tourism products offering engaging and entertaining visitor experiences. Visitor experience is the necessary channel to help understand the needs of customers and establish accurate marketing methods, and is an important factor leading to satisfaction (Camilleri 2017). The recent innovation in technology and the changing consumer needs have made the tourism industry to provide more customized experiences (Jurowski, 2009). Although individual customer experience may differ, it is a comprehensive result of individuals and other people's societal comparison according to social comparison theory (Festinger 1954). Personal evaluation of experience is usually influenced by other people's experience, viewpoints, standpoints, and other factors. In terms of travel, tourist experiences are inevitably influenced by their travel companions. The presence of companion will encourage more engagement with tourism activities and therefore influence the perception of the destination (Schmelkin et al. 2004; Lin & Donggen, 2014). Although, there are many studies on tourist experiences and satisfaction, there are very limited studies indicating how would the experiences and satisfaction vary when travelling with different companions. This research therefore, uses the visitors' online reviews for the first Disney Park in the world and explores the relationship between visitor experiences and satisfaction and discusses the influence of travel companion on experiences and satisfaction.

Based on the visitors' reviews from TripAdvisor, the study explores the relationship between tourist experiences and satisfaction and discusses the relationship of travel companions and tourist experiences at Disneyland, California. The paper establishes a web analytical method of online reviews, it first uses TF-IDF value of 200 high frequency words and then a series of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is to used (Guo et al, 2016) to extract the key dimensions of visitor experiences. Next, a series of regression analysis were conducted to explore the relationship between satisfaction and key experiences. In the end, visitor experiences of different companion groups were compared to discuss the influence of companionship on visitor experiences. First, the study reveals that visitor experiences in theme parks are mainly passive, focusing on entertainment and aesthetic aspects. The results also confirm that both entertainment and aesthetic aspects are concentrated on passive experiences. Second, the paper also identified important factors contributing visitor experiences in theme parks, such as, Staff, Atmosphere, Food,

Activity, Time and Ticket. Thirdly, the study found that the closer the relationship between tourists and companions is, the lower their evaluation of Disneyland satisfaction. Besides, due to different travel companions, tourist satisfactions vary, proving the influence of companionship to tourist experiences and satisfaction, enriching the research on tourist experiences from a social comparison perspective (Festinger 1954). Managing these experiences are essential for businesses.

Keywords: Theme Park; Travel Experience; Satisfaction; Disneyland

ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION BRAND CREDIBILITY: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

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Abstract

Brand credibility is considered as one of the key aspects in global branding strategy (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). It refers to the extent to which an individual believes the product information contained in a brand by perceiving that the brand is able and willing to deliver it promises (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Brand credibility has been shown to predict numerous important marketing constructs, such as consumer-based brand equity, word-of-mouth, customer satisfaction, commitment, perceived quality and purchase intention (Baek, Kim, & Yu, 2010; Spry, Pappu, & Cornwell, 2011; Sweeney Swait, 2008), among others. The concept of brand credibility has also been applied in the tourism domain. Previous research displayed that destination brand credibility is able to predict destination image, destination attachment and destination satisfaction (Kani, Aziz, Sambasivan, & Bojei, 2017; Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013), which ultimately lead to various favourable behaviours, such as destination loyalty (e.g., Yuksel, Yuksel, & Bilim, 2010). Although destination brand credibility has been considered as a prominent construct, not much research has investigated the drivers of it (Veasna et al., 2013). Thus, the aim of this study is to offer a framework in building destination brand credibility. Three variables are proposed as the antecedents of destination brand credibility, which are enduring cultural involvement, place identity and destination image. In addition, the present study also examines the mediating role of positive emotions. Prayag, Hosany, and Odeh (2013) show that emotions are important predictor of satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Based on a survey of 350 Indonesian, the research model was tested using structural equation modelling (SEM) approach. The results support the conceptual framework. The research model was cross validated with an additional survey of 151 Spanish. Based on the findings, this research has important theoretical and practical implications in understanding the antecedents of destination brand credibility.

Keywords: Destination brand credibility, Emotions, Enduring culture involvement, Place identity, Destination image.

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ATTACHMENT AND LOYALTY TO RURAL DESTINATIONS: DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN TOURISTS AND SAME-DAY VISITORS

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Abstract

This paper seeks to contribute to the conceptualisation and comprehension of the roles that destination attachment and satisfaction with the experience play in the likelihood of revisiting a rural destination. The study tests a model of how two types of visiting experience (escape and learning) and two types of emotional experience (relax and delight) contribute to satisfaction, attachment, and revisiting intentions among two groups of visitors (tourists and same-day visitors). Partial least squares structural equation modelling was employed to test and compare the effects between the two groups in data obtained by surveying 564 visitors to three diverse rural spots in Portugal.

Results show that place attachment is the sole predictor of loyalty, which means that the satisfaction with the trip only indirectly influences the likelihood of returning to the destination in future leisure trips – some level of attachment to the destination is necessary in order for the traveller to wish to come back. Feelings of delight favour the memorability and thus increase satisfaction and attachment. As expected, relaxing feelings don't impact memorability, but they have a small direct effect on satisfaction. All effects considered, learning may be more memorable, but escape more likely leads to satisfaction, attachment, and revisit.

Comparing to same-day visitors, tourists are keener to experiences of escape, feel more relaxed, are more satisfied, feel more attached to the rural destination, and are more likely to revisit. The PLS multiple-group analysis reveals that the power of attachment to predict loyalty is much stronger for tourists than for same-day visitors. All the other coefficients are similar across the two groups. However, when considering total effects, another difference is apparent: experiences of escape have more impact on tourists' attachment and loyalty, while same-day visitors are more likely to become attached and loyal as a consequence of their learning experiences. Escaping tends to involve a stay at the rural destination or nearby, reinforcing attachment and loyalty. On the other hand, for same-day visitors, learning experiences that become memorable tend to increase attachment to the particular destination and may be converted into a revisit, hopefully involving a stay.

From a theoretical point of view, this paper emphasises the importance of destination attachment to build loyalty. It thus suggests that satisfaction with a positive experience may be a necessary but insufficient condition to loyalty, which seems to involve strong affective bonds to the place. It also points out that same-day visitors differ from longer stay tourists in the ways they develop loyalty to the destination. From a managerial perspective, it stresses the importance of features that reinforce tourists' attachment to the place, but it also suggests that same-day visitors may become attached and eager to come back after delightful visits, consequently same-day experiences should be stimulating and memorable.

Keywords: Rural tourism, Experience, Emotions, place attachment, Satisfaction, Loyalty

SHARE REPURCHASE AND STOCK MARKET REACTION: UNDERSTANDING THE VARIATIONS IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY

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Abstract

Corporate share repurchases have come into trend as a way to return cash to shareholders since they were legalized by the SEC in 1982 (Huang, 2017). Restaurant industry is no exception to this trend, continuing to increase the amount of share repurchase. Many restaurant companies including Starbucks, Wendy's and McDonald's have recently announced their plan to increase their share repurchase programs (Forbes, 2017). Furthermore, from 2015 to 2017, restaurant firms issuing stock buybacks have spent more than 100 percent of the total profits on stock buybacks whereas U.S. publicly traded companies spent about 60 percent of their profits on stock buybacks (Roosevelt, 2018). This indicates that restaurant firms actually engage more aggressively in stock repurchase program than average U.S firms.

However, this aggressive stock repurchase policy of the restaurant firms should be taken with great care since some characteristics unique to the restaurant industry could possibly create variation in market reaction to share repurchase. However, in the field of restaurant industry, little has been done to investigate the effect of share repurchase on market reaction. To reduce this research gap, the main objective of this study was to verify various circumstances in the restaurant industry that could influence the effect of share repurchase on market reaction. More specifically, this study addressed research questions: (1) if the presence of growth opportunity influences the positive impact of share repurchase on market reaction; (2) if there exists any difference in the impact of share repurchase on market reaction between franchise and non-franchise restaurant firms; and (3) if dividend payments, which is another type of corporate payout, has any impact on the relationship between share repurchase and market reaction.

To measure the influence of share repurchase on market reaction, this study used an event study method. An event study analysis differentiates between the stock returns that would have been expected if the analyzed event would not have taken place (normal returns) and the stock returns that were caused by the respective event (actual returns) (de Jong, 2007). To investigate the effect of growth opportunity, franchising as a firm characteristic and dividend payment on the relationship between share repurchase and market reaction, regression analysis was conducted.

Overall, the results of this study showed that stock market reacted less favorably to stock repurchase when growth opportunity was high than when growth opportunity was low. In addition, this study demonstrated that market reacted less favorably to stock repurchase for franchise restaurant firms than for non-franchise restaurant firms. Lastly but not least, the positive effect of

share repurchase on market reaction was weaker for consistent- dividend paying firms than for non-consistent-dividend paying firms.

Given that carrying out share repurchase program is a costly method of satisfying shareholders' needs by spending massive amount of cash on buyback (Bukalska, 2014), this study adds new knowledge regarding determining when to buy back their own shares depending on the factors investigated.

SHARE REPURCHASE AND STOCK MARKET REACTION: UNDERSTANDING THE VARIATIONS IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY

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Abstract

As a cohort group of population who have USD200 billion yearly purchasing power, Generation Y has been becoming one of the largest consumption groups in the tourism industry (IPK International, 2016; World Tourism Organization, 2016). Despite the prominent growth of Generation Y consumers in both size and impact, limited attention has been paid to investigate factors affecting Generation Y travelers' consideration of and willingness-to-pay for hotel accommodations. Previous research has long posited that travelers' hotel consideration is contingent upon external reference price (see Chen, 2009; Choi & Mattila, 2018; Johnson & Cui, 2013). Although the influence of external reference price was coined, the question of whether "level" (i.e. high or low) and "source" (i.e. from friends, from parents or from price comparison sites) of external reference price would induce differential impacts has never been examined. Moreover, since knowledge and insights from previous studies are mostly derived from responses by Generation X and Baby Boomers, another empirical study is warranted to verify whether such assertion can be generalized to Generation Y.

To redress these research voids, the primary objective of this exploratory study is to investigate Generation Y travelers' consideration of as well as willing-to-pay for hotel accommodations under different levels and sources of external reference price. Drawing on a 2 (reference price level: high vs. low) x 3 (reference price source: friends vs. parents vs. price comparison sites) between-subject experiment with 288 Generation Y travelers residing in Europe, the empirical findings show that both reference price level and reference price source have main impacts on Generation Y travelers' willingness-to-pay for hotel accommodations. Specifically, Generation Y travelers tend to pay a higher level of room rate after reading a high reference price given by friends and price comparison sites. Even though reference price level and reference price source do not have any main impact on Generation Y travelers' consideration of hotel accommodations, some interesting interaction effects between the two factors are identified. Being one of the first studies attempting to explicate how external reference price level and source influence Generation Y travelers' hotel consideration and willingness-to-pay, this study does not only contribute new knowledge to the literature but also provide practitioners with insightful clues for improving their business performance.

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WELLNESS TOURISM – AN EMPIRICAL STUDY TO ANALYSE THE LEVEL OF MOTIVATION AMONG WELLNESS TOURISTS

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Abstract

Time has changed the need and travel intentions of people across the globe. A latent need to feel good both within and without backed by the desire to maintain a healthy lifestyle has led to substantial increase of interest in the wellness sector. Several empirical studies have identified various push and pull factors which motivate tourists to travel for different purposes. However, review of existing literature related to tourism and wellness tourism revealed a lack of studies in the context of wellness tourist motivation level in the Indian context. It is against this backdrop that this paper attempts to bridge this gap by conducting an empirical study to understand the motivation level of wellness tourists (both domestic and international) with regard to different wellness services being offered in India.

Survey method was used to understand tourists' motivation level visiting India or travelling within India to avail of wellness services. The survey was adopted from previous studies in the same field. The survey was sent through email to the target audience along with a cover letter explaining the objectives of the research. The survey contained three sections. The first section collected socio-demographic data, the second section understood the respondent's past wellness experience within or outside India and the type of wellness service availed or desired in the future. The third section consisted of statements to measure wellness tourist motivation. The data was collected on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (not at all important) to 7 (extremely important), thus higher scores indicated greater levels of motivation and low scores were taken as low levels of motivation to travel for wellness purposes. Data collection period ranged from December 2018 until March 2019 and a total of 209 responses were obtained. Wellness travel motivation was operationalized using 28 relevant statements adopted from various articles published under the subject of tourist motivation in general. The data were analysed using factor analysis. The results revealed 6 factors and suggested that wellness travellers placed greater importance on health, pampering and local country specific factors to motivate them to travel for wellness purposes than social factors like sharing experience upon return. The findings of this study will help Indian wellness service providers to better fulfil the needs of wellness tourists which shall result in better service, higher customer satisfaction and increased revenues for both the service providers as well as the government.

Keywords: Wellness tourism; Tourist motivation; Factor analysis; Wellness travellers.

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ANTECEDENTS OF TOURIST TRIP PLANNING AUTONOMY: THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF A GLOBAL ECONOMIC CRISIS

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Abstract

A key tourism trend in recent years has been that travellers increasingly use the Internet to find travel information and book and pay for tourism services, with concomitant reductions in their use of traditional, physical intermediaries to plan their trips (European Commission, 2017). We refer to such independent planning behaviour of tourists as autonomy in trip planning.

Such autonomy represents a critical phenomenon for the tourism market. First, autonomy in trip planning changes effective marketing strategies for tourism products and destinations when the target market is increasingly competent, autonomous consumers. They can easily access information about tourism products or services, including prices. The proliferation of reviews in turn gives firms novel insights into client perceptions, while also providing a channel to respond directly to clients' comments. Due to these shifts, physical travel agents have largely lost their traditional function, and tourism providers and intermediaries confront the clear need to revise their approaches if they hope to provide valued contributions to tourism supply chains.

Second, autonomy is a growing behavior. Among European travelers, the Internet is the main channel for holiday planning (European Commission, 2017). Although currently traditional tourism agents coexist with autonomous tourists, the continued development of the Internet and its widespread use for planning trips suggests that the returns on such efforts will continue to diminish. In turn, understanding the levers of tourists' trip planning autonomy represents a pressing demand for tourism marketers and managers.

Prior research on tourists' trip-planning behavior indicates some links between the tourists' sociodemographic profiles and their trip planning behaviors (Kuo, Hung, Hou, & Chang, 2011). Other factors, beyond individual traits, also have been examined, such as the vacation type or the number of tourist services included in the vacation (Park & Jang, 2013). But no research specifically integrates potential antecedents of autonomy related to both tourists' characteristics and the trip features.

In addition to recognizing that the use of the Internet provides a basis to explain autonomy, these links likely reflect the influence of the intense 2008 global economic crisis. Economic crises disrupt tourist activity, leading to decreased tourism expenditures and fewer international trips in the immediate term, as well as long-term effects such as stronger desires to economize or tendencies to flit from one offering to another (Alegre, Mateo, & Pou, 2013; INE, 2017).

With national data on how Spanish tourists residents searched for travel information and completed trip bookings, this study investigates antecedents of tourist autonomy in trip planning, including both tourist' characteristics and trips' characteristics, as well as the crisis scenario as a relevant framework for tourist behavior.

Our results indicate positive relationships among autonomy and both tourists' educational background and their travel experience but negative relationships among autonomy and both trip importance and trip expenditures. The study also highlights the role of the last global economic crisis, revealing its moderating influence on the relationships among several of the antecedent factors and autonomy. These results in turn have relevant managerial implications for tourism operators.

Keywords: Trip-planning autonomy, economic crisis, tourists' characteristics, trip characteristics

SERVANT LEADERSHIP IN HOSPITALITY: STATE-OF-THE-ART AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

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Abstract

Notwithstanding the proliferation of servant leadership (SL) studies in the leadership literature since 1991, research in the hospitality field only started recently. As being the ideal effective leadership for the hospitality industry, scholars in hospitality and tourism have perceived the importance of SL starting 2010. However, there is no consensus and clarity around the SL construct and it is relatively new in the hospitality leadership literature. Hence, the direction for future research and what has been done to date are indispensable for researchers since it reduces research fragmentation in the future. The study aim is to use existing works in hospitality and tourism literature with the systematic literature review to summarize facts and address the future research.

Using content analysis, an integrative and comprehensive systematic review is provided to show the current state on the research progress and to offer critical insights and future research agenda. In methodology, specific keywords and conditions were employed in four databases including Scopus, EBSCOHost, ScienceDirect, and Google Scholar to retrieve all SL hospitality-related articles published since the concept first appeared in 1970. The researchers used a combination of keywords including “servant leadership,” “servant leader,” and “hospitality,” “restaurant,” “event,” “tourism” or “hotel” appearing in the “titles, keywords, or abstracts” to identify articles in the databases. Only relevant (i.e., focus on SL as a key variable or subject area), full-length, and English papers were retrieved leaving 30 documents for analysis. Book chapters, and conference papers were excluded. This study will be the first to extend the hospitality SL literature in applying detailed analysis based on types of research, journals, countries, sectors, theories and methods used, dimensions, and operationalization scales. Additionally, a nomological network of servant leadership hospitality research in relation to its antecedents, outcomes, moderators, mediators is provided.

Interestingly, findings of SL hospitality research contributes in expanding the theoretical knowledge in many foci including extending the nomological network and giving back to the leadership literature. The former is reached by testing new variables and retesting across different settings and sectors using diverse paradigms, methods and levels for model paths. The latter is shown by many studies reaching the customers level which is unique as employee-customer contact is the core of the hospitality industry. In addition, SL was tested as moderator which is a new trend emerging. However, no manuscript approached the conditions or antecedents of a

servant leader although the most common practical implications provided comprises hiring and training for servant leadership. Moreover, no new theories are brought in use with leadership that defer from the known ones. Further results are discussed in the study. This holistic view through the qualitative and critical assessment of existing hospitality SL literature on what has been done contributes to both the hospitality and leadership literature and guide future research.

Keywords: Content analysis, Hospitality, Literature review, Servant leadership.

USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA AS A TOOL FOR RECRUITMENT

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Abstract

Since recruiting a wrong individual is costly for an organization, to attract and retain the best talent is therefore one of the most important determinants of organizational effectiveness. In the current business environment, organizations are facing significant challenges in finding the correct employees. Companies are thus increasingly realizing the strategic importance of the identification, attraction and recruitment of talented employees into their organizations.

The way organizations source candidates are changing rapidly and new sourcing tools are continuously being developed. To attract candidates into an organization, the potential candidate must firstly be identified so that the job can be brought to their attention. Different types of candidates are motivated by different factors in making a potential career move to a new organization. Depending on type of candidates there are a number of ways to source candidates, each with its own strengths and weaknesses. In this vein, Internet and social media have been new key drivers for sourcing candidates. Recruiters and organizations are realizing that more and better candidates can be discovered and approached quicker and at a lower cost by utilizing social networks, compared to traditional recruitment methods.

Social networking sites allow recruiters to post job advertisements to lure a wide spectrum of potential candidates to easily access and apply for such potential positions, thereby enabling recruiters to search for and screen potential job applicants. Social media platforms, like Facebook, LinkedIn and Twitter are mainly used in the sourcing process.

Social media gives recruiters a competitive edge in reaching their recruitment objectives when it is done effectively. Although social media is extensively used for screening candidates, it is still unclear whether this screening influences a recruiter's decision to such an extent that they would reject an applicant. Thus, this research aimed to investigate the effect of social media on recruitment process.

This is an empirically designed research. A survey was conducted in industrial enterprises operating in the province of Konya, in Turkey and received 306 valid responses. Data analysis revealed that firms use social media mainly to announce vacant positions and receive applications (means are 3.81 and 3.40 respectively) at the process of recruitment. Facebook and Twitter are perceived the most effective social media platforms used by the firms (means are 3.88 and 3.30 respectively). The use of social media platforms enables firms to reduce costs, save time and reach the most potential candidates (means are 3.97, 3.90 and 3.81 respectively).

Keywords: social media, recruitment, industrial enterprises

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THE EFFECT OF JOB SATISFACTION ON LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

Employee job satisfaction is an attitude that people have about their jobs and the organizations in which they perform these jobs. If the employees find their job fulfilling and rewarding, they tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. Working assignment (intrinsic characteristics) like appreciation, communications, recognition, and working conditions (extrinsic characteristics) like job conditions, and leadership determine job satisfaction.

Leadership is a process of interaction between leaders and followers where the leader attempts to influence followers to achieve a common goal. The success of all political, economic, and organizational structures is fundamentally based on the impact and significance of leadership.

There are several styles of leadership that leaders may adopt in managing organizations such as autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, bureaucratic, charismatic, participative, situational, transactional, and transformational leadership. Leadership style determines the degree of conventionalism within an organization, the organizational control process, motivating factors, level of employee participation, and method of decision-making authority. Thus, leadership contributes significantly in the success and failure of an organization.

By using appropriate leadership styles, managers can affect employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity. Among determinants of job satisfaction, leadership is viewed as an important predictor and plays a central role. Extensive research has been conducted on leadership and job satisfaction over the past several decades. However, knowledge about the impact of job satisfaction on leadership is limited. Therefore, this empirical research aimed to investigate the effect of job satisfaction on leadership.

Survey data were collected from 250 randomly selected respondents working in service and manufacturing sectors. Structural Equation Modelling was employed for the data analysis. Results demonstrated that there is a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and leadership ($R^2 = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$). Results revealed that dimensions of extrinsic characteristics (working conditions) had significant impact on the leadership, compared to the intrinsic characteristics.

Keywords: job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, leadership

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SIGNAS OF GLOBAL HOTEL BRANDS AND THEIR IMPACT ON CHOICE

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Abstract

This study investigates how and why the traveler chooses globally branded, instead of locally branded, hotels when traveling to another country. Building on signaling theory, the authors conceptualize a model to explain the buyer process of selecting global hotel brands and test the model empirically with South Korean international travelers through a self-administered survey. The data support the relationships of selected brand signals with brand attitude and purchase likelihood. The results imply how global hotel brand managers could enhance the effect of global hotel branding on the traveler's hotel choice. The study adds to the literature by proposing a new, empirically supported model of global branding in the hotel industry.

Keywords: Branding, Signaling, Credibility, Heuristic, Satisfaction, Attitude

A QUANTITATIVE LOOK INTO SPORT TOURISTS' NOSTALGIA

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between nostalgia and revisit intention of sport tourists based on the stimuli-organism-response framework. Data (N = 619) were collected from college football tourists in the United States and analyzed using structural equation modelling (SEM). The results showed a positive relationship between sport tourists' nostalgia toward college football games and their intention to attend future games. The findings contribute to establishing strategies for sport marketers to enhance sport tourists' participation in sporting events.

Keywords: Sport tourist, classification of nostalgia, conceptual model of nostalgia, revisit intention

Introduction

Previous studies on sport tourism have made much scholarly efforts in examining how individuals' motivation (e.g., Wann, 1995), satisfaction (e.g., Larson & Steinman, 2009), or loyalty (e.g., Wu, Tsai, & Hung, 2012) influences their behavior. Recently, Cho, Ramshaw, and Norman (2014) claimed that nostalgia should also be considered as one of the integral factors when studying sport tourists' behavior. To date, research on sport tourists' nostalgia has mostly relied on qualitative research methods (e.g., Fairley, 2003), leaving many relationships claimed but untested. This study intends to fill this gap by conducting a quantitative investigation of the relationship between nostalgia and revisit intention in a college football context.

Methods

A total of 619 survey responses were collected from sport fans to college football games in the U.S.A., using a systematic random sampling method. Sport tourists' nostalgia toward the college football games was measured by the Nostalgia Scale for Sport Tourism (NSST) (Cho, Lee, Moore,

Norman, & Ramshaw, 2017) with five sub-scales. As for revisit intention, this study used three items developed by Carroll (2009).

Results

The results of confirmatory factor analysis (S-B $\chi^2_{(df)} = 1144.01_{(446)}$; CFI = .921; NNFI = .913; RMSEA = .050; SRMR = .055) and the structural model (S-B $\chi^2_{(df)} = 1242.65_{(455)}$; CFI = .911; NNFI = .903; RMSEA = .053; SRMR = .066) showed an acceptable model fit. In addition to this, the results were in support of a positive relationship between sport tourists' nostalgia and their revisit intention.

Discussion

The findings of the study provide a quantitative illustration of how sport tourists' nostalgia toward a sporting event shapes their intention to be in another event of the kind. Sport marketers, especially in spectator sports, may consider adding nostalgic touches to their marketing messages or sporting environment to draw sports tourists to sporting events. Future studies may investigate how nostalgia is related to other constructs, such as team identification, in the context of sport tourism.

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PSYCHOMETRIC INDEX DEVELOPMENT OF ONLINE REVIEWS ON MEDICAL TOURISM

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Abstract

Electronic word of mouth has emerged into an integral part of the customer purchase decision-making. Customers search for online reviews prior to purchase and later on they write reviews about their purchases. Online reviews have become equally important for both the goods and the services industry. The online reviews have been rapidly growing and increasing day by day, therefore the concept of review helpfulness have come forward to help customers make diligent and an informed purchase decision.

Online reviews are not only confined to goods, they have a very significant impact and influence on the tourism sector (Jalilvand and Samiei, 2012). Online reviews have emerged to be very important in the niche sectors of tourism such as the Medical tourism. The tremendous increase in the demands of elective medical care or the non-urgent treatments have peaked the need of reading reviews regarding it. However, the online reviews suffer from many biases and there is need for development of a robust psychometrically validated index on online review helpfulness of the medical reviews, which could not be affected by the biases.

In order to develop this formative index, the guidelines suggested by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) has been followed. This research contributes both theoretically and managerially. Managers can use the proposed measure to increase the helpfulness of the online medical reviews. It can help the potential customers to make informed decisions of the medical care they want to avail by providing a better system to judge the review helpfulness. This proposed formative index does not suffer from biases and the measure is psychometrically validated.

Keywords: Electronic word of mouth, online reviews, review helpfulness, medical tourism

APPLICATION OF SLOW PHILOSOPHY IN DESTINATION MARKETING: THE CASE OF LATVIA

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Abstract

The paper aims to evaluate the implications of applying the slow philosophy in destination marketing in Latvia by looking at it from the tourism destination marketing perspective. The literature suggests that slowness is an effective marketing concept and slow tourism can be used as a viable promotional tool in destination. So far, the slow brand has been used to promote cities, as in case with the Cittáslow brand. Yet, Latvia with its tourism marketing brand “Latvia. Best enjoyed slowly” is the only destination that has applied the slow philosophy in destination marketing at a national level making the setting of the research unique. The findings of the research provide insights into attitudes towards a slow destination brand and marketing challenges related to the application of the slow philosophy in destination marketing at the national level.

The marketing issues as well as the opportunities and challenges for such strategy are examined using a qualitative approach. In-depth semi-structured interviews with Latvian tourism destination marketers are used to provide insight into the current understanding of the slow philosophy and actual marketing practices in relation to the slow brand.

The results of the study show that the application of a slow philosophy in destination marketing is encumbered and complicated. Whilst the slow destination brand was said to be appropriate for the country, the opinions of the tourism destination marketers varied as to whether the regions, cities or towns should be associated with ‘slow’. Currently the regional and local DMOs prefer to use their own brands, logos and slogans in destination marketing and little attention is given to the national tourism brand which is one of the main challenges for the successful application of a slow destination brand. This questions whether slowness is an effective marketing concept and a viable promotion tool for a destination at the national level.

There is also mixed commitment to the brand among various stakeholders. The current application of the brand by DMOs at regional level can be grouped into three categories – 1) applying the logo/visual application, 2) customizing the slogan and 3) implementing the brand/conceptual application. Such varied application of the national tourism brand at regional and local level can be explained by the limited capacity of the national tourism destination marketing organization to encourage the application of this national brand, coupled with a lack of clear guidelines as to how the brand could be used.

Tourism policy makers need to address not only stereotypes associated with the ‘slow’ brand by ensuring the ongoing communication of the brand and its values but also to provide practical guidelines on how such a brand can be implemented.

Keywords: slow philosophy, slow brand, destination marketing

QUALITY OF LIFE AND EMOTIONAL SOLIDARITY IN RESIDENTS' ATTITUDE
TOWARDS TOURISTS: THE CASE OF MACAU

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Abstract

Research on residents' attitude towards tourism development has been under way for many years. Few studies, however, have investigated the relationship between residents' perception of their quality of life (QoL) and their emotional solidarity towards tourists. The primary goal of this study is to better understand residents' emotional solidarity towards tourists by exploring to what extent it is explained by residents' perception of tourism's impact on QoL, and their satisfaction with QoL. The concept of social exchange theory (SET) is used as the basis framework to explain the relationships, and the partial least square structural equation modelling method is used to assess the hypothesized model. Data for this study were obtained from the survey responses of 407 residents in Macau, a Special Administrative Region (SAR) located on the south eastern coast of China. The results confirm that residents' perception of tourism's impact on four life domains (material, community, emotional, and health & safety) positively influences their satisfaction with the corresponding life domains. However, the later domains only partially contribute to their overall satisfaction with QoL. In turn, overall satisfaction with QoL revealed to be a significant predictor of residents' emotional solidarity towards tourists. The findings indicate the importance to consider QoL in examining residents' attitude towards tourists. Furthermore, both theoretical and practical implications are discussed. Limitations and future research directions are also provided.

Keywords: Residents' attitude towards tourists, Residents' perception, Residents' satisfaction, Quality of life, Emotional solidarity, Social exchange theory

SKILLS GAPS IN THE LUXURY HOSPITALITY SECTOR: THE CASE OF TORONTO

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Abstract

Introduction and Literature: The luxury segment of the hospitality sector has been growing worldwide. Brands have been launched and the number of luxury hotels has increased, particularly for the leading hotel companies such as Marriott, Accor, or Hilton, which all invested in luxury in the past few months. One of the most common characteristics that differentiate luxury hotels from other hospitality establishments is the high level of personalized service (Kucukusta, Heung, & Hui, 2014). Indeed, luxury hospitality is about providing a unique experience for guests and this type of experience requires having employees who understand the luxury culture and who are trained at the highest level. Luxury hotels are not only competing for clients, but also for the best talents. However, the current pool of candidates in Canada for customer-facing and managerial positions within these establishments is limited. There is a well-documented hospitality labor gap in Canada (Tourism HR Canada, 2018), and in addition, there is growing anecdotal evidence that Toronto and Canada are lacking qualified professionals in the luxury sector, from hospitality to retail and investment services.

Luxury in hospitality has been the object of a number of studies focusing on luxury guests (e.g., Walls, Okumus, Wang, & Kwun, 2011), hotel managers (e.g., Presbury, Fitzgerald, & Chapman, 2005), or both (e.g., Lu, Berchoux, Marek, & Chen, 2015), but overall, it remains a relatively understudied topic in the literature. The purpose of this study is to identify the needs of luxury hospitality establishments with regards to training and hiring qualified staff. More specifically, the study investigates the needs these establishments have when looking to hire qualified staff.

Methods: The study, based on an inductive approach, relies on primary data from in-depth semi-structured interviews that lasted from 30 to 70 minutes with eighteen hotel managers in Toronto. Interviews help researchers to achieve an understanding of the problem and give them the flexibility to manage the interview process with probing questions (Creswell, 2007). Luxury and upper upscale hotels located in Toronto were identified for interview recruitment, based on luxury hotel rankings in Toronto. Luxury hotel managers, directors, and executives were contacted online through email with an introductory message from the recruiter, where they were told the purpose of the study. The researchers were able to interview 18 luxury hotel managers and directors from a combination of nine hotels.

Results: Respondents agree about the skills that are required from their employees for the brands to succeed in the luxury market. The majority said that personalized service excellence is an integral component of what separates luxury from other sectors of the hospitality industry. However, they lament the lack of qualified talents and the difficulty to train and retain qualified

collaborators. 75% of respondents addressed their difficulty hiring capable candidates for a range of departments, from entry-level to managerial roles, indicating that there is an overall shortage of luxury talent in the city. The most common gaps identified by respondents were the lack of emotional intelligence and creativity, which then inhibit their ability to provide high-touch personalized and anticipatory service.

Discussion and Implications: The results of the study support the (rare) extant literature that suggest the difficulty to hire and retain qualified employees in the luxury service sector. At the same time, all participants could name some form of a skills gap they had noticed within their property. Toronto's luxury sector is still developing; however, these luxury establishments can only provide higher service quality and increase customer satisfaction in this growing market if they find and further train the necessary talent. This remains a challenge today, but the implications of this study may help bring this issue to the forefront of educational institutions and industry.

Keywords: Luxury, hospitality, skills gaps, human resources, hospitality, Toronto

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DIFFERENCES IN HOTELS' RATE FENCES: A COMPARISON FROM ONLINE TRAVEL AGENTS AND HOTELS' WEBSITES

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Abstract

Following the adoption of yield (or revenue) management practices into the hotel industry in the 1980s (Kimes, 2003; 1989), demand-based pricing has become popular and prevalent as one of the effective strategies for maximizing room revenue (Steed and Gu, 2004; Kimes and Chase, 1998). Consequently, the application of rate restrictions for market segmentation has become popular and widespread among hotels and Online Travel Agents (OTAs). In the application of demand-based pricing, hotels are usually guided by the economic principle behind price discrimination which stipulates that customers with higher willingness and ability to pay (or equivalently customers with lower price sensitivity or elasticity) should be charged higher price for the same product than their counterparts with lower willingness and ability to pay (i.e. price-sensitive customers). Going by this principle, an obvious challenge that confronts hotels in the practice of demand-based pricing is how to divide their market into different segments (i.e. groups of consumers within a broader market who possess a common set of characteristics (Besanko, Danrove and Shanley, 1996) and maintain the various segments intact without customers from the high-price end of the market leaking into the low-price end (Hanks, et al. 2002).

In dealing with the market segmentation challenge, the common practice has been to design and implement appropriate “fences” (or rate restrictions) which is defined as the “logical, rational rules or restrictions that are designed to allow customers to segment themselves into appropriate rate categories base on their needs, behaviour, or willingness to pay” (Hanks, Cross and Noland, 1992, p.98). Typical examples of fences adopted by the hotels include advance reservation, advance purchase and non-refundability (Denizci Guillet, Law and Xiao, 2013; Kimes and Wirtz, 2003). In spite of the strategic importance of rate fences as a differentiation and segmentation tool, the choice of particular rate restrictions by hotels and OTAs are neither consistent across different channels nor even uniform across different hotel segments. These inconsistencies can be a source of confusion to industry players if not well-understood and therefore obviate the strategic importance of fences in revenue management pricing.

In order to contribute towards a better understanding of which rate restrictions are applied on which channels by which hotels, this study sought to address the following research questions: a) Are there any differences in the fences applied by OTAs and hotels? b) Can hotels be segmented on the basis of fences they apply? c) What discernible characteristics of hotels are related to the fences they select? d) What are the implications for competition or differentiation that can be drawn from the various fences hotels and OTAs choose to apply online? Data to address these objectives were collected from the Internet websites’ of Hong Kong hotels and OTAs with significant operations in the Hong Kong hotel market. Multiple Correspondence Analysis was used to provide a spatial map of hotels in Hong Kong based on the characteristics of their rate restrictions, followed by a two-stage cluster analyses to identify the various groupings of hotels within the market according to their rate restrictions.

THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES AS PREDICTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION AMONG HOTEL EMPLOYEES

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Abstract

This study aimed to deep the knowledge on the factors that influence job satisfaction in hotel employees. To achieve this purpose, it was developed and tested an empirical model that examined the role of two organizational variables (organizational support and organizational health) and two personal characteristics (creative personality and positive psychological capital) on job satisfaction. Data were collected from 504 hotel employees working in 18 hotels of 4 and 5 stars in the Algarve region, the most important tourism destination in Portugal. Using structural equation modelling with latent variables, the obtained results showed that the perceptions of organizational health were the most important predictor of satisfaction. Organizational health was also a predictor of psychological capital, which, in turn, significantly explained job satisfaction. However, creative personality was not significantly associated with job satisfaction. These results suggest guidelines for human resources managers in the hospitality industry.

Keywords: Hospitality Job satisfaction, Organizational determinants, Personal determinants, Structural equation modelling, Human resources management

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON EXPATRIATION IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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Abstract

The overall purpose of this paper was to build upon previous research of expatriation in the hospitality industry in order to identify the current gaps and provide directions for future research. The study investigated published expatriation articles in the hospitality journals throughout a twenty-five year period; from 1990-2015. The following research questions were posted:

1. What are the dominant expatriation research topics that have been investigated?
2. What are the main research methods used in these studies?
3. What are the dominant regions where these studies have been conducted?
4. What are the current gaps in the hospitality expatriation literature?
5. What are the main directions for future research of expatriation?

The methodology employed in the current study included systematic review, meta-evaluation, and content analysis. Journal articles were identified by a computerized bibliographic search. Three online databases including *Google Scholars*, *Science Direct*, and *Emerald Insight* were searched. The articles involved in the study were exclusively chosen from peer reviewed journals, which have been accessed with guidance from the hospitality journals ranking literature. Based on the selection criteria established by the researchers, a total number of 20 articles dated from 1990 to 2015 were found. Each relevant paper was analyzed in terms of the research focus, publication year, the methodology used and the regional focus. In addition, content analysis was used to reveal the potential gaps in the literature that have yet to be delineated.

Our analysis reported that most of the previous research on expatriation was confined with cultural differences related topics. Others included expatriates adjustment, psychological and subjective well-being, coping strategies, and a much smaller number of studies examined culture shock, intercultural learning and competence, success and performance. Furthermore, empirical and

conceptual approaches were adopted as a methodological classification criteria, of the 20 articles we reviewed; sixteen were empirical and the other four were conceptual. Nine of the empirical studies were quantitative, while six adopted qualitative methods, one article used mixed methods. In terms of the region of the study, China was found to be the dominant country where most of the studies were conducted, followed by the United States, United Kingdom, Russia and Jamaica. Four gaps in the existent literature were found; (1) Repatriation to the home country, (2) Expatriation career management. (3) Expatriate's spouse and family issues. (4) Female expatriation. The directions of future research were mapped in the previous literature which is heavily focused on China and the potential expansion opportunities for international hospitality organizations in the country.

Finally, our overview of the expatriation-related research in the hospitality journals showed a comprehensive picture of the accomplishments and highlighted the potential future trends in this area. The research topics are predicted to become more diversified, and cultural-related issues are anticipated to continue as popular subjects in the near future.

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ROLE OF RELIGIOSITY AND RELIGIOUS VALUES ON HOTEL GUESTS' PRO-ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOUR

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Abstract

Consumers are now expecting the hotels to be green due to the environmental reparation such as carbon emission, excessive consumption of water and energy associated with hotels (Verma, Chandra and Kumar, 2019). Moreover, promoting sustainable pro- environmental behaviour has become a priority for hoteliers due to the rise in the amount of wastage that hotels generate per guest per night (Styles et al., 2013). Thus, for hoteliers, it has become extremely important to determine the ways through which they can engage tourists to become active players in adapting sustainable behaviours such as recycling (Warren et al., 2016).

One key way to influence consumers to engage in such pro-environmental behaviour is activating consumer values, it has been found that personal values has the ability to regulate consumer ecological responsible behaviours and can promote consumer engagement in pro-environmental behaviour (Diez & Ster, 1995; Pinto et al., 2011). However, these studies have largely focused on the effect of values such as egoistic, Biosphere and altruistic values and have ignored the effect of religious values in influencing pro-environmental behaviour among hotel guests. However, it has been found that religiosity is a significant predictor of consumer engagement in pro-environmental behaviour. For example, Felix and Braunsberger (2016) found that religiosity influence the pro-environmental behaviour among Mexican Catholic consumers. Rice (2006) on the other hand found that religiosity has a significant influence on Muslim consumers' engagement in pro-environmental behaviour.

From a methodological perspective, research that investigate key drivers behind tourists' pro-environmental behaviour has mostly used self-reported past behaviour or used purchase intention as the key outcome variable of interest (Cvelbar et al., 2017). However, the key limitation associated with these research is that, despite of the positive attitude towards sustainable/pro-environmental consumption practices, very few consumers actually act accordingly (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2014). Hence, studies that have focused on actual behaviour tend to be limited (Dolnicar et al., 2017; Cvelbar et al., 2017). Therefore, there is a need for studies that measure actual pro-environmental behaviour such as recycling, picking up litter or re-using towels or similar (Juvan & Dolnicar, 2016).

To fill these voids, building on the concept of religious priming (Ritter & Preston, 2013); which suggests that religiosity activated through different religious priming (e.g. agent, spiritual and institutional level) has the ability to influence pro-social behaviour, this study seeks to investigate the effect of religiosity and religious values on hotel guests' participation in recycling behaviour focusing on Muslim consumers. The data for the study will be gathered via two experimental studies. Study 1 will involve a field study that measures the actual recycling behaviour of hotel guests in a real setting than measuring stated intentions that may suffer from self-response biases (Dolnicar et al., 2017). Study 2 will involve a laboratory study that investigates the effect of religiosity and religious values (through religious priming) influence recycling intentions. It is expected that the findings of this study will significantly contribute to the body of knowledge of literature on sustainable tourism, pro-environmental behaviour and religious tourism.

Keywords: Pro-Environmental Behaviour; Religiosity; Religious Values; Hotel Guests; Experiments

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THE ROLE OF MULTILEVELED KNOWLEDGE, ACTORS AND ACTIVITIES IN INNOVATION NETWORKS

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Abstract

Networks can facilitate for firm innovation, but they have to be able to focus their attention on a common vision and create relevant activities for its members in order to achieve this. Networks often organise their innovation activities as projects, both to insure progress and in order to apply for financial support. There are many different ways to organise such projects and they are usually linked to several different organisational levels i.e. the network level, the firm level and sometimes other levels as e.g. the destination level or other sub groups within the network. The different levels can be linked in a number of ways and one can assume that the interplay between these levels may affect both the networks and projects result. Even though there have been much research on networks development and results, there is still a lack of research on what actually happens between the network level and the firm level in (networked) innovation projects (D'Andreta, 2016).

The paper aims to extend the understanding of the interplay between the different levels that are linked to the process of carrying out an innovation project in a network and particularly how knowledge, actors and activities are involved in such interplay. The practice-based approach is suggested as lenses in order to better grasp the reality of what actually happens (Clegg, et al., 2018). The research question investigated are: What are the role of multileveled knowledge, actors and network activities in successful (networked) innovation projects?

The paper builds on the existing practice-based perspectives on knowing, innovation and networking. Boundary-spanners (see e.g. Newell et al., 2009) have an important role in innovative networks, as they are able to manage relationships across internal interfaces and enables knowledge spillover from one group to another. Gaining access to global knowledge can however be difficult for small firms but networks may create such global pipelines for firms and innovations (see e.g Bathelt et al., 2004).

An empirically qualitative spiral case study (Gherardi, 2006) is used to explore the research question. The innovation cases will be analysed from different levels as the firm-, network- and industry level. The study is conducted in the context of one regional innovation network, innovation projects are subcases. Interviews and documents makes up the study's data material. The paper contribute to new knowledge about network driven innovation, and to multi-levelled innovations within that. The network level seems to have a particular important role in order to create global pipelines and the boundary spanners enables effective knowledge spillover to the firm and project level. The findings shows how actors can operate at different levels in the network at different times and that they can change roles as the network develops. Innovations can be linked at different levels as an innovation project may operate on different levels or by projects

being linked to each other thematically. There is also a multilevel link between innovations and other network activities.

INTERNAL SERVICE QUALITY PERCEPTIONS: NATIONAL CULTURE INFLUENCES
IN GHANA

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Abstract

The role of national culture has an important role to play in internal service quality practices and its effects, for example, on employee retention and productivity which ultimately affects service delivery levels. In addition, there have been calls to increasingly conduct empirical work in developing countries such as Sub Saharan Africa with burgeoning populations, a region that possesses distinct cultural traits from the Western world that may influence employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment and ultimately service quality delivery.

The focal point of this research was to critically examine the central role national culture has on internal service dynamics with respect to employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in small indigenous hospitality enterprises in Ghana. A purposive case selection approach comprising of hotels with no more than 10 employees or 20 rooms located in the Greater Accra region of Ghana and managed by Ghanaians. A qualitative multiple case study strategy was employed consisting of four small hotels was used for an in-depth semi-structured interview for data collection involving 20 employees. A within-case and cross-case approach was conducted using thematic analyses which went through peer verification.

Empirical data revealed that the case employees' satisfaction and commitment were influenced by Ghanaian cultural values. It is imperative that firms committed to the development of a strong service culture must recognise the critical role national culture plays in shaping employees' behaviour as internal customers.

Keywords: Culture, hospitality, job-satisfaction, organizational-commitment, service, quality

CULTURAL TOURISM: CULTURAL PRESENTATION AT THE BASOTHO CULTURAL VILLAGE, FREE STATE, SOUTH AFRICA

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Abstract

South Africa is a unique country with a melting pot of miscellaneous cultures. Many of these cultures have been preserved and displayed in the form of cultural villages. The notion of cultural villages is that, they can be regarded as part of cultural tourism particularly from a rural context (Saarinen, 2007, p. 139). Cultural tourism is not a new phenomenon, for long people have been accustomed to travelling in quest for new experiences from different cultures (Richards & Munsters, 2010, p. 1). In the last decades, there has been a rapid growth of cultural tourism and this can be seen in the demand for trips to cultural attractions such as cultural villages. To sustain these cultural villages, it is important to invest in a market-based and product-based empirical research. This study therefore, investigates the visitor's responses to the overall experience and the cultural presentation at Basotho Cultural Village, Free State, South Africa.

The population of the study was domestic and international tourists visiting the village. Data was gathered from 305 tourists by means of a self-administered questionnaire, after permission from the head of heritage and museum at the Free State Department of Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation was obtained. The questionnaire was influenced by the literature, particularly from similar studies conducted by Zeppel (2002) at the Cowichan Native Village and Moscardo & Pearce (1999, p. 421) at the Tjapukai Aboriginal Cultural Park. The results gathered provides the visitor's demographic profile, the visitor's experience and the overall satisfaction with the cultural presentation at the village.

The village is a drawcard for both local (n=251) and international tourists (n=54) who sees the cultural experience at the village as extremely important. The results indicate the high level of satisfaction with the overall experience as (90.2%) of the visitors were satisfied. The study also reveals that visitors love to engage in the form of tasting food and also engaging with the staff at the village. Today museums serve multiple functions, other than observation, museums now focus on research, creation, educating visitors and research. "They have gradually acquired visitor-based roles instead of museum based roles" (Sheng & Chen, 2012, p. 53). The study also shows that there are concerns over the service, facilities and staff portrayal of genuine Basotho culture at the village and these are some of the most important tangible and intangible elements of a cultural experience, particularly the authenticity of the cultural presentation.

Authenticity as a cultural experience is extremely important. Further research on staff

involvement in visitor experiences, understanding of authenticity and visitor engagement may be necessary. The management of the village should invest in educating the village staff from receptionists to tourguides on authentic cultural display and service. Yang (2011, p. 564) explains that employees epitomise their cultures and represent them, while tourists receive and interpret cultures represented. The study highlights critical aspects of visitor experience at the village for the management and destination marketing organisations (DMO's).

Keywords: Culture; Cultural Tourist; Cultural Tourism; Cultural Village; South Africa, Tourism

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HOW OFTEN DO YOU TRAVEL? THE IMPACT OF TRAVEL FREQUENCY ON TOURIST'S WILLINGNESS TO PAY

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Abstract

Dynamic pricing has become the norm in the hospitality industry. Operators consider several factors to set the most profitable rates. However, adapting prices to meet customers' valuations is a moot point. Customers' willingness to pay (WTP) shapes the effectiveness of pricing strategies. In this domain, customer prior knowledge and reference price play a critical role.

Drawing on a psychological model of price formation, this study focuses on travel frequency, an indicator of customer prior knowledge. Customer prior knowledge has an influence on price acceptability. According to this claim, this study leverages a mediation model that integrates the concept of internal reference price (IRP). Specifically, the study proposes a mediating effect of IRP on the relationship between travel frequency and customers' willingness to pay.

The empirical validation is based on an online survey (n=551). The study presents a novel methodological approach introducing the concept of instantaneous indirect effect. First, multiple regression analysis tests the linear and quadratic effects. Second, the study analyses the instantaneous indirect effect of IRP. Results offer support for an inverted U-shaped relationship between travel frequency and WTP, mediated by the IRP. Travel frequency has a positive effect on WTP until a threshold, after which the relationship becomes negative. Customers who have traveled between 4 and 7 times in the past two-years period would be willing to accept higher prices. Operators in the hospitality industry should integrate customers' travel frequency into dynamic pricing models. Such integration would contribute to a better alignment of room rates with customers' WTP.

Keywords: Willingness to pay, travel frequency, reference price, dynamic pricing, behavioural price research

ANALYSIS OF GUEST MOTIVATIONS TO STAY IN BOUTIQUE HOTELS IN JEDDAH, SAUDI ARABIA

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Abstract

The boutique hotel phenomenon is around since 80's and the term is widely used with very little conclusive description. However, few of the characteristics, usually contradicting with each other, are out there, such as; they can be independent or linked to a major hotel corporations, can be small simple hotels, or large luxury resorts, elementary or modernistic design, particularly interior design. Also, they tend to provide a stress-free relaxing environment, a high level of personalized service, remarkable guest services (Horner & Swarbrooke, 2004). The rapid growth in boutique hotels reflects the fact that the industry professionals believe they will be an important part of the future hotel market.

Although, the interesting premises of the boutique hotels have been attracting increasing number of people globally, they are comparatively less popular, if not unknown in Saudi Arabia. Even though, Saudi hospitality industry has been growing and forecasted to continue growing around 13.5% per annum to 2022 (Saudi Gazette, 2018). Most of this growth is and expected to be in luxury hotels (Arab News, 2018). Moreover, the difficulty of defining the boutique hotels makes it difficult to find official statistics on the number of boutique hotels. Mostly hotels are described as hotels with stars (not mentioned if they are boutique or not) or apart hotels. However, according to TripAdvisor (2019) there are only 71 hotels categorized as boutique hotels in Saudi Arabia. Keeping these in mind, as an exploratory study this paper aims to identify Saudi's perception toward boutique hotels in general and finding out what do they think about the boutique hotel attributes in particular. The respondents will be selected from those guests who actually accommodated in boutique hotels in Jeddah. The present study will utilize the scale developed by Khosravi, Malek and Ekiz (2014) containing 17 items grouped under six dimensions (namely; special services, hotel facilities, price, location, hotel design and image). From findings of this research recommendations will be provided to current hotel operators and those wishing and willing to enter the market as well as to the government officials to better understand and handle this particular hotel segment.

Keywords: Boutique Hotels, Exploratory Study, Hotel Attributes, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECTS OF JOINT ADVERTISING ON TOURISTS' BEHAVIOR

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Abstract

Despite numerous studies investigating the effectiveness of advertising on consumer decision-making, there is a dearth of research on the effect of joint advertising on consumer decision-making tourism (McKinney, Hazeldine, and Chawla, 2009; Park and Nicolau, 2015; Pisierra, McKinney and Chawla, 1999). Joint advertising which can be defined as appearing of at least two brands on the same advertising is becoming more salient, not only for Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), but also for places who want to attract visitors and remain competitive (Pisierra, McKinney and Chawla, 1999). Accordingly, the aim of this research is to investigate the effect of joint advertising on tourists' decision making.

Joint advertising is proposed as having a positive effect on willingness to travel or make a recommendation. We expect boundary conditions for this effect. Consumer brand knowledge influences consumers' responses (i.e. behaviour) (Kim and Lee, 2018) to brand marketing activity (Keller, 2003). Besides, the higher involvement in a tourism product/service boosts the likelihood of the tourist's loyalty towards it (Chua, Lee and Han, 2017; Han and Hyun, 2018).

Self-congruence can be activated and evoked to influence purchase intentions and attitudes of consumers through the promotional messages in advertisements (Graeff, 1996). The greater degree of match between self-congruence and destination image leads to a higher probability of revisiting or spreading positive word of mouth about a particular tourism destination due to tourists' symbolic characteristics of tourism destination brands (Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado, 2013). Thus, it is expected that the greater match between consumers' self-congruence and the image projected in a joint advertisement, the greater effect of such an advertisement on the tourist's loyalty. Accordingly, the research model also suggests that the effect of joint advertising on the tourist's loyalty is mediated by self-congruence.

The data for this research consists of two experiments - a field experiment and an online experiment - as these allow the researchers to test cause and effect hypotheses, unlike correlational studies (Mitchell and Jolley, 2007). Moreover, adopting a field experiment in marketing is effective to show actual behaviour in the context being investigated (Gneezy, 2017). The first experiment was conducted on the Google Display Network by showing a real single brand advertisement and a joint advertisement to consumers in a real environment in the period

from the 4th October 2018 to the 18th February 2019. The number of viewers for each advertisement, for this experiment, was 60,652 people who use Internet in the UK. Display advertisements have been randomly shown on websites on a 300x250 pixel formats. The key finding of the first experiment is that joint advertising is more effective than single brand advertising in terms of influencing tourists' decision making process. There is a significant relationship between joint advertising and tourists' intention to travel ($p < 0.05$). As a practical outcome of the study, it is anticipated that joint advertising can be used for image building by tour operators and DMOs. Also, symbolic impression of a brand can be conveyed through joint advertisements to modify or enhance the image of a product. To explain the reason behind this relation, self-congruence, brand involvement, and product involvement should be incorporated into the research model. The second experiment will examine the mediating effect of self-congruence and moderator effects of brand awareness and product involvement on the relationship between joint advertising and tourist loyalty.

This research will contribute to the literature in a number of ways. Firstly, this research brings an innovative approach with its proposed conceptual model that can be applied to predict the mediating effect of self-congruence and moderating effects of product involvement and brand awareness on the relationship between joint advertising and the tourist's loyalty. Secondly, a critical review of the literature on this topic will contribute to the hitherto limited research and the practice of joint advertising in the tourism industry. Thirdly, this research will develop understanding of tour operators and destination managers on how they can get maximum benefits from joint advertising to increase the tourists' intention to visit or recommendation.

Keywords: Joint advertising, self-congruence, brand awareness, product involvement, the tourist's loyalty

VISITORS' PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY USING PRIOR ATTENDANCE AND PROXIMITY
AS PRECURSORS: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE OSUN OSOGBO CULTURAL
FESTIVAL (2013-2017)

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Abstract

Local events and community festivals provide ample opportunities for locals and visitors to mingle, potentially creating harmonious and affection bonds with one another. Such celebrations provide viable opportunities for residents to welcome tourists into their community as individuals come together with collective interests. Cultural festivals, in particular, provide a platform for communities to celebrate communal values, ideologies, and collective identity (Getz, 2008). With an ever-growing fear of human-induced disruptions at festivals and events throughout the globe, safety concerns are ever-present, from local to international venues. As individuals come together in a destination (i.e., those from within and those from outside), risks associated with crime arises. Perceptions of crime and risks vary from one person to the next and no individual or destination is totally immune. Visitors attending a festival where their perceived safety may be jeopardized will either stay away or remain hyper vigilant while in the destination. Perceived safety of residents and visitors alike is crucial for the success of the festival and the destination in particular. The purpose of this paper is in twofold: (1) to examine the level of perceived safety of visitors to Osogbo (the hosting city of the UNESCO-designated Osun Osogbo Sacred Grove World Heritage Site and Osun Cultural Festival occurs) in determining if significant differences exist based on attendance (first-time and repeat attendees) and proximity to the festival and (2) to compare the variations of differences within a five-year study period (2013-2017). Data for this study were collected from tourists at the annual Osun Osogbo Cultural Festival held at the ancient Osun Grove) between 2013 and 2017. Using a systematic sampling strategy with a random start, visitors were intercepted at the Grove and other key tourist locations scattered within the town. In response to the research questions, this study adopted the six-item perceived safety scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree (George, 2010) with other travel behavior measures such as attendance and proximity to the destination. To address the focus of this paper, repeat and first-time visitor and their proximity to the festival were used as antecedents to determine visitors' perceptions of safety. A regression analysis was conducted using SPSS 21 and significant relationships were found among the constructs. Theoretical and practical implications are described and directions for future research are discussed.

INTEGRATING TRAVEL CONSTRAINTS AS SECOND-ORDER FACTOR IN A VISITOR
SATISFACTION, IMAGE AND LOYALTY MODEL: THE MODERATING ROLE OF
VISITOR MOTIVATION

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Abstract

Providing satisfying experience for tourists is paramount since it can increase destination image and satisfaction, both leading to re-visitation and positive word-of-mouth about the destination. In this sense, this study conceptualise travel constraint as a second order-factor and discuss its influence on visitor satisfaction, image, and destination loyalty by testing a moderated mediation model, using motivation as moderator variable. However, the importance of travel constraints tends to be overlooked, although it also plays an important role in influencing tourists' future behaviour. This study focused on Chinese tourists who (re)visited South Korea despite the travel constraints occurring after the announcement to deploy terminal high altitude area defence (THAAD) missile in South Korea, which provoked the reduction in Chinese tourists' arrivals. With that said, the aim of this study is to understand whether the effect of travel constraints (intrapersonal constraint, interpersonal constraint, structural constraint and political constraint) on destination loyalty is influenced by satisfaction and image and whether it varies at different levels (high, low and average) of Chinese tourists' motivation to revisit South Korea. To test the proposed model, data were collected from 400 Chinese tourists in the Incheon International Airport (South Korea) in June 2018. By using structural equation modelling, results shows that

the travel constraint work better as a second-order model both theoretically and empirically. The results showed that the four dimensions of travel constraints as a second-order model demonstrated better results than when analysed as first-order constructs. After testing the second-order model, the results showed that travel constraints negatively influence visitors' satisfaction and destination loyalty. However, the effect of travel constraints on destination image was found to be insignificant. The influence of destination image on both satisfaction and destination loyalty was significant and positive; and the effect of satisfaction also influence positively destination loyalty. Lastly, the indirect effects of travel constraints on destination loyalty via image and satisfaction was measured using the mediation and moderation analysis through PROCESS macro. Satisfaction mediated the negative effects of travel constraints on destination loyalty and positive effects of image on destination loyalty. Thus, the mediated effect of satisfaction moderated by motivation reduced the negative effect of travel constraints on destination loyalty. Finally, the effect of image on destination loyalty via satisfaction was significant and stronger when motivation to visit South Korea is high. In doing so, this study demonstrated that travel constraints is best represented as a second-order factor. In this sense, this study provides an improved measurement of the construct. Moreover, by integrating the variable in a nomological network, this study offers a more parsimonious model than the existing ones.

Keywords: Travel constraints, satisfaction, image, motivation, destination loyalty

EXPLORING THE VALUE OF INTERNSHIP IN THE AVIATION INDUSTRY BY MEANS-END CHAINS APPROACH

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Abstract

With only classroom learning and no hands-on experience, students may encounter many adaptive problems in the employment market, as well as future workplaces. Students must bear high training costs in an effort to enhance their core strengths through student employment. The business aspects of such training can also reduce labor costs, thereby achieving a win-win situation. Such education has become a practice after graduation, and social connectedness plays an important part.

Based on the methodological chain theory of the means-end chains, this study used qualitative research methods to allow the respondents to recall the process and experience of their internships in the aviation industry. One-on-one in-depth interviews were conducted to gradually guide the respondents in exploring the inner truths and understand the final values of their internship experiences.

This study concluded that the four most important attributes were: participation in the internship, aviation industry expectation, aviation industry's high threshold, and learning professional knowledge. The two most important outcomes were enhancement of skills and attitude change. The two most important values of changing and enriching knowledge were self-growth and perceived of accomplishment. The most important of these was the aviation industry's high threshold - enhancement of skills - self-growth. Consequently, the students believed that internships in the aviation industry could improve their skills and promote self-growth. In addition, most of the students said that the salary and benefits in the aviation industry were quite favorable; therefore, they wanted to return to the aviation industry after graduation. The results of this study could be provided to universities to develop the basis for an aviation industry internship program.

Keywords: Internship, Aviation industry, Means-end chain, Value connotation

RESIDENTS' ATTITUDES ABOUT TOURISM AS A PRECURSOR TO THEIR QUALITY OF LIFE: A MODERATION ANALYSIS

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Abstract

Studies on residents' attitudes to tourism and tourism development have dominated the literature in the last few decades (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2007; Nunkoo & So, 2016). It is one of "the most systematic and well-studied areas of tourism" (McGehee & Andereck, 2004, p.232). Locals perceive several positive and negative impacts from tourism development which reflects on their attitudes towards it. Positively, the industry provides economic benefits such as employment for locals, development of small businesses, and investment opportunities (Kim, Uysal & Sirgy, 2013; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Tourism leads to the preservation of environmental resources, promotion of environmental awareness, and the revival of local arts and culture (Kim et al., 2013). Negatively, tourism brings environmental pollution, traffic congestion, and litter problems (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013), as well as the potential for rapidly modified culture and the creation of inflationary pressures on local economies (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Successful tourism development involves balancing relationships among residents, tourists, places, and the organization and businesses that provide tourism services (Zang & Jackson, 2006). Tourism development has been recognized to potentially influence the lives of community residents (Su et al., 2018). A number of studies have explored the effects of tourism on quality of life (QOL) (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Aref, 2011; Khizindar, 2012). In examining the relationship between community characteristics and QOL, community safety, social environment, and community involvement were found to influence residents' QOL (Perdue et al., 1999). On the other hand, negative impacts could contribute to reducing residents' QOL (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim et al., 2013), such as negative environmental impacts resulting in a decreased sense of health and safety (Kim et al., 2013). Therefore, the purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to understand the concepts resident attitudes to tourism development using non-economic outcomes such as QOL, level of support or opposition and trust in government in determining their perspectives; and (2) to determine the moderating effects of age, gender, and length of residency on the outcomes. This survey was carried out among residents of three counties comprising Orlando, Florida (Orange, Osceola, Seminole)—which is home to the most visited destination within the United States. Using a multi-stage sampling method, residents were asked to complete a self-administered questionnaire. Overall, 415 residents completed the questionnaire (with an effective response rate of 66.4%). Residents' quality of life was used as the dependent variable to test the effects of their support for/opposition of tourism regulations and trust in government. SPSS 22 was used to test main and moderating effects. The reliability and factor means of the construct was highly acceptable.

Following the CFA, a structural path model was assessed, residents' QOL significantly predicted their level of support and opposition for the regulation of tourism ($F = 33.03, p < 0.001; R^2 = 0.14$) and their trust in government ($F = 22.96, p < 0.001; R^2 = 0.15$). Gender, age, and length of residency have no significant moderating effects on the constructs. Consistent with other studies, the results of this study indicate that tourism development has great potential to influence the lives of community residents. More specifically, tourists' impacts are a major determinant of residents' QOL (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Su et al., 2018). Implications and limitations/future research opportunities will be discussed.

Keywords: Residents, Tourism impacts, Orlando, Quality of life, Resident attitudes

CURRENT FOOD WASTE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF EXECUTIVE CHEFS: A
CASE STUDY OF A HOTEL GROUP IN GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA

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Abstract

The hospitality industry generates substantial amounts of food waste. Although the issue has been acknowledged, it remains under-researched. Food waste studies in the hospitality sector are limited in number and restricted largely to solid waste and are frequently specific to first world contexts. These studies have attempted to quantify and characterise food waste in a hospitality context but few have explored the management practices of food waste. This study examined food waste management practice in a Gauteng hotel group's kitchens. A qualitative methodology, within a case study design, was undertaken across four different sites involved in managing food waste generated in hotel kitchens. The study made use of semi-structured face-to-face interviews with managerial staff, i.e. executive chefs. The results provided evidence that food waste management procedures are largely developed by the Group Executive Chef in accordance with various hotel policies i.e. corporate social responsibility, environmental, financial and human resources. The study showed that while there was evidence of policies and procedures informing food waste practices across all food-related areas from procurement to waste resolution, these appear to be inconsistently implemented and monitored. Based on findings, some policy-making and managerial recommendations on how to optimise food waste management practices in hotel kitchens are revealed. However to improve the effectiveness of food waste management practices and thereby decrease the amount of food waste currently generated within hotel kitchens nationally, the implementation and monitoring of food waste procedures need further investigation to inform best practice.

Keywords: Food waste practices, food waste policy, food waste procedures, executive chefs, South Africa

EFFECTS OF GENDER EQUALITY POLICY ON CAREER GROWTH FOR WOMEN IN FOOD AND BEVERAGE SECTOR

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Abstract

Purpose: This exploratory study is aimed at identifying and documenting career growth for women in hospitality industry focusing on the Food and Beverage sector. It will also focus on programs implemented in democratic South Africa. Programs of interest are those that seek to empower women in South Africa. The research seeks to obtain a better understanding of all challenges faced by women in the hospitality industry. The study will also highlight what different organizations are doing to ensure women empowerment in the workplace. Finally, it will help provide recommendations in the career growth of women in the Food and Beverage industry.

Design/methodology: The current study made use of a mixed method to do the collection of the data. A questionnaire survey was used to target women in the Food and Beverage sector. In addition to the employee survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted with HR managers of the hotels because they deal with the recruitment of the new staff.

Findings: The study shows that gender equality policies introduced in democratic South Africa has not brought any changes in the Food and Beverage sector. The women are still holding lower positions in the Food and Beverage sector; most women still hold waiter positions and men still dominated managerial positions. The study also shows that the government has not put enough measures in place to monitor the implementation of gender equality in the Hospitality industry.

Originality/value: Career growth challenges for women has always existed particularly in the Hospitality industry, however, with the birth of democracy in South Africa and the introduction of policies such as gender equality has raised hope for the women. This study has explored whether there has been progress in more women holding a managerial position with the help of the above mentioned policies. The study was focused on the Food and Beverage sector.

Keywords: Career growth, hospitality, gender equality, food and beverage operations, democracy

INTERNATIONAL RECOGNITION OF SOUTH AFRICAN FOOD BOOKS AND THE
DEVELOPMENT OF A CONTEMPORARY NATIONAL CULINARY IDENTITY

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Abstract

In any attempt to understand the contemporary identity of South African food, culinary texts provide an essential insight into the perceived shifts that have occurred. The act of culinary book publication is significant in itself, indicating a codification of culinary rules and a notion that there exists a market for such information or an audience to be influenced. This paper will argue that the evolution of audience of South African culinary texts in the form of published food and cookbooks, marks a critical point in the development of national cuisine and that the specialization and ramification of texts has much to tell about the character of national, regional, and ethnic identities. This study tracks the South African culinary texts submitted for consideration to the Gourmand Awards list 1995-2018. The findings revealed during this significant post-apartheid period that the type of culinary texts being submitted for review had indeed shifted in both focus and author profile. The significance of these findings not only indicates a definite change in response to social and political development through emerging culinary texts but it also highlights an evolving narrative of how a national cuisine is being constructed.

Keywords: South African national cuisine, culinary texts, cookbooks

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ON THE BRAND
PERSONALITY, SELF-CONGRUITY AND TOURIST LOYALTY: THE MODERATOR
ROLE OF TOURIST EMOTIONAL EXPERIENCE

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Abstract

The loyalty of tourist has been a recurring theme in the field of tourism destination and has been studied for over two decades (Dimanche & Haviz, 1994). If the tourists' experience at a destination is understood as a product, their level of loyalty can be reflected in their behavioral intention to revisit the same destination (Oppermann, 2000). In tourism literature a coherent body of research recognizes the construct of revisit intention that has been empirically tested in theoretical model. For instance, modelling antecedents of brand personality (Ekinici, & Hosany 2006; KILICcedil, & Sop 2012; Chen, & Phou 2013), self-congruity (Uşaklı, & Baloglu 2011; Edina, & Beykan, 2016; Yang, Isa, & Ramayah, 2019) and tourist loyalty (intention to revisit) (Uşaklı, & Baloglu 2011; Apostolopoulou, & Papadimitriou, 2015) remained a widespread research agenda in tourism. However, above these studies have omitted to examine these relationships between brand personality, self-congruity and tourist loyalty by enhancing any new single variables into the theoretical framework. Another variable which is likely to be a crucial predictor of tourist behavioral loyalty is tourist emotional experience. Empirical evidence confirmed that tourist emotional experience (joy, love, and positive surprise) was the most significantly associated with tourist loyalty (Prayag, Hosany, & Odeh, 2013).

Underlying theories are involved in this study including theory of self-congruity and theory of psychoevolutionary which are umbrella terms which cover brand personality, self-congruity, tourist emotional experience and tourist loyalty. First, Sirgy (1982) explains that self-congruity theory reinforces the idea that consumer perceptions, or leanings, in favour of certain items are achieved by means of a match between the product idea/image and the consumer's self-perception.

In tourism context, theory of self-congruity suggests tourist is more likely to visit/revisit a destination whose image is consistent with their self-concept (Beerli, Meneses, Gil, 2007). Therefore, the proposed relationship between brand personality and self-congruity and tourist loyalty might provide validity in tourism context. Second, in psychology discipline Plutchik (1980) defined psychoevolutionary theory on the basis of eight basic emotional dimensions such as fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, expectancy (anticipation), and surprise. Furthermore, emotions based on dimensional approaches are conceptualized by applying a few dimensions such as positive and negative (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), or pleasure and arousal (Russell, 1980; Walsh et al., 2011). However, it has been noted that existing emotion scales tend to ignore the complexity of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 1998) that are commonly related to travel experiences (Nawijn et al., 2013). Therefore, in this conceptual paper we applied destination emotion scale (DES) which was developed by Hosany and Gilbert (2010) in order to provide a valid measurement on the complexity of tourists' emotional experience which involves three main dimensions, namely joy, love, and positive surprise. It should be understood that positive emotions tend to be more pervasive in tourist recalled experiences. Positive emotional is an important precursor that might encourage tourist loyalty.

Drawn from theory of self-congruity and theory of psychoevolutionary, this conceptual paper is to propose an integrated theoretical model on brand personality, self-congruity, tourist emotional experience and tourist loyalty. Extant literature on model of self-congruity found that there is a weak relationship between self-congruity and tourist loyalty (Giraldi, 2013; Rutelione, Hopenienė, & Žalimienė, 2018). This leaves a gap which can call for an exploration of other potential moderators to strengthen and support the relationship between self-congruity and tourist loyalty. To address this problem, the primary purpose of the current conceptual paper is to propose tourist emotional experience as the moderator which is capable of strengthening and supporting the relationship between self-congruity and tourist loyalty. In sum, it is hoped that this proposed theoretical framework can help destination marketing organizations (DMOs) and operators to develop a comprehensive understanding of degree of tourist loyalty towards tourism destinations. Moreover, it is expected that the proposed associations between the theory of self-congruity and theory of psychoevolutionary would enable the assessment of the interrelationship between these variables, which might then lead to the successful integration of a theoretical model.

Keywords: Tourist emotional experience, brand personality, self-congruity, tourist loyalty

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Abstract

Although studies suggest the influences a regional trading bloc may bring specifically to tourism development of a member country, however, there still exists a need for research that provides further validation from the perspective of country members' operators on this phenomenon. This study has developed a model to examine how membership of a regional trading bloc influences tourism development of a member country, in this case, Zimbabwe within the context of Southern African Development Community (SADC). The model was tested using a sample of 367 respondents of the Zimbabwean tourism industry. Perceptions of the Customs Union arising from SADC membership were found to direct respondents' perceptions of SADC economic, socio-cultural and environmental benefits to tourism and overall influence on tourism development in Zimbabwe. The study contributes to theoretical understanding of how a regional trading bloc influences tourism development of a member country. The implications for tourism practitioners and academicians are discussed.

Keywords: Trading bloc; SADC; Tourism development, Customs union; Economic impacts