



ADVANCES IN
HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM
MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT
CONFERENCE (AHTMM)

Conference Proceedings

10 - 15 July 2017



WASHINGTON STATE
UNIVERSITY



Faculty of
Tourism

**Eastern
Mediterranean
University**

"For Your International Career"



Famagusta, North Cyprus

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

7th ADVANCES IN HOSPITALITY & TOURISM MARKETING & MANAGEMENT (AHTMM) CONFERENCE

10 – 15 July 2017

Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North
Cyprus

ISBN 978-0-9964244-2-4

Edited by
Ali Ozturen, Dogan Gursoy, & Hasan Kilic

Editorial Assistants
Georgiana Karadas, Setareh Shirkhani, and Ksenia Sumaneeva



ADVANCES IN
HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM
MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT
CONFERENCE (AHTMM)



WASHINGTON STATE
UNIVERSITY



Faculty of
Tourism | Eastern
Mediterranean
University
"For Your International Career"
<http://tourism.emu.edu.tr>

■ www.ahtmm.com

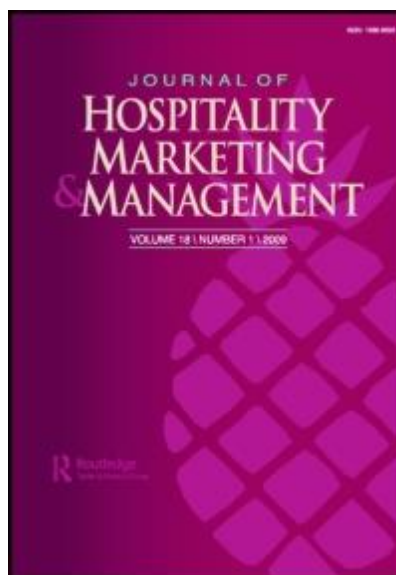
■ <http://ahtmm.emu.edu.tr>

Organizers



**Eastern
Mediterranean
University**

"For Your International Career"



CONFERENCE ORGANIZATION COMMITTEE

Prof. Dr. Hasan Kılıç (Chair of Organizing Committee & Conference Co-Chair)

Eastern Mediterranean University, Faculty of Tourism

E-Mail: hasan.kilic@emu.edu.tr

Prof. Dr. Doğan Gürsoy (Conference Co-Chair)

Washington State University, School of Hospitality Business Management

E-Mail: dgursoy@wsu.edu

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali Öztüren, Ph.D. (Secretary-General & Co-Chair of Organizing Committee)

Eastern Mediterranean University, Faculty of Tourism

E-Mail: ali.ozturen@emu.edu.tr

International Scientific Committee

Assist. Prof. Dr. Ozan Aksöz	Anadolu University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Semra Günay Aktaş	Anadolu University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Habib Alipour	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Levent Altınay	Oxford Brookes University, UK
Prof. Dr. Hüseyin Araslı	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Assist. Prof. Dr. Alev DüNDAR Arıkan	Anadolu University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. İrfan Arıkan	FH Krems University, Austria
Prof. Dr. Zeynep Aslan	Nevşehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Turgay Avcı	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Ozan Bahar	Mugla Sıtkı Koçman University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Billy Bai	University of Nevada Las Vegas, USA
Assist. Prof. Dr. Ali Bavik	Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Besim	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Kemal Birdir	Mersin University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Mark A. Bonn	Florida State University, USA
Assist. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin Bozdağlar	Girne American University, North Cyprus
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Thanh Huong Bui	Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan
Prof. Dr. Celil Cakıcı	Mersin University, Turkey
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ali Sukru Cetinkaya	Selcuk University, Turkey
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Brendan T. Chen	National Chin-Yi University of Technology, Taiwan
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Christina G. Chi	Washington State University, USA

Assist. Prof. Dr. Mustafa Daşkın	Sinop University, Turkey
Assist. Prof. Dr. Giacomo Del Chiappa	University of Sassari, Italy
Prof. Dr. Malcolm Cooper	Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan
Assoc. Prof. Dr. İlhan Dalcı	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Rachel Dodds	Ryerson University, Canada
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan H. Ekiz	King AbdulAziz University, Saudi Arabia
Assoc. Prof. Dr. İsmet Esenyel	TRNC Ministry of Tourism and Environment, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Sami Fethi	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ebru Güneren	Nevsehir Hacı Bektas Veli University, Turkey
Assist. Prof. Dr. Mine Haktanır	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Tadayuki Hara	University of Central Florida, USA
Prof. Dr. Kashif Hussain	UCSI University, Malaysia
Prof. Dr. Orhan İçöz	Yaşar University, Turkey
mag. Mirjana Ivanuša-Bezjak	Alma mater europaea, Slovenia
Prof. Dr. Osman M. Karatepe	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Salih Katircioğlu	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dae-Young Kim	University of Missouri, USA
Assist. Prof. Dr. Insin Kim	Pusan National University, South Korea
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Peter BeomCheol Kim	Auckland University of Technology, New Zealand
Prof. Dr. Desmond Lam	University of Macau, China
Prof. Dr. Timothy Lee	Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan
Dr. Insun Lee	University of South Australia, Australia
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Carol Yi Rong Lu	Chung Yuan Christian University, Taiwan
Assist. Prof. Dr. Lu Lu	Temple University, USA
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Thomas A. Maier	University of San Francisco, USA
Assist. Prof. Dr. İlkay Yorgancı Maloney	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Dr. Korstanje Maximiliano	Palermo University, Argentina
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Taketo Naoi	Tokyo Metropolitan University, Japan
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Robin Nunkoo	University of Mauritius, Mauritius
Prof. Dr. Takashi Oguchi	Rikkyo University, Japan
Dr. Alexandre Panosso	Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil

Dr. Li Pan	Zhejiang Normal University, China
Prof. Dr. Bruce Prideaux	James Cook University, Australia
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Haywantee Ramkissoon	Monash University, Australia
Dr. Bishnu Sharma	University of the Sunshine Coast, Australia
Prof. Dr. Alfonso Vargas Sanchez	Huelva University, Spain
Prof. Dr. Tülen Saner	Near East University, North Cyprus
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erkan Sezgin	Anadolu University, Turkey
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Gaunette Sinclair-Maragh	University of Technology, Jamaica
Prof. Dr. Cem Tanova	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Tümer	Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus
Prof. Dr. Özkan Tütüncü	Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Orhan Uludağ	Cyprus International University, North Cyprus
Assist. Prof. Dr. Tahir Yeşilada	European University of Lefke, North Cyprus
Assist. Prof. Dr. Hakan Yılmaz	Anadolu University, Turkey
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Medet Yolal	Anadolu University, Turkey
Assist. Prof. Dr. Deniz Karagöz Yüncü	Anadolu University, Turkey
Assist. Prof. Dr. Hilmi Rafet Yüncü	Anadolu University, Turkey
Prof. Dr. Chaozhi Zhang	Sun Yat-sen University, China
Prof. Dr. Meng Zhang	Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

Preface

On behalf of the organizing committee, we are pleased to welcome you to the —7th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference co-hosted by Eastern Mediterranean University and Washington State University. Following the success of the previous 6 Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference, the 7th conference is held in Famagusta, Northern Cyprus at Eastern Mediterranean University's International Convention Center between July 10 and July 15, 2017.

The goal of this scientific meeting is to provide an interactive forum for attendees from academia, industry, government, and other organizations to actively exchange, share, and challenge state-of-the-art research and industrial 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 both in Northern Cyprus and internationally. You will see presentations and papers that examine a wide range of topics such as marketing, management, consumer behavior, planning and development, issues related to sustainability and the use of technology, etc. We strongly believe that all these contents will significantly contribute to knowledge creation and dissemination pertaining to hospitality and tourism marketing and management among all conference attendees.

The organizing committee has spent countless hours to put this conference together. We would like to express our sincere gratitude and thanks to all the organizing committee members who graciously volunteered their time and effort to put this amazing conference together. We would also like to extend our appreciation and sincere gratitude to the international scientific committee members who worked to ensure the quality of the papers. Without the organizing committee and the help of international scientific committee, we could not have this conference.

On behalf of the organizing committee, we would like to welcome you again to the —7th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference. We hope that you will enjoy Cypriot hospitality while attending the conference and have an unforgettable and rewarding stay in Famagusta, Northern Cyprus.

Hasan Kılıç, Ph.D.
Eastern Mediterranean University
Chair of Organizing Committee &
Conference Co-Chair

Dogan Gursoy, Ph.D.
Washington State University
Conference Co-Chair

Ali Öztüren, Ph.D.
Eastern Mediterranean University
Secretary-General & Co-Chair of
Organizing Committee

Table of Contents

FULL PAPERS	13
PLEASE MIND THE GAP! (IN-) CONSISTENCY IN GAP YEAR VOLUNTEER TOURISM - FROM RITE OF PASSAGE TO (UNWANTED) COSMOPOLITANISM	14
<i>Noel B. Salazar and Julie Rausenberger</i>	<i>14</i>
CHARACTERISTICS AND WORK MOTIVATIONS OF GOREME TOURISM ENTREPRENEURS	34
<i>Emine Kale</i>	<i>34</i>
DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM MODEL FOR THE PHA WANG NAM KHIAO - PHA KHAO PHU LUANG FOREST RESERVE, THAILAND.....	46
<i>Sangsan Phumsathan</i>	<i>46</i>
<i>Sommai Udomwitid.....</i>	<i>46</i>
<i>Nantachai Pongpattananurak.....</i>	<i>46</i>
<i>Thitiwoot Chaisawataree</i>	<i>46</i>
<i>Waranan Tantiwat.....</i>	<i>46</i>
VIRTUAL REALITY IN TOURISM	59
<i>Slavomir Magál.....</i>	<i>59</i>
<i>Martin Slivka.....</i>	<i>59</i>
TOURISM DEMAND FOR MEXICO AND URUGUAY	73
<i>Gabriela Mordecki.....</i>	<i>73</i>
<i>Ana Leiva</i>	<i>73</i>
<i>Nathalie Desplas.....</i>	<i>73</i>
INTENTION OF YOUNG RUSSIAN TOURISTS TO VISIT COUNTRY-TARGET OF ANIMOSITY: THEORY- AND DATA-DRIVEN MODELS.....	87
<i>Svetlana Stepchenkova</i>	<i>87</i>
<i>Andrei Kirilenko.....</i>	<i>87</i>
<i>Elena Shichkova.....</i>	<i>87</i>
INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCE ON THE LOCAL COMMUNITIES' PERCEPTIONS OF EMOTIONS, TRUST, ATTACHMENT, AND SUPPORT FOR THE FIFA BRAZIL WORLD CUP	79
<i>Bishnu Sharma</i>	<i>79</i>
<i>Dogan Gursoy.....</i>	<i>79</i>
BARRIERS TO ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS (EMS): CASE OF 4 AND 5 STAR HOTELS IN ISTANBUL.....	93
<i>Ömer Çoban.....</i>	<i>93</i>
<i>S. Emre Dilek</i>	<i>93</i>
<i>Ecem Tezgel</i>	<i>93</i>
CLIMATE CHANGE AND TOURISM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER PUBLICATIONS	102
<i>Andrei Kirilenko.....</i>	<i>102</i>
<i>David (Shihan) Ma.....</i>	<i>102</i>
COMPONENTS OF PACKAGE TOUR QUALITY	113
<i>Gürel Çetin.....</i>	<i>113</i>
<i>Orhan Akova</i>	<i>113</i>
<i>Ozan Atsiz</i>	<i>113</i>
<i>Mehtap Balık.....</i>	<i>113</i>

THE LINK BETWEEN PERCEIVED CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, COMMITMENT TO THE TOURISM INDUSTRY AND WILLINGNESS TO RECOMMEND THE ORGANIZATION	120
<i>Erhan Boğan</i>	<i>120</i>
<i>Bekir Bora Dedeoğlu</i>	<i>120</i>
MANAGING CRISES IN SMHEs: THE CASE OF TURKEY	135
<i>Ismail Kizilirmak.....</i>	<i>135</i>
<i>Gurel Cetin.....</i>	<i>135</i>
<i>Pelin Nasöz</i>	<i>135</i>
<i>Sema Kucukali.....</i>	<i>135</i>
<i>Mehtap Balik.....</i>	<i>135</i>
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES AT FIVE-STAR HOTELS IN KYRENIA, CYPRUS: A DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS APPROACH.....	147
<i>Mahmoud Golabi</i>	<i>147</i>
<i>Gokhan Izbirak.....</i>	<i>147</i>
UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURIST SOUVENIR IN TERMS OF CULTURAL CONTEXT	156
<i>Yi Fu and Xiaoming Liu</i>	<i>156</i>
IMPACT OF TOURISM ON SENIORS	165
<i>Rudolf Rybansky.....</i>	<i>165</i>
<i>Renata Miklencicova.....</i>	<i>165</i>
THE EFFECTS OF TERRORISM, CRIME AND CORRUPTION ON TOURISM	179
<i>Marfa Santana-Gallego</i>	<i>179</i>
<i>Jaume Rossello-Nadal.....</i>	<i>179</i>
<i>Johan Fourie</i>	<i>179</i>
DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF SPORT EVENT TRAVELERS' BEHAVIOR	197
<i>Michela Cesarina Mason</i>	<i>197</i>
<i>Andrea Moretti.....</i>	<i>197</i>
<i>Adriano Paggiaro</i>	<i>197</i>
<i>Francesco Raggiotto.....</i>	<i>197</i>
A RESEARCH TO DETERMINE EXPECTATIONS, SATISFACTIONS AND DIFFICULTIES OF VISUALLY-IMPAIRED PERSONS: A CASE STUDY IN ACCESSIBLE MUSEUM IMPLEMENTATIONS IN ISTANBUL	213
<i>Füsün İstanbullu Dinçer</i>	<i>213</i>
<i>Hülya Özçit</i>	<i>213</i>
<i>İbrahim Çifçi.....</i>	<i>213</i>
<i>Bahadır Sezer.....</i>	<i>213</i>
<i>Onur Cüneyt Kahraman.....</i>	<i>213</i>
<i>Şimal Şahinoglu</i>	<i>213</i>
ANALYSIS FOR TRAVEL AGENTS' WEB SITE CONTENT: AN IMPLEMENTATION IN AEGEAN REGION	226
<i>Nuray Selma Ozdipner</i>	<i>226</i>
<i>Seher Ceylan</i>	<i>226</i>
THE EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES	236
<i>Ozge ADAN GOK.....</i>	<i>236</i>
<i>Yilmaz AKGUNDUZ</i>	<i>236</i>
<i>Ceylan ALKAN.....</i>	<i>236</i>

SOCIAL MEDIA'S INFLUENCE ON DESTINATION IMAGE, TOURIST SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS.....	249
<i>Changlu Chen</i>	249
<i>Tatiana Chekalina</i>	249
<i>Matthias Fuchs</i>	249
TOURIST MOTIVATIONS, ONLINE INFORMATION SEARCHING DESTINATION IMAGE AND TOURIST BEHAVIOURAL LOYALTY	264
<i>Arminda Almeida</i>	264
<i>Faten Jaber</i>	264
<i>Yuksel Ekinci</i>	264
<i>Sergio Moreno Gil</i>	264
CONTRIBUTION TO TOURISM DESTINATIONS OF HEALTH TOURISM; KOCAELI CITY EXAMPLE.....	281
<i>Hacı Mehmet Yıldırım</i>	281
<i>Muammer Mesci</i>	281
<i>Nurcan Dökmeci</i>	281
<i>Seda Nur Beyaz</i>	281
THE ROLE OF IFRS ADOPTION IN ATTRACTING SPONSORS TO FOOTBALL/SOCCER CLUBS: A FINANCIAL PERSPECTIVE	295
<i>Hasan Özyapıcı</i>	295
<i>İlhan Dalcı</i>	295
<i>Doğan Ünlücan</i>	295
E-WOM OF FIVE STAR HOTELS IN CYPRUS: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CONSUMER PERCEPTION THROUGH TRIP-ADVISOR	309
<i>Umut Ayman</i>	309
<i>Anil Kemal Kaya</i>	309
THE ROLE OF LOCAL FOODS OFFERED AT RESTAURANTS IN THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF HATAY DESTINATION.....	323
<i>Hulya Taştan</i>	323
<i>Beril Dönmez</i>	323
<i>Adem Yetim</i>	323
<i>Şerife Cıcık</i>	323
THE IMPACT OF CREATIVITY ON TURNOVER AIM: MODERATING ROLE OF WORK STRESS AND WORK SATISFACTION	267
<i>Servet Nasıföglü Elidemir</i>	267
<i>Mürüde Ertay</i>	267
THE POSITIONING OF SMALL- AND MEDIUM-SIZED RETAIL TRAVEL AGENCIES IN HONG KONG	283
A QUALITATIVE STUDY ON ECOTOURISM EXPERIENCE IN CHINA	303
<i>Ting Li, Fang Liu and Juanyi Liu</i>	303
DOES ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS FOSTER SOCIAL LOAFING THROUGH MORAL DISENGAGEMENT? AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY	307
<i>Emre Erbaş</i>	307
UNDERSTANDING THE FUNCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEAM PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL, AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE INCIVILITY: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	319
<i>Hasan KILIC</i>	319
<i>Turgay AVCI</i>	319
<i>Huda MEĞEİRHI</i>	319

IS THERE ROOM IN HOSPITALS FOR HOSPITALITY	332
<i>Sofia Lopes</i>	<i>332</i>
<i>Frederic Vidal</i>	<i>332</i>
<i>Ana Brochado</i>	<i>332</i>
THE FACTORS INFLUENCING SENIOR TOURISTS' HOTEL PREFERENCES	346
<i>Salim AKÇAY</i>	<i>346</i>
<i>Burhan KILIÇ</i>	<i>346</i>
<i>Funda ON ESEN</i>	<i>346</i>
<i>Nisan YOZUKMAZ</i>	<i>346</i>
MARKETING TO AN UNFRIENDLY AUDIENCE: EFFECT OF THE BRAND USA PROMOTIONAL VIDEO ON RUSSIAN TOURISTS.....	365
<i>Lijuan Su</i>	<i>365</i>
<i>Svetlana Stepchenkova</i>	<i>365</i>
<i>Elena Schichkova</i>	<i>365</i>
DIFFERENCES OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF LOCALS WHO SERVE IN TOURISM SECTOR BY BUSINESSES THEY WORK FOR	375
<i>Seher Ceylan, Muhammet Emin Soydaş and Nuray Selma Ozdipciner</i>	<i>375</i>
DESIGNING A MODEL FOR SUSTAINABLE SMALL-SCALE HOTEL BUILDING: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS.....	394
<i>Soad Abokhamis Mousavi</i>	<i>394</i>
THE IMPACT CORRELATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AMONG COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE, HOTEL PERFORMANCE AND MARKET ORIENTATION IHOSPITALITY INDUSTRY.....	409
<i>Mehmet Necati Cizreliogullari.....</i>	<i>409</i>
<i>Mehmet Veysi Babayiğit.....</i>	<i>409</i>
THE EFFECT OF ANTHROPOMORPHISM AND SOCIAL NETWORK MESSAGE TYPE ON CUSTOMER'S WILLINGNESS TO PATRONAGE THE BRAND.....	381
<i>Yaou Hu, Li Pan, Washington State University, USA.....</i>	<i>381</i>
<i>Li Pan, Zhejiang Normal University, China</i>	<i>381</i>
<i>Meng Zhang, Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China.....</i>	<i>381</i>
<i>Xiaorong Fu, Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China</i>	<i>381</i>
THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF GEOTOURISM ON LOCAL COMMUNITIES IN QESHM	399
GEOPARK	399
<i>Shahrbano Shari Gholitabar.....</i>	<i>399</i>
<i>Carlos Manuel Martins Da Costa.....</i>	<i>399</i>
<i>Reza Esmaeili,</i>	<i>399</i>
WHAT HOTEL MANAGERS THINK ABOUT GUEST COMPLAINTS?	414
CASE OF SAUDI ARABIAN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY	414
<i>Erdogan Ekiz.....</i>	<i>414</i>
<i>Ibrahim Alsini</i>	<i>414</i>
AN EXAMINATION OF THE ROLE OF EDU-TOURISM IN DESTINATION MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LOCALS' PERSPECTIVE: THE CASE OF EMU/TRNC.....	421
<i>Habib Alipour</i>	<i>421</i>
<i>Hamed Rezapouraghdam</i>	<i>421</i>
<i>Sima Rahimizhian</i>	<i>421</i>
<i>Arezo Soosan.....</i>	<i>421</i>
<i>Farzad Safaeimanesh.....</i>	<i>421</i>

<i>Hewa s. Khalid</i>	421
<i>Maryam Alsadat Seyed Abolghasemi</i>	421
MOTIVATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS ON RECREATIONAL SPORTS PARTICIPATION: PERCEPTIONS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN NORTHERN CYPRUS.....	418
<i>Sedigheh Safshekan Azar Ghaedi</i>	418
<i>Solmaz Azarmi</i>	418
<i>Hamed Rezapouraghdam</i>	418
EXCHANGE RATE VARIATION AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TURKEY:	435
A TIME SERIES ANALYSIS.....	435
<i>Idoko Ahmed Itodo</i>	435
<i>Shahrzad Safaeimanesh</i>	435
<i>Farzad Safaeimanesh</i>	435
STUDENTS EXPOSURE TO A MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT: DOES CULTURAL EXCHANGE INDUCE CULTURE AND RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE?.....	451
<i>Steven W. Bayighomog Likoum</i>	451
<i>Uju Violet Alola</i>	451
<i>Shahrzad Amelshahbaz</i>	451
<i>Victoria Ademilua</i>	451
MEASURING CUSTOMER-BASED BRAND EQUITY FOR BURSA: A CITY OF HISTORY AND CULTURE	467
<i>Çağatan Taşkın,</i>	467
<i>Erdoğan Koç,</i>	467
<i>Hakan Boz,</i>	467
<i>Ahmet Akif Karadamar,</i>	467
CRUISING MOTIVATION OF CRUISE PASSENGERS VISITED ISTANBUL.....	475
<i>Serhat HARMAN</i>	475
<i>Ozan KAYA</i>	475
<i>Erol Duran</i>	475
LUNCH CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE FACTORS IN THE RESTAURANT BUSINESS	488
<i>Hanne Ala-Harja</i>	488
<i>Tuija Pitkakoski,</i>	488
<i>Inari Aaltojarvi</i>	488
SUSTAINABLE DESERT-TOURISM DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN KHARA, IRAN: A SWOT ANALYSIS APPROACH.....	504
<i>Hamed Rezapouraghdam and Banafshe Esmaili</i>	504
FILM TOURISM AS OPPORTUNITY FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT.....	511
<i>Dana Petranova</i>	511
Paradoxical curve of leisure time	513
THE ROLE OF URBAN SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY IN ACHIEVEMENT OF URBAN TOURISM: THE CASE OF IRAN’S TRADITIONAL ARCHITECTURE	524
<i>Azar Ghaedi</i>	524
<i>Ehsan Valipour</i>	524
<i>Sedigheh Safshekan</i>	524
<i>Samira Tayyebisoudkolaei</i>	524
FOOD MARKETING AS THE TASTE AND SMELL OF COUNTRIES.....	548
<i>Zora Hudíková</i>	548
STORY TOURISM AS A DISCURSIVE TOPIC OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT.....	560
<i>Hana Pravdová</i>	560

ABSTRACTS.....	569
STRATEGIC IMAGE MANAGEMENT OF CSR FOR LUXURY BRANDS - THE CASE OF LUXURY HOTELS	570
<i>Anne –Flore Maman Larraufie</i>	<i>570</i>
THE RELATION BETWEEN SLOW FOOD TOURISM AND ENVIRONMENT: THE CASE OF BUYUKKONUK MUNICIPALITY	572
<i>Ecem İnce and Deniz İşçioğlu.....</i>	<i>572</i>
EXAMINING THE PERCEIVED DESTINATION IMAGE OF ISTANBUL AS REPRESENTED IN THE TRAVEL BLOGS OF WESTERN TRAVELERS.....	573
<i>Mithat Zeki</i>	<i>573</i>
<i>Füsun İstanbullu Dinçer</i>	<i>573</i>
<i>Zaid Alrawadieh.....</i>	<i>573</i>
<i>Parvin Mammadova.....</i>	<i>573</i>
EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION BRAND LOYALTY: A SYMBOLIC CONSUMPTION PERSPECTIVE	576
<i>Çağatan Taşkın and Ahmet Akif Karadamar</i>	<i>576</i>
EFFECT OF ADAPTIVE REUSE OF HISTORICAL BUILDING ON TOURISM-LED REVITALIZATION	586
<i>Faraneh Sahraianjahromi.....</i>	<i>586</i>
<i>Sedigheh Safshekan.....</i>	<i>586</i>
<i>Azar Ghaedi</i>	<i>586</i>
BIOCULTURAL CONSERVATION AND ISLAND REDEVELOPMENT THROUGH CRAFT DISTILLERY TOURISM AND MARKETING: THE SHACKAMAXON ISLAND CASE STUDY	598
<i>Christina Cavaliere.....</i>	<i>598</i>
<i>Donna Albano</i>	<i>598</i>
INNOVATION IN CULTURAL TOURISM CLUSTERS	601
<i>Dioni Elche, Angela Martinez, Perez and Pedro M. Garcia Villaverde</i>	<i>601</i>
FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION ON THE SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT: MAIN THEMES AND SUB-THEMES.....	603
MODERATED MODERATION EFFECT OF AGE AND GENDER ON ATTITUDE-INTENTION LINK FOR MOBILE-BASED TOURISM EDUCATION IN EMERGING MARKET.....	604
<i>Johra Fatima.....</i>	<i>604</i>
THE EFFECT OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION ON EMOTIONAL LABOR BEHAVIOR: A RESEARCH IN HOSPITALITY ORGANIZATION IN ALANYA REGION	607
<i>Ali Sükrü Çetinkaya</i>	<i>607</i>
<i>Emine Vasfiye Korkmaz</i>	<i>607</i>
OSTRACISM, SELF-ESTEEM, AND PERFORMANCE: A MODERATED MEDIATION.....	610
<i>Irene Huertas</i>	<i>610</i>
<i>Jessica Braojos</i>	<i>610</i>
<i>Javier Llorens</i>	<i>610</i>
HOW TO BUILD ENGAGEMENT AMONG HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES.....	613
<i>Irene Huertas</i>	<i>613</i>
<i>Maria I. Roldan.....</i>	<i>613</i>
<i>Araceli Rojo Gallego</i>	<i>613</i>

JOB INSECURITY, JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AND THEIR EFFECTS ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES' SERVICE RECOVERY PERFORMANCE AND QUITTING INTENTIONS	616
<i>Homayoun Pasha Safavi</i>	616
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	616
NEW LEADERSHIP STYLES: THEIR EFFECT ON HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES	619
<i>Irene Huertas</i>	619
<i>Araceli Rojo Gallego</i>	619
<i>Marisel Fernandez Giordano</i>	619
UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURIST SOUVENIR IN TERMS OF CULTURAL CONTEXT	621
<i>Xiaoming Liu and Yi Fu</i>	621
ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF JOB INSECURITY AMONG HOTEL SALESPEOPLE	623
<i>Mona Bouzari</i>	623
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	623
DOES WORK ENGAGEMENT MEDIATE THE EFFECTS OF SERVICE ORIENTATION ON JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AMONG FULL TIME FRONTLINE FOUR AND FIVE STAR HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN NORTHERN CYPRUS?	626
<i>Reza Bahman Teimouri</i>	626
<i>Hüseyin Araslı</i>	626
<i>Hasan Kılıç</i>	626
<i>Iman Aghaei</i>	626
REASONS BEHIND STUDENTS' CHOICE OF GASTRONOMY AND CULINARY ARTS: CASE OF NORTHERN CYPRUS	627
<i>Sarvnaz Baradarani and Ozlem Altun</i>	627
MURDER AND RELATED OFFENCES: THE DILEMMA AMONG TOURISTS IN PARADISE-TOURIST DESTINATIONS: THE MAURITIAN NEW PHENOMENON CASE STUDY	629
SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF PLACE ATTACHMENT AT A NIGERIAN CULTURAL FESTIVAL	631
<i>Kayode Aleshinloye</i>	631
<i>Kyle Woosnam</i>	631
<i>Manuel Ribeiro</i>	631
<i>Jingxian Jiang</i>	631
<i>Emrullah Erul</i>	631
AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF JOB CRAFTING AMONG HOTEL EMPLOYEES	632
<i>Georgiana Karadas</i>	632
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	632
TOURIST ATTITUDES TOWARDS PAMUKKALE DESTINATION	636
SUCCESSFUL URBAN PLACES AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM; CASE OF TEHRAN'S BAZAAR	639
<i>Mahasti Shotorbani Payam</i>	639
<i>Mokhtarshahi Sani Rafooneh</i>	639
DESIGNING A MODEL FOR SUSTAINABLE SMALL-SCALE HOTEL: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS	641
<i>Soad Abokhamis Mousavi</i>	641

ONLINE REVIEWS' EFFECTS ON YOUNG CONSUMERS' BUYING BEHAVIOR	642
<i>Emel Yarimoglu Kursunluoglu , Yigit Sebahattin Bozkurt and Tugrul Gunay.....</i>	<i>642</i>
THE RELATION BETWEEN TOURISM GROWTH AND GOVERNMENT REVENUE IN BANGLADESH: A BOUND TEST APPROACH	643
<i>Sakib B. Amin.....</i>	<i>643</i>
EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF TOURIST COMPLAINING CONSTRAINTS ON JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND LOYALTY INTENTIONS OF CHINESE TOURISTS IN ISTANBUL, TURKEY	644
<i>Erdogan Ekiz.....</i>	<i>644</i>
<i>Ali Bavik.....</i>	<i>644</i>
<i>Fevzi Okumus.....</i>	<i>644</i>
THE ROLES OF KNOWLEDGE AND TRANSPARENCY IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORRUPTION AND RESIDENTS' TRUST ON MEGA-EVENTS ORGANISING COMMITTEE	648
<i>Manuel Alector RIBEIRO</i>	<i>648</i>
<i>Robin NUNKOO</i>	<i>648</i>
<i>Dogan GURSOY</i>	<i>648</i>
<i>Alexandre PANOSSO NETTO</i>	<i>648</i>
THE EFFECT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON FLIGHT ATTENDANTS' SATISFACTION OUTCOMES: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TRUST	650
<i>Shiva Ilkhanizadeh</i>	<i>650</i>
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	<i>650</i>
COOPETITION TOURISM MODEL: EXPLORING THE POSSIBILITY FOR JAMAICA AND CUBA.....	654
<i>Gaunette Sinclair Maragh</i>	<i>654</i>
THE EFFECTS OF SELECTED ANTECEDENTS ON HOTEL CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEES' SERVICE-ORIENTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS	656
<i>Olusegun A. Olugbade</i>	<i>656</i>
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	<i>656</i>
THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP BETWEEN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF THE IMMIGRANT EMPLOYEES IN NORTH CYPRUS HOTEL INDUSTRY	659
<i>Mehmet Necati Cizreliogullari.....</i>	<i>659</i>
<i>Mehmet Veysi Babayiğit.....</i>	<i>659</i>
EXPERIENCE AND REVISIT INTENTION IN AN ADVENTURE TOURISM CONTEXT.....	660
<i>Fang Liu.....</i>	<i>660</i>
<i>Chaozhi Zhang</i>	<i>660</i>
THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL ON HOTEL CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEES' NONATTENDANCE INTENTIONS AND CREATIVE PERFORMANCE: TRUST AS A MEDIATOR.....	661
<i>Anastasia Ozturk.....</i>	<i>661</i>
<i>Osman M. Karatepe</i>	<i>661</i>
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS PERCEPTIONS OF MEDICAL TOURISTS AND MEDICAL TOURISM SERVICE PROVIDERS IN TURKEY	665
<i>Meltem Canoglu.....</i>	<i>665</i>

WHAT FACTORS PREDICT HOTEL EMPLOYEES' ABSENCE INTENTIONS? AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION.....	666
<i>Rashin Kaviti.....</i>	<i>666</i>
<i>Osman M. Karatepe.....</i>	<i>666</i>
ABUSIVE SUPERVISION AND FRONTLINE HOTEL EMPLOYEES' QUALITY OF WORK-LIFE: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT.....	670
<i>Georgiana Karadas.....</i>	<i>670</i>
<i>Turgay Avcı.....</i>	<i>670</i>
<i>Kayode Kolawole Eluwole.....</i>	<i>670</i>
PERSONAL AND JOB RESOURCES PREDICTING HOTEL EMPLOYEES' WORK ENGAGEMENT AND PERFORMANCE	673
<i>Georgiana Karadas.....</i>	<i>673</i>
<i>Turgay Avcı.....</i>	<i>673</i>
<i>Ksenia Sumaneeva.....</i>	<i>673</i>
GETTING TOO CLOSE? HOW GUEST ATTACHMENT STYLES IMPACT THE DESIRE FOR RELATIONSHIP CLOSENESS WITH HOSTS IN HOSPITALITY	677
<i>Srikanth Beldona.....</i>	<i>677</i>
<i>Hemant Kher.....</i>	<i>677</i>
<i>Suresh Sundaram.....</i>	<i>677</i>
THE EFFECTS OF WORK SOCIAL SUPPORT AND WORK ENGAGEMENT ON FLIGHT ATTENDANTS' CRITICAL JOB OUTCOMES.....	679
<i>Niusha Talebzadeh.....</i>	<i>679</i>
<i>Osman M. Karatepe.....</i>	<i>679</i>
THE MAIN PROVISIONS OF THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT OF GASTRONOMIC TOURISM	682
<i>Angelina Irina.....</i>	<i>682</i>
<i>Mikula Yana.....</i>	<i>682</i>
MARKETING PRIORITIES OF INDUSTRIAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT	686
<i>Angelina Irina.....</i>	<i>686</i>
<i>Antonets Viktoriia.....</i>	<i>686</i>
INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND TOURISM IN GHANA.....	691
<i>Kotoua Selira.....</i>	<i>691</i>
<i>Mustafa Ilkan.....</i>	<i>691</i>
THE IMPACT CORRELATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AMONG COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE, HOTEL PERFORMANCE AND MARKET ORIENTATION IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY.....	693
<i>Mehmet Necati Cizrelioğulları.....</i>	<i>693</i>
<i>Mehmet Veysi Babayigit.....</i>	<i>693</i>
PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM IMPACTS AND SUSTAINABILITY CONCEPT: INSIGHTS FROM KYRGYZSTAN	694
<i>Jyldyz Djakyypbay KYZY.....</i>	<i>694</i>
<i>Ali ÖZTÜREN.....</i>	<i>694</i>
AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE ANTECEDENTS OF VISITORS' LOYALTY IN A FESTIVAL SETTING.....	696
<i>Georgiana Karadas.....</i>	<i>696</i>
<i>Hasan Kiliç.....</i>	<i>696</i>
<i>Cathrine Banga.....</i>	<i>696</i>

TESTING THE ROLE OF TOURISM GROWTH IN ENERGY CONSUMPTION: THE CASE OF NORTHERN CYPRUS	699
<i>Setareh Sodeyfi.....</i>	<i>699</i>
THE MOTIVATION FACTORS AND THE PERCEPTIONS OF RESIDENTS IN NORTH CYPRUS TOWARDS MEDICAL TOURISM IN TURKEY	700
<i>Tugce Kurtulus.....</i>	<i>700</i>
<i>Ali Ozturen.....</i>	<i>700</i>
QUALITY VS QUANTITY: WHAT EDIRNE’S TOURISM MANAGEMENT IS MISSING?	702
<i>Atila Yuksel.....</i>	<i>702</i>
<i>Aydemir Ay.....</i>	<i>702</i>
<i>Aril Cansel.....</i>	<i>702</i>
<i>Erdogan Ekiz.....</i>	<i>702</i>
SENIOR TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMPROVING THE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE OF AN EVOLVING MARKET SEGMENT	704
<i>Maria Adela Balderas and Elena Urdaneta</i>	<i>704</i>
ETHICAL LEADERSHIP AND SUPERVISOR TRUST IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY	705
<i>Magdaline Enow Mbi Tarkang Mary, Huseyin Arasli and Ruth Yunji.....</i>	<i>705</i>
EFFECT OF JOB STRESSORS ON EMPLOYEES WORK OUTCOME THROUGH BURNOUT.....	707
<i>Nazanin Naderiadib Alper and Huseyin Arasli</i>	<i>707</i>
PARTIAL LEAST SQUARES STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (PLS-SEM) FOR HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM RESEARCH.....	709
<i>Mehmet Mehmetoglu.....</i>	<i>709</i>
<i>Sergio Venturini</i>	<i>709</i>
BULLYING IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE ENEMY UNDER ICEBERG!	583
<i>Elham Anasori.....</i>	<i>583</i>
<i>Huseyin ARASLI.....</i>	<i>583</i>
SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF TOURISTS TO THE PERIPHERAL DESTINATIONS: THE CASE STUDY OF ISFAHAN, IRAN.....	584
<i>Habib Alipour, Farzad Safaeimanesh, Shahrzad Safaeimanesh and Aghdas Zaghian</i>	<i>584</i>
Enhancing the Social Wellbeing of Elderly through Engagement with Temple.....	586
<i>Wen-Ching Chang and Levent Altinay.....</i>	<i>586</i>
CURRENT PRACTICE OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN A HOTEL CONTEXT: A CASE STUDY	589
<i>Cihan ALPHUN and and Mine Haktanir.....</i>	<i>589</i>
EXPLORING TOURISTS’ DESTINATION IMAGES OF CULTURAL HERITAGES: THE CASE STUDY OF NORTH CYPRUS	592
<i>Elham Anasori.....</i>	<i>592</i>
<i>Farzad Safaei Manesh</i>	<i>592</i>
<i>Habib Alipour</i>	<i>592</i>
TRAVELERS’ PERCEPTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION CAUSED BY UNSUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN PUBLIC TOURISM RESORTS: EVIDENCE FROM CASPIAN SEA REGION, IRAN	593
<i>Hamed Rezapouraghdam, Raheleh Hassannia and Bahareh Hassanzadeh.....</i>	<i>593</i>

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY: AN OBSERVATION THROUGH THE LENSE OF LEGITIMACY	594
<i>Huseyin Arasli, Hamed Rezapouraghdam, Elaheh Behravesht and Amin Shahgerdi.....</i>	<i>594</i>
THE ROLE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN TOURISM EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS	595
<i>Mustafa Ilkan</i>	<i>595</i>
<i>Mobina Beheshti</i>	<i>595</i>
<i>Sima Rahimizhian</i>	<i>595</i>
<i>Erim Atalar</i>	<i>595</i>
COMPETITIVE AND COMBATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS: A CASE STUDY IN HOSPITALITY BUSINESS.....	596
<i>Mahmood Khan.....</i>	<i>596</i>
<i>Maryam Khan</i>	<i>596</i>
<i>Kalpagam Ramasubramanian.....</i>	<i>596</i>
THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN ENVIRONMENTAL KUZNETS CURVE: EVIDENCE FROM TOP AND BOTTOM TOURIST DESTINATIONS	597
<i>Sami Fethi</i>	<i>597</i>
<i>Elif Şenyücel.....</i>	<i>597</i>
HOW PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL INFLUENCES ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE? TESTING THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF STUDENT ENGAGEMENT	599
<i>Orhan Uludag.....</i>	<i>599</i>
<i>Hale Ozgit</i>	<i>599</i>
THE ROLE OF SUBJECTIVE PERSON-JOB FIT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATION SUPPORT AND JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG EMPLOYEES OF TOURISM PLANNING ORGANIZATION	600
<i>Nahid Malazizi.....</i>	<i>600</i>
NATION BRANDING AND STRATEGIES FOR COMBATTING TOURISM CRISES AND STEREOTYPES TOWARDS DESTINATIONS.....	601
<i>Eli Avraham</i>	<i>601</i>
AN EXAMINATION OF SOCIO-POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC IMPACT OF ECOTOURISM IN HOST COMMUNITY-(A CASE OF AGBOWA-IKOSI AREA OF LAGOS STATE)	603
<i>Metilelu Olumide Olusola.....</i>	<i>603</i>
ANTECEDENTS OF CULINARY ART CAREER CHOICE AMONG VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS	604
<i>Kurtulus Özbaşar, Furkan Araslı, and Huseyin Araslı.....</i>	<i>604</i>
TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION IN TURKEY: AN ASYMMETRIC ARDL FRAMEWORK	605
<i>Uchechukwu Ukeje, Hatice Imamoglu and George Ike</i>	<i>605</i>
RESIDENTS' QUALITY OF LIFE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NORTH CYPRUS	606
<i>Zeynep Sarıgül and Ali Oztüren.....</i>	<i>606</i>
CONJUNCTURAL FLUCTUATIONS-TOURISM INCOME RELATIONSHIP: EU COUNTRIES AND TURKEY EXAMPLE	608
<i>Efe Can Kılınç.....</i>	<i>608</i>
<i>Nazan Şahbaz Kılınç</i>	<i>608</i>
<i>Mustafa Kartal</i>	<i>608</i>

DOES MONEY WORK? THE IMPACT OF MONETARY INCENTIVE ON RE-SHARE INTENTION IN ONLINE TRAVEL COMMUNITY	609
<i>Qinqin Zhao</i>	<i>609</i>
<i>Meng Zhang.....</i>	<i>609</i>
<i>Xiaorong Fu</i>	<i>609</i>
<i>Si Shi</i>	<i>609</i>
TREND OF OUTBOUND TOURISM EXPNEDITURE MODELING: A REVIEW STUDY	610
<i>Javaneh Mehran,.....</i>	<i>610</i>
<i>Hossein GT Olya,.....</i>	<i>610</i>
<i>Habib Alipour,</i>	<i>610</i>
EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED JOB VALUE FIT AND EMPLOYEE-ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE FIT ON JOB PERFORMANCE: MEDIATING ROLE OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION IN HOTELS INDUSTRY	612
<i>Fatih Gorgun.....</i>	<i>612</i>
<i>Elham Ansori.....</i>	<i>612</i>
<i>Furkan Arasli</i>	<i>612</i>
AN EXAMINATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL INSTITUTIONS AND CO-MANAGEMENT TOWARD ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION: THE CASE OF TRNC.....	613
<i>Habib Alipour</i>	<i>613</i>
<i>Tahereh Arefipour.....</i>	<i>613</i>
THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF DESIGN AND PLACE FEATURES: A STUDY OF THE MADNES FESTIVAL IN THE NETHERLANDS.....	614
<i>Mark Leenders</i>	<i>614</i>
INDIRECT CITY-BRANDING THROUGH THE HYPERREAL REPRESENTATION OF THE CITY IN ADVERTISING – THE EXAMPLE OF VENEZIA	615
<i>Anne-Flore Maman Larraufie.....</i>	<i>615</i>
DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE CASH-HOLDING LEVELS IN TOURISM INDUSTRY-AN EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM UNITED KINGDOM.....	617
<i>Wisal Ahmad and Cahit Adaoglu.....</i>	<i>617</i>
DIVIDEND POLICY OF TRAVEL AND LEISURE COMPANIES IN WESTERN EUROPE	618
<i>Mahboubeh Bahreini and and Cahit Adaoglu</i>	<i>618</i>
LECTURERS’ ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS’ INVOLVEMENT IN INTERNSHIP AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF CURRENT STUDENTS AND GRADUATES OF THE HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT DEGREE PROGRAMME (HMDP): INFORMING FUTURE COURSE DEVELOPMENT	619
<i>Clare Johnson</i>	<i>619</i>

FULL PAPERS

PLEASE MIND THE GAP! (IN-) CONSISTENCY IN GAP YEAR VOLUNTEER TOURISM - FROM RITE OF PASSAGE TO (UNWANTED) COSMOPOLITANISM

Noel B. Salazar and Julie Rausenberger
KU Leuven, Belgium

Abstract

Gap years are a popular rite of passage amongst school-leavers who opt to take a year out from education in order to travel around the world. Volunteer organizations became one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry, offering students the opportunity to see the world, grow up, and think about future prospects and reflect upon the question: “What do I want to do with my life?”. Therefore, gap years and voluntourism can be considered as a liminal phase in one’s life. However, the reputation of volunteer tourism (often coined: voluntourism) is under pressure as students start to turn their backs on these gap year experiences for various reasons: because they doubt the value of their help to local communities, to earn money to pay increasing university fees, etc.

This poses a question whether ‘gappers’ and ‘voluntourists’ are not becoming unwanted travelers, who consider themselves (unjustified?) cosmopolitans¹? An increasing body of scholars argues that gap year volunteer tourism might well have good intentions, but does more harm than good. Eventually the question can arise whether this phenomenon is not a postmodern form of pilgrimage, mainly achieving personal aspiration levels in sacred liminoid, and whether it is not ego-centric rather than altruistic?

This paper wants to address various themes of the course ‘Anthropology and Travel’ such as rites of passage, tourism, spiritual journeys, (im)mobility, unwanted travelers, cosmopolitanism, and critique towards the convergence of gap year volunteer tourism².

Key words: gap year volunteer tourism, rites of passage, liminality, cosmopolitanism, altruism

Introduction

The Grand Tour used to be a popular travel experience for Western Europe’s noble youth in the seventeenth and eighteenth century, the Hippy Trail in the 1960s, and presently the popularity of

¹ I use the term ‘gapper’ to refer to young people in gap year travels and ‘voluntourist’ to refer to young people participating in volunteer tourism.

² Volunteer tourism or Voluntourism is further coined VT in this paper.

international volunteer and gap year travel has risen the past decades. To travel is still ‘to become a man of the world’ (Boorstin, 1964: 82) and is often associated with its educational capacity to ‘broaden the mind’.

As the new young middle class, Generation Y, is willing to demonstrate that they are ‘travelers’, not ‘tourists’, alternative tourism markets flourish these days (Snee, 2013, 2014) ¹. This generation has been characterized as confident, ambitious, enthusiastic, innovative, highly educated, open-minded, and ‘challenge-seeking multi-taskers’ who long for overseas travel. Not surprisingly, the emergent popularity of gap year VT can be attributed to the avid consumption of traveling experiences by these Millennials (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Lyons et al., 2012; Mostafanezhad, 2014).

Characterized by an extended stage of adolescence - facilitated by longer financial support from their parents and widely ranged job opportunities, the travel market is appealing to them. A career can wait as there is no need to rush starting a family or building a house. This generation is seeking extraordinary experiences, distinguishing itself from the mass while giving the best of their selves every day. In the discourse of work-life, they compel personal freedom and place quality above quantity, stepping outside their comfort zones. With the ideology of ‘making a difference’, their main goals are societal impact, social responsibility and ‘heightened awareness of global problems’ (Michiels, 2015; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008, p. 134).

I believe that this generation significantly influenced the increase of humanitarian and neoimperialist philanthropic travelers and the expansion in popularity of gap year and VT during the last decades. Or as Salazar (2004, p. 92) said: *“There has always been a nagging inadequacy around the assertion that one cannot sell poverty, but one can sell paradise. Today the tourism industry does sell poverty.”* Studying the characteristics of the Millennials explains why.

A new generation of young travelers seeks life-changing authentic experiences in the global South through volunteering opportunities disrupting the conventional distinction between leisure and labor. The growth of this ‘Experience Economy’ demonstrates the current importance of alternative tourism as a pervasive means to avoid the modern fate of ‘commoditization’ and the depersonalizing effect of the consumerist mass tourism market. Rather, they value personal experiences to engage with the realities of poverty-stricken communities as voluntourists (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Dalwai & Donegan,

¹ Generation Y, also known as the Millennial Generation, are those born between 1982 and 2002 (Howe & Strauss, 2000).

2012).

As VT is currently recognized in both tourism and anthropological studies as an important and growing segment of the alternative tourism industry, a significant body of literature on the topic has emerged in the last decade¹. This paper will present a review of these academic accounts by critically examining the (in)consistency in VT as it is still insufficiently researched to provide a firm foundation for a deeper understanding of the phenomenon, trying to answer the critical question: **“Is gap year volunteer tourism a good or a bad thing?”**. My intentions with this paper are to contribute to emerging research on the discourse of VT - evaluating both its positive and negative aspects (Lyons et al., 2012; Sin, 2009; Smith, 2014).

Situating Volunteer & Gap Year Tourism

The ‘gap year’ has become a well-recognized travel phenomenon. It is usually defined as *“a period of time between 3 and 24 months taken out of education, training or a work career”* (Jones, 2004: 8). Through taking a gap year, young people have the opportunity to engage in a variety of work, travel and volunteer practices to gain working skills and life experience. It has become an important attribute in many new professions, and therefore it is encouraged by the education sector, governments, as well as marketed by an expanding gap year industry offering VT programs (Lyons et al., 2012; Munt, 1994; Papi, 2013b; Simpson, 2004; Snee, 2014).

Hence, it is a wider category than VT, and although it does not necessarily involve overseas travel or young travelers as it may be taken in various stages in life (Brown, 2005; Snee, 2013, 2014), in this paper I focus on international gap year VT amongst young people, as it is within the period of adolescence and largely in developing countries in the global South that this phenomenon is most popular and common. The market is estimated to cater to 1.6 million volunteer tourists a year, with most participants being in their early twenties (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Lyons et al., 2012; Mustonen, 2006; Smith, 2014; TRAM, 2008; Wearing, 2001).

VT is one of the major growth areas in contemporary tourism, and is defined by Wearing (2004: 217) as a niche tourism that *“makes use of holiday-makers who volunteer to fund and work on social or*

¹ Brown, 2005; Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Butler & Tomazos, 2011; Callanan and Thomas, 2003; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Guttentag, 2011; Jones, 2004; Lyons & Wearing, 2008; Lyons, Hanley, Wearing & Neal, 2012; McGehee, 2014; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Pearce & Coghlan, 2008; Simpson, 2004, 2005; Sin, 2005; Smith, 2014; Smith, Laurie, Hopkins, & Olson, 2013; Snee, 2013, 2014; Tomazos & Butler, 2010; Vrasti, 2012; Wearing, 2001, 2004; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013.

conservation projects around the world and aims to provide sustainable alternative travel that can assist in community development, scientific research or ecological restoration". A volunteer tourist thus participates in an organized way to undertake holidays with a volunteer component that might involve aiding aspects of society or environment (Brown, 2005; Wearing, 2001).

The VT experience aims to benefit both the participant himself through the intrinsic rewards of contributing to volunteer projects, as the local community by providing a potential positive longer-lasting impact, while the average VT holiday consists out of short-term projects of a few weeks. Thus, the importance given to the altruistic desires over profit motives presents VT primarily as an alternative to mass tourism (Callanan & Thomas, 2003; Mustonen, 2007; Sin, 2009; Smith, 2014; Tomazos & Butler, 2010; Wearing, 2001).

In recent years, the exploitation of resources and communities on a global scale were exposed by many media resources, and many international initiatives in the voluntary and charity sector succeeded. The growing attention to goodwill activities has prompted NGOs to exploit new volunteer opportunities in the Global South, and many tour operators have been involved in social and community projects to promote their image of ethical and social responsibility, changing the VT market into a comprising mix of non-profit and for-profit organizational suppliers (Brown, 2005; Callanan and Thomas, 2003).

VT is increasingly commercialized as a form of leisure travel, combining the altruism of development work with the hedonism of leisure, and as most organizations focus both on the financial success of the project as on the project's contribution to the local area, the 'real' value of volunteer work to the host community is however becoming very questionable (Callanan and Thomas, 2003; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Simpson, 2004).

Gap Year Volunteer Tourism as a Postmodern Rite of Passage

Rite de Passage

Gap year VT can be seen as a contemporary rite of passage for young people. Voluntourists move from one social status to another as their participation in such programs can be seen as a process that confronts them with a transformation in which they leave behind their old selves, and reach a new level of consciousness (Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Graburn, 1983; Smith, 2014; Snee, 2013).

Leaving home to go through this rite of passage separates the gapper from a previous status by a challenging journey abroad, after which they reincorporate a new social position on their return

(Monsutti, 2007). It is thus characterized by three classical stages as introduced by Van Gennep (1960) as 'life-crisis rituals', and further developed by Turner (1967): separation, liminality (margin/limen), and aggregation (incorporation/ reintegration).

The first phase comprises a detachment from old identities and earlier fixed states in the social structure. Separation demarcates the movement from a stable position to a new status. In the 'in-between' state of liminality, the individual is offered an opportunity for transformation. It involves a temporary break with everyday life in which the subject remains ambiguous, a sort of social limbo. In the third phase, the transition is consummated and the individual returns to a new, enhanced position in society (Turner, 1967; Van Gennep, 1960).

Volunteering as Life-cycle Transition

A gap year is often a period of transition between two important life stages: from childhood towards adulthood. They have become part of 'growing up' and take place at transitional points in life as gappers construct their self-identities by using the difference between 'home' and 'away'. It also coincides with the life-cycle transition as gap year volunteering is often a period between school and university (Galani-Moutafi, 2000; Gothoni, 1993; Monsutti, 2007; Smith et al., 2013; Tomazos & Butler, 2010).

Central to these so-called 'significant life events' is the emphasis on life-enhancement and personal change. It incorporates new travel experiences which help them to move towards an enhanced Self. Volunteering is here presented not as leisure, but understood as an opportunity to learn in terms of gains in maturity and life experience (Snee, 2014).

Amit (2007) noted that geographic mobility has indeed been initiated as a vehicle for engaging with life-cycle transition as it offers the chance to restore one's status, construct a new identity, and sometimes even profit economic advantages. Furthermore, traveling is said to bring opportunities for social / psychological transformation (Coleman, 2004).

Liminality vs. Liminoid

The concepts of liminality and liminoid can be traced to the work of Turner (1967) on the analysis of rituals. He argued that the liminal period is an interstructural phase in social dynamics, which involves inverse behavior from the norm. It is a transition between states, a process of growth and becoming in which the liminal signifies that which is 'neither this nor that, and yet is both'. Transitional beings thus

have a twofold character as they are no longer classified and not yet classified. They are 'betwixt and between' (Turner, 1974a: 273). Old elements are reformulated in new patterns, as the liminal persona is withdrawn from his previous habits and is challenged to reflect upon his position during the liminal period (Allon & Koleh, 2014; Beckstead, 2010; Graburn, 1983).

However, it should be noted that Turner (1974b) reserved the term 'liminality' for obligated religious rites, and 'liminoid' for optional secular/leisure activities, such as gap year VT. It involves a spatial passage marked by a physical separation of the individual from the rest of society, which demarcates potentiality for transformation, through breaking the normative rules. Tourists indeed step into the liminoid when they move from everyday life (profane) to holidays (sacred). One's behavior may then differ significantly from behavior at home as the moral codes of everyday life are not valid. The liminoid resembles, but is thus not identical to the liminal, and is a key characteristic of taking 'time out' through gap years (Graburn, 1989; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Snee, 2013, 2014; Turner, 1974b).

Communitas

Volunteer programs also facilitate situations where gappers can socialize with their fellows, and research shows that the friendships developed through the intimate work atmosphere are of great importance to the volunteers. Volunteering produces a special kind of bonding amongst voluntourists as they are going through a similar experience and exchange like-minded ideas (Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Monsutti, 2007; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Wearing, 2001).

These enabled friendships resemble to Turner's concept of '*communitas*' as individuals are momentarily stripped of their social status. The Turnerian notion of *communitas* refers to a spontaneously generated social bonding and community experience in the liminal state by a group of peers, as they face similar challenges and tests. This comradeship is the product of liminality, marks the fellowship with the like-minded, is based on feelings of affinity, solidarity and togetherness, and offers possibilities to develop interpersonal relationships (Gothoni, 1993; Turner, 1967, 1974a; 1974b).

From Postmodern Pilgrimages to Transformational Journeys

Secular Pilgrimages & Sacred Tourism

Postmodernity is marked by the convergence of traditional pilgrimage towards leisure tourism, making it no longer possible to clearly distinct religious from non-religious travelers. Simultaneously, regular tourists may experience spiritual moments during their journeys, so the line between pilgrimage and

tourism becomes blurred. Nowadays, we may rather speak of ‘secular pilgrimages’ and ‘sacred tourism’ as pilgrims often become tourists, and postmodern tourists can be as much a pilgrim as a tourist (Beckstead, 2010; Coleman, 2004; Clifford, 1997; Mustonen, 2006; Singh, 2005).

Collins-Kreiner & Kliot (2000) acknowledged the commonalities and distinctions between pilgrimages and tourism through their development of the pilgrim-tourism axis, which is comprised of two continua: ‘secularism-sacredness’, and ‘tourism-pilgrimage’. Tourism can thereby be understood as postmodern rationalized secularism, and pilgrimage as a premodern proof of piety. However, in postmodernity we can ascertain a melting pot of both types where they blend in new forms such as the birth of VT, with voluntourists representing the ‘new pilgrims of the contemporary world’ (Graburn, 2001; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Singh, 2005).

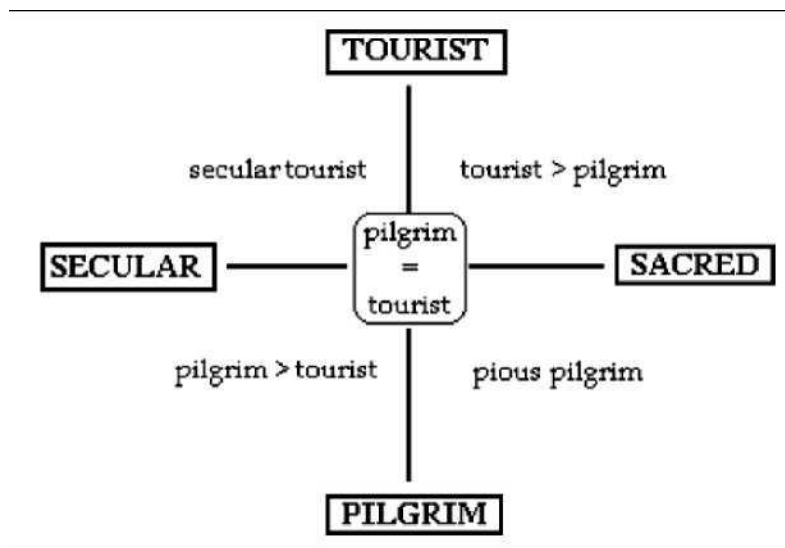


Figure 1: pilgrim-tourism axis (Collins-Kreiner & Kliot, 2000; Singh, 2005: 216)

They blend in new forms such as the birth of VT, with voluntourists representing the ‘new pilgrims of the contemporary world’ (Graburn, 2001; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Singh, 2005).

Even though VT is very close to conventional (backpacking) tourism, it also resembles traditional pilgrimage, especially if we connect both phenomena through utilizing the theory of rites de passage. The influence of religiosity in VT is however still insufficiently recognized. Accordingly, contemporary pilgrimages increasingly desacralize as they contain more and more touristic elements performing other than religious motives and spiritual fulfillment, such as transformational affiliations

that promote learning and foster change and development (Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Smith et al., 2013; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

The Creation of Transformation & Self-Actualization

Transformation often forms an integral part and highly characteristic feature of both rites of passages and pilgrimages. Voluntouristic travel can indeed be described as a self-discovering experience that provides the potential to change and transform individuals, especially if they participate at a time of transition in their lives, such as after leaving school (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Gothoni, 1993; Lyons & Wearing, 2008; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

If VT is conceived as a postmodern form of pilgrimage, it should be defined as a transformational journey as well because the promise of travel involves the possibility for personal transformation. This spiritual new-birth explains why gappers often speak about the specific transformative quality of gap years to “find yourself” and abandon the previous life-style to reach self-actualization and search for meanings to their existence (Beckstead, 2010; Gothoni, 1993; Mustonen, 2007).

The experience of ‘self-actualization’ - utilized by Maslow (1954) in his hierarchy of needs - is central to postmodern tourism movements, and involves personal growth, change and fulfilment. This explains partially the motivational basis of transforming one’s consciousness in VT, which then becomes in a sense more personal than pilgrimage (Brown, 2005; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Guttentag, 2011; Mustonen, 2006; Sin, 2006).

Allon and Koleth (2014) also speak of ‘transposition’ to point out the reconfiguration of traditional conceptualizations of transformation through contemporary travel of ‘First World tourists’ across ‘Third World spaces’. Irrevocably, VT is a privileged and legitimized conduit for a reflexive process of self-discovery in the dynamism of neoliberal economies construed by a civilizational quest to transform both the Self and the world (Tomazos & Butler, 2011). However, Amit and Rapport (2012) warn us to not over-estimate the transformative role of travel.

(Self-)Development in Developmental Tourism

It has become clear that development tourism - specifically gap year VT - is a significant means of self-development, offering a variety of benefits to the voluntourist: personal development / growth; self-fulfillment and greater self-contentment; increased confidence; cultural immersion; greater awareness of the self, global inequalities, social justice and responsibility; increased communicational,

life and leadership skills; more teamwork competences; improved employability and career opportunities; better educational performance; cultural capital; global citizenship and a broadened perspective on life (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Brown, 2005; Guttentag, 2011; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Salazar, 2004; Smith, 2014; Snee, 2014; Wearing, 2001).

From this point of view, it might even make more sense to talk about VT as a form of ‘development(al) tourism’ instead of one of ‘development tourism’, or even ‘ego-tourism’, as these gap year journeys undeniably chiefly serve the traveler’s own development purposes and are less engaged with the actual development of visited communities (Salazar, 2004; Smith, 2014; Wearing, 2001).

To Be or Not To Be Cosmopolitan Through Voluntourism

A Cosmopolitan Attitude

Being cosmopolitan - as derived from the Greek word ‘*kosmopolites*’ -, literally means to be a citizen of the world. Traveling is considered ‘cosmopolitanism-as-practice’ and an important facilitator of global citizenship which offers the active opportunity to encounter cultural diversity and meanwhile experience a shared humanity. Such a cross-cultural narrative of solidarity, tolerance and appreciation for the Other enables the traveler to become a global citizen and transform his self-identity positively in the social world (Amit & Rapport, 2012; Calhoun, 2002; Lyons et al., 2012; Molz, 2005; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Smith et al., 2013; Vrasti, 2012).

Nevertheless, it cannot be assumed that travel automatically ‘broadens the mind’, and it must be questioned whether these cosmopolitan claims are not mainly self-referential and whether the willingness to engage with the Other is genuine (Brown, 2005; Simpson, 2005; Snee, 2014). Amit (2007) even argues that we must rather speak of ‘cosmocrats’ as travelers overstretch the benefits from transnationalism and live global life-styles.

A cosmopolitan attitude is indeed proliferated as an important transformative outcome of gap year VT boosting gappers’ employability, enhancing civic engagement, and emphasizing self-development, but simply consuming cross-cultural contact alone does not necessarily provide a pathway to global citizenry or political awareness (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Lyons et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013; Smith, 2014; Snee, 2014). In Sin’s research (2009) it even appeared that the objective of being a ‘well-traveled’ individual who understands the world supersedes objectives of volunteering.

Cultural Neo-Imperialism

It is important to take into account that the pathway to global citizenry often exists within neoliberal contexts. This is specifically palpable in VT where the hegemonic processes of liberalism emerge through the emphasis placed upon employability, status enhancement (and thereby also privilege and distinction), and the commodification of Western humanitarianism into increased individualized niche-consumer volunteer packages (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Lyons et al., 2012; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Vrasti, 2012).

Despite its good intentions, VT is thus a potential purveyor of western neoliberalist neoimperialism endangering the promising nature of cosmopolitanism. Although VT has a less explicit agenda, it shares dangerous similarities with the 'servant leadership model' of former imperialist movements as volunteers nobly spread their own 'modernizing' values instead of incorporating the voices of local people (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Kpinewater, 2013; McGehee, 2014; Smith, 2014).

The emergence of 'Peace Corps'-style travelers in VT is also the product of a 'guiltconscious' society that links the nostalgia of Western moral superiority with colonial historical events while promoting simplistic binaries of 'us and them' and the 'First World giver' - 'Third World receiver' discourse. This way it recreates a neo-colonial atmosphere of unequal power relations amongst voluntourists, while expressing a continued hegemonic struggle for superiority through civilizing mini-missions (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Calhoun, 2002; Callanan & Thomas, 2003; Lyons et al., 2012; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Mustonen, 2007; Salazar, 2004; Simpson, 2004 ; Snee, 2014).

Meanwhile, VT can either embrace or resist the neoliberalist ideology. In some cases, it even rejects ideas of modernization, progress and economic development as voluntourists are keen to learn from local peoples and sometimes even support pre-existing ways of life (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Lyons et al., 2012; Simpson, 2004; Wearing, 2001).

Justifying Privilege & Inequal Power Relationships

Gap years are more likely to be taken by youth from developed countries that are in a relatively privileged position - compared to individuals from the same generation in the global South - to take a year off. They possess sufficient financial resources and higher intellectualized moral skills necessary to engage in volunteer projects overseas. The question then raises whether gap year VT does not consolidate existing inequalities and power structures between 'us and them' along this global North-South divide, further promoting a Western elitist concept of cosmopolitanism (Amit, 2007; Brown,

2005; Calhoun, 2002; Giddens, 1991; Lyons et al., 2012; Simpson, 2004; Snee, 2014).

Volunteering can be considered an elite activity whereby the ‘giver’ appears superior to the inferior ‘receiver’ and seeks to distinguish himself by cumulating cultural capital, thus impoverishing the value of global citizenship as it is tied to an uneven global community. Also, voluntourists depend generally on the relative immobility of those who facilitate their journey; again creating unequal power relations as their hosts probably will never have these travel opportunities (Cresswell, 2006; Delanty, 2000; Hannerz, 1990; Kpinewater, 2013; Lyons et al., 2012; Mustonen, 2007; Snee, 2014).

Sin (2009) and Snee (2014) argue that VT fails to spread democracy and advance global citizenry, as cultural differences need to be established. The voluntourist can accordingly be categorized as a ‘strategic cosmopolitan’ in a privileged position of ‘having so much more’ placing its own cultural gains above altruistic activities of volunteering.

The Gap in Gap Years: The (In-) Consistent Gapper

A Tourist, not a Traveler

The motives of the voluntourist to engage in voluntary projects stems from a new breed of discerning tourists, who have become jaded with standardized package holidays and are searching for more alternative types of travel. However, it is widely argued that despite their intentions, contemporary travelers are still tourists (Callanan & Thomas, 2003; Munt, 1994; Snee, 2014; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

As Mostafanezhad (2014) notes, the difference between tourists and voluntourists is thus primarily that voluntourists are having ‘real’ interactions with local people, and tourists do not. Moreover, spending extended period of time abroad; using alternative, more ‘dangerous’ travel circuits; and embracing ‘real local life’ is what makes this ‘proper travel’ in opposition to mass tourism (Clifford, 1997; Sin, 2009; Snee, 2014).

McGehee (2014) goes even further by arguing that there are three segments of volunteer tourists: volunteers, voluntourists, and tourists. They have different degrees of expectations when it comes to transformative learning, as there is a distinction to make between the mindset of ‘volunteer-minded’ individuals who tend to devote more of their time volunteering as they really want to help, and ‘vacation-minded’ individuals to whom the experience is clearly a holiday with more-interest (Brown, 2005; Butler & Tomazos, 2011; Mustonen, 2007).

VT can thus be seen as a fabricated ‘pseudo -travel-event’, confirming one’s worldview rather than transforming it as it is not very purposeful, and local communities sometimes resent voluntourists who lack these qualities. This way, they might even become unwanted travelers/tourists (Boorstin, 1964; Galani-Moutafi, 2000; Mustonen, 2006).

The ‘Poor-but-Happy’ Other

Voluntourists are not just interested in meeting the exotic Other as an object to be viewed, but are rather engaged in having meaningful contact with local people. However, the constructed relationship between ‘host’ and ‘guest’ is largely commercial and asymmetrical, as one is at work while the other is at leisure (Brown, 2005; Dalwai & Donegan, 2012;; Gmelch, 2010, 2012; Nash, 1989; Spencer, 2008).

Although voluntourists declare tolerance and appreciation for local culture, a public misguided imaginary of a fetishized ‘poor-but-happy’ Other is reproduced and stimulated by both the gap year industry as the participants themselves. This widespread romanticization of peoples is both what motivates voluntourists to engage in gap year VT as what reinforces pre-existing stereotypes and essentialist pre-held cliches of these people as it emphasizes a dichotomy of ‘them versus us’ (Mostafanezhad, 2014; Salazar, 2004; Smith et al., 2013; Simpson, 2004, 2005; Snee, 2013, 2014; Vrasti, 2012).

Wearing and Grabowski-Faulkner (2013) and Sin (2009) argue that gappers fail to see the role of their own privilege in these power-dynamics and risk becoming neo-colonialists as they present a minimal understanding of the local culture they visit. But voluntourists can also arrive at a new awareness of wealth and materialism through this gazing as they may realize through this encounter that the Western perception of happiness is being shaped by measures of success and satisfaction by material gain (Gmelch, 2012).

Avoiding ‘Third World’ Development

By Othering people of the ‘Third World’ the gap year industry perpetuates the neo -imperialistic idea that there is a ‘need’ for Western intervention in the global South. Simultaneously, it risks avoiding ‘real’ development as volunteering placements often lack a genuine engagement with developing issues. VT often does involve simple, commendable development aid, but the increased marketing of VT programs overlooks and degrades the discourse of critical development and charity (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Simpson, 2004; Snee, 2014).

Generally, VT involves the desire of voluntourists from developing countries to encounter people in underdeveloped countries, whom they help through volunteer projects. These altruistic desires are, however, increasingly commercialized as the gap year market expanded from nonprofit NGOs to for-profit ventures that make VT a business instead of a sustainable and responsible form of alternative tourism (Butler & Tomazos, 2011; Guttentag, 2011; Lyons et al., 2012; McGehee, 2014; Smith, 2014).

The exponential commodification of the gap year VT business thus avoids the language of 'development' as many organizations try to avoid the questioning of a long-term strategy agenda and impact of voluntourists. Letting modernist models of Westernization prevail, encourages the discourses of difference between developed and developing countries while extending pre-existing stereotypes (Dalwai & Donegan, 2012; Simpson, 2004).

The 'demonstration effect'

When the host and the guest come together, both have the opportunity to glimpse how others live and reflect on their own lives through the lives of others. Host community members generally suggest that they have culture but the Westerners have development and they can bring development to them. VT therefore promotes both economic benefits and 'cultural bastardization' through the acculturation of locals toward Western ideas and values (Brennan, 2010; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Pruitt & La Font, 2010).

Tourism exposes local people of modest means to a tourist lifestyle, which is appealing because it is based on the consumption of luxuries and leisure activities. This way, tourists become a reference group for the host society, providing a platform to host communities to access a middle-class lifestyle and its accompanying commodities. In that sense, the demonstration effect can produce undesirable cultural changes in attitudes, values or behavior, such as a mimicking host behavior, dependency, feelings of deprivation, drugs, crime, and prostitution (Gmelch, 2010, 2012; Guttentag, 2011; Salazar, 2004; Wearing & Grabowski- Faulkner, 2013).

Drawing Up The Balance : Negotiating Harm and Altruism

To Hell with Good Intentions

A growing body of scholars argues that gap year VT might well have good intentions, but may do more harm than good. Moreover, it has become clear that intentionality is not enough. It is often said that 'doing something is better than doing nothing', but the normative assumption that volunteering is

automatically a ‘good thing’ should be problematized as VT has the potential to produce (unintended) negative impacts (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Guttentag, 2011; Lyons et al., 2012; Papi, 2013a, 2013b; Snee, 2013; McGehee, 2014; Mustonen, 2007; Snee, 2013).

Other than that of being an enthusiastic volunteering, there is often little attention paid to appropriate skills, qualifications and knowledge that are critical to produce ‘effective help’ and altruistic intent. The lack of requirement for any expertise limits the volunteers’ contribution, and together with the neglect of local needs, this may even undermine the local labor market or create dependency (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Guttentag, 2011; Simpson, 2005; Smith, 2014; Snee, 2014).

Furthermore, it must be noted that it is not the act of VT itself which is problematic, but rather the commercialization of the gap year sector and the current sort of programs offered to travel to developing countries. Notwithstanding, it is too strong to argue that all VT is bad amongst a diversity of non-profit and for-profit VT facilitators (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Salazar, 2004; Snee, 2014).

Money Talks as the Ego Walks

An important facet of ‘the good’ that VT intends to do has to deal with financial assistance as voluntourists usually pay significant fees for their volunteering opportunities abroad. These payments supposed to be donated to local communities, but it is often unclear where this money goes to. The fact that few volunteers have knowledge, or express curiosity about these transfers implies that a critical engagement with host communities is ignored and self-transformation predominates (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Sin, 2009; Smith, 2014).

Also, the altruistic intentions of voluntourists obfuscate that VT may be a self-interested act of consumption. Money thus creates an expression of power exercised by the voluntourist, because it could potentially pay much more local labor than the individual voluntourist could ever provide. This is another proof that voluntourists premise personal gains above contributions to local development (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Butcher & Smith, 2010; Sin, 2009; Smith, 2014).

Reciprocal Altruism or Mere Egoism?

As it is difficult to estimate whether ‘doing good for the Other’ or ‘doing good for the Self’ is the main motivator in VT, it should be questioned whether this engagement is not egoistic rather than altruistic (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Mustonen, 2007; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

As VT has its roots in volunteerism, it implies that benefactors perform acts that serve the needs of others with no personal gain in mind. To be considered a volunteer, one must place altruistic motives central and act like a catalyst for peace. VT provides opportunities for ‘giving back’, ‘doing something worthwhile’ and ‘making a difference’ (Allon & Koleth, 2014; Brown, 2005; Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Butler & Tomazos, 2011; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; McGehee, 2014; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Mustonen, 2006, 2007; Snee, 2014; Tomazos & Butler, 2010; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

Nevertheless, the volunteer usually also benefits from their volunteering in terms of gaining cultural capital, building one’s CV, and developing skills (Butcher & Smith, 2010; Mostafanezhad, 2014; Mustonen, 2007; Smith, et al., 2013). Hence it is argued that we should nuance it to a ‘reciprocal altruism’ or even ‘altruistic tourism’ (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Lyons et al., 2012). Indeed, voluntourists are more likely to be influenced by multiple motivational factors such as cultural immersion, giving back, seeking camaraderie, career advancement and creating educational opportunities (Brown, 2005; Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Guttentag, 2011; Sin, 2009; Wearing & Grabowski-Faulkner, 2013).

Salazar (2004: 92) spelled out that “*philanthropic aspirations often mask hard-nosed, immediate self-interest*”. Indeed, VT represents a form of ‘social egoism’ - helping others but for the purpose of ultimately benefiting oneself - as there are perhaps as many selfish reasons as altruistic ones. The voluntourists’ highly egoistical behavior is marked by self-directed desires such as self-actualization, self-development, leisure-seeking and status-enhancement (Coghlan & Fennell, 2009; Mustonen, 2006; Sin, 2009; Wearing, 2004).

Conclusively, I argue that it is wise to recognize an fluctuation somewhere between altruism and egoism in VT as volunteer holiday-making can be both self-directed as other directed (Brown, 2005; Mustonen, 2007).

Conclusion & Future Prospects

"All men are heroes...in dreams" - (*Sigmund Freud*)

This paper has critically reviewed a broad range of academic literature on VT from an anthropological perspective. It has introduced the concepts ‘gap year’ and ‘volunteer tourism’ (VT). A broader view on these topics was presented in a literature study by exploring the role of gap year VT as a postmodern rite of passage, form of secular pilgrimage and its contemporary notion as transformational journey.

It examined that by shaping environments for self-discovery and self-development, volunteer tourists can shape a cosmopolitan attitude or identity as global citizens. However, the dangers (called: '*gaps*' in this paper) of unfairly justifying their privilege and positioning oneself as superior in the power discourse of 'First-World giver' and 'Third-World receiver', created the risk of gazing the Other and avoiding actual development to communities while developing only the Self, by stimulating existing neo-imperialistic / neo-liberal discourses, re-confirming existing stereotypes and spreading the so called 'demonstration effect' as neo-colonial subjects.

A balance was made up by negotiating altruism and egoism carefully, and describing the underlying motivational factors of volunteer tourists into detail. It was outlined that there is a clear distinction to make between volunteer-minded and vacation-minded volunteer tourists. Despite all of them sharing good intentions, VT proves to be ambivalent and risks troubling expected outcomes.

It has thus become clear that there is no straight answer whether VT is good or bad, and that we must not automatically accept common-sense ideas of VT (Mustonen, 2007; Snee, 2014). Extended empirical studies with volunteer tourists may tell us more about the (in)consistency of gap year VT, thus further exploring this ultimate question by anthropologists in the future.

I also want to emphasize the relevance of further VT studies for social sciences, as it they are important to anticipate VT effects on both participants as host communities, and to instigate a more positive future for VT as it becomes clear that there is a need for more responsible VT practices. Obviously, gap years do not automatically foster a cosmopolitan attitude and implicate a problematic relationship with an eroticized 'Other' (Snee, 2014).

Re-conceptualizing VT as suggested by McGehee (2014) into "transformative learning", or by Papi (2013 a) and Sin (2009) into "service learning", by challenging young travelers to learn and develop responsible cross-cultural competences through active participation in thoughtfully organized experiences that do not damage communities but meet their actual needs, may foster a positive transformation of VT as an alternative niche tourism market itself.

VT indubitably has the potential to influence and facilitate positive social change. I call for more pedagogically-informed responsible gap year VT program suppliers, and recommend stressing the educational and transformative aspects in these travel-based programs if this industry wants to become the ultimate sustainable form of tourism (McGehee, 2014; Snee, 2014).

References

- Allon, F., & Koleth, M. (2014). Doing Good: Transforming the Self by Transforming the World. In: Lean, G., Staiff, R., & Waterton, E. (eds.), *Travel and Transformation* (pp. 5771). Farnham: Asghate.
- Amit, V. (2007). Going first class? New approaches to privileged travel and movement. *Oxford: Berghahn*.
- Amit, V., & Rapport, N. (2012). Community, cosmopolitanism and the problem of human commonality. *London: Pluto Press*.
- Beckstead, Z. (2010). Liminality in acculturation and pilgrimage: When movement becomes meaningful. In: *Culture & Psychology*, 16(3), 383-393.
- Boorstin, D. (1964). From traveler to tourist: The lost art of travel. In: D. Boorstin (Ed.), *The image: A guide to pseudo-events in American society* (pp. 77-117). New York: Atheneum.
- Brown, S. (2005). Travelling with a Purpose: Understanding the Motives and Benefits of Volunteer Vacationers. In: *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8(6), 479-496.
- Bussell, H., & Forbes, D. (2002). Understanding the volunteer market: The What, Where, Who and Why of Volunteering. *International Journal of Non-Profit and Volunteer Sector Marketing*, 7(3), 244-257.
- Butcher, J., & Smith, P. (2010). 'Making a Difference': Volunteer Tourism and Development. In: *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35(1), 27-36.
- Butler, R., & Tomazos, K. (2011). Volunteer tourism: altruism, empathy or self enhancement? In: *New Problems in Tourism*, 1(4), 1-22.
- Callanan, M., & Thomas, S. (2003). Volunteer Tourism. In M. Novelli (Ed.), *Niche Tourism - Contemporary Issues, Trends and Cases* (pp. 183-200). Oxford: Linacre House.
- Calhoun, C. (2002). The class consciousness of frequent travelers: Toward a critique of actually existing cosmopolitanism. In: *The South Atlantic Quarterly*, 101(4), 869-897.
- Clifford, J. (1997). Routes: Travel and translation in the late twentieth century. *Cambridge: Harvard University Press*.
- Coghlan, A., & Fennell, D. (2009). Myth or substance: An examination of altruism as the basis of volunteer tourism. In: *Annals of Leisure Research*, 12(3-4), 377-402.
- Coleman, S., & Eade, J. (2004). *Reframing pilgrimage: Cultures in motion*. London: Routledge.
- Collins-Kreiner N. & Kliot N. (2000). Pilgrimage tourism in the holy land: the behavioural characteristics of Christian pilgrims. In: *Geo-Journal*, 50, 55-67.
- Cresswell, T. (2006). On the move: Mobility in the modern Western world. *London: Routledge*.
- Dalwai, S., & Donegan, B. (2012). From travelers to activist global citizens? Practitioner reflections on an activist/volunteer tourist project. In: *Journal of Tourism Consumption and Practice*, 4(1), 5-29.
- Delanty, G. (2000). *Citizenship in a Global Age. Society, Culture, Politics*. Buckingham: Open Univeristy Press.
- Galani-Moutafi, V. (2000). The self and the other: Traveler, ethnographer, tourist. In: *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 203-224.

- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Gmelch, S.B. (2010). *Tourists and Tourism: A Reader - Second Edition*. Long Grove: Waveland Press Inc.
- Gmelch, G. (2012). *Behind the Smile - The Working lives of Caribbean Tourism*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Gothi, R. (1993). Pilgrimage = Transformation Journey. In: *The Problem of Ritual*. Ahlback, T. Abo: The Donner Institute for Research in Religious and Cultural History.
- Graburn, N. H. H. (1983). The Anthropology of Tourism. In: *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10(1), 9-33.
- Graburn, N. (1989). The Sacred Journey. In: V. L. Smith (Ed.), *Hosts and Guests. The Anthropology of Tourism* (pp. 17-32). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania.
- Graburn, N. (2001). Tourism as Ritual: A General Theory of Tourism. Host and Guests Rvisited: Tourism Issues of the 21st Century. In: S. B. Gmelch (Ed.), *Tourists and Tourism: A Reader* (pp. 42-50). Long Grove: Waveland.
- Guttentag, D. (2011). Volunteer Tourism: As Good as It Seems? In: *Tourism Recreation Research*, 36(1), 69-74.
- Hannerz, U. (1990). Cosmopolitans and Locals in a World Culture. In: M. Featherstone (Ed.), *Global Culture: Nationalism, Globalization and Modernity* (pp. 237-252). London: Sage.
- Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2000). *Millenials Rising: The Next Great Generation*. New York: Random House, Inc.
- Jones, A. (2004). *Review of Gap Year Provision*. In: Research Report 555, Department for Eduaction and Skills.
- Kpinewater (2013). Voluntourism as a Form of Neo-Imperialism: Commodifying and Infantilizing Developing Countries to Perpetuate Global Hierarchies. Consulted on 26 December 2015 via <https://kpinewater.wordpress.com/2013/03/03/voluntourism-as-a-form-of-neo-imperialism-commodifying-and-infantilizing-developing-countries-to-perpetuate-global-hierarchies/>
- Lyons, K., & Wearing, S. (2008). Volunteer tourism as alternative tourism: journeys beyond otherness. In: K. Lyons & S. Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of discovery in volunteer tourism* (pp. 3-11). Wallingford: CABI.
- Lyons, K., Hanley, J., Wearing, S., & Neil, J. (2012). Gap year volunteer tourism: Myths of global citizenship? In: *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 361-378.
- Maslow, A.H. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- McGehee, N. G. (2014). Volunteer Tourism: evolution, issues, and futures. In: *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(6), 847-854.
- Michiels, F. (2015, January 2). Generation H: Jonge Hipo's willen maar een Ding. *De Morgen*. Consulted on 7 April, 2015 via <http://www.demorgen.be/binnenland/generation-h-jonge-hipo-s-willen-maar-een-ding-a2169044/>
- Molz, J. G. (2005). Getting a 'flexible eye': Round-the-world travel and scales of cosmopolitan citizenship. In: *Citizenship Studies* 9(5), 517-531.

- Monsutti, A. (2007). Migration as a rite of passage: Young Afghans building masculinity and adulthood in Iran. In: *Iranian Studies*, 40(2), 167-185.
- Mostafanezhad, M. (2014). Volunteer Tourism: Popular Humanitarianism in Neoliberal Times - New Directions in Tourism Analysis. Surrey: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Munt, I. (1994). The 'other' postmodern tourism: Culture, travel and the new middle classes. In: *Theory, Culture and Society*, 11(3), 101-123.
- Mustonen, P. (2006). Volunteer Tourism: Postmodern Pilgrimage? In: *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 3(3), 160-177.
- Mustonen, P. (2007). Volunteer Tourism: Altruism or Mere Tourism? In: *Anatolia* 18(1), 97-115.
- Nash, D. (1989). Tourism as a Form of Imperialism. In V.L. Smith (Ed.), *Hosts and Guests - The Anthropology of Tourism* (pp. 37-52). Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Papi, D. (2013a). Learning Service - What's wrong with volunteer travel? Consulted on 14 December 2014 via <https://startempathy.org/blog/2013/01/learning-service-what%E2%80%99s-wrong-volunteer-travel>
- Papi, D. (2013b). Viewpoint: Is gap year volunteering a bad thing? Consulted on 22 December 2015 via <http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-22294205>
- Pearce, P. L., & Coghlan, A. (2008). The dynamics behind volunteer tourism. In: D. Lyons & S. Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of discovery in volunteer tourism: international case study perspectives* (pp. 130-143). Wallingford: CABI.
- Salazar, N.B. (2004). Developmental Tourists vs. Development Tourism: A Case Study. In: A. Raj (Ed.), *Tourist Behaviour: A psychological Perspective* (pp. 85-107). New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers.
- Simpson, K. (2004). Doing Development: The Gap Year, Volunteer-Tourists and a Popular Practice of Development. In: *Journal of International Development* 16, 681-692.
- Simpson, K. (2005). Dropping out or signing up? The professionalization of youth travel. In: *Antipode* 37(3), 447-469.
- Sin, H. L. (2009). Volunteer Tourism - "Involve me and I will learn"? In: *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(3), 480-501.
- Singh, S. (2005). Secular pilgrimages and sacred tourism in the Indian Himalayas. In: *GeoJournal* 64, 215-223.
- Smith, P. (2014). International volunteer tourism as (de)commodified moral consumption. In: Mostafanezhad, M., & Hannam, K. (eds.). *Moral Encounters in Tourism. Current Developments in the Geographies of Leisure and Tourism* (pp. 31-46). Aldgate: Ashgate.
- Smith, M. B., Laurie, N., Hopkins, P., & Olson, E. (2013). International volunteering, faith and subjectivity: negotiating cosmopolitanism, citizenship and development. In: *Geoforum*, 45, 126-135.
- Snee, H. (2013). Framing the Other: cosmopolitanism and the representation of difference in overseas gap year narratives. In: *The British Journal of Sociology*, 64(1), 142-162.
- Snee, H. (2014). A Cosmopolitan Journey? Difference, Distinction and Identity Work in Gap Year Travel. Surrey: Ashgate Publishing Limited.

- Spencer, R. (2008). Lessons from Cuba: A Volunteer Army of Ambassadors. In K.D. Lyons, & S. Wearing (Eds.), *Journeys of Discovery in Volunteer Tourism: International Case Study Perspectives* (pp. 36-47). Oxfordshire: CABI.
- Tomazos, K., & Butler, R. (2010). The volunteer tourist as 'hero'. In: *Current Issues in Tourism* 13(4), 363-380.
- TRAM - Tourism Research and Marketing Group. (2008). *Volunteer Tourism: A Global Analysis*. Consulted on 7 April, 2015 via http://www.atlas-euro.org/sig_volunteer.aspx
- Turner, V. (1967). Betwixt and Between. The liminal period in Rites de Passage. In: V. Turner, *The Forst of Symbols. Aspects of Ndembu Ritual* (pp. 93-111). Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press.
- Turner, V. (1974a). *The Ritual Proces*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Turner, V. (1974b). Liminal to Liminoid, in Play, Flow, and Ritual: An Essay in Comparative Symbolology. In: *Rice Institute Pamphlet - Rice University Studies*, 60(3), 5392.
- Turner, V., & Turner, E. (1978). *Images and Pilgrimage in Christian Culture: Anthropological Perspectives*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Van Gennep, A. (1960). *The Rites of Passage*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Vrasti, W. (2012). *Volunteer Tourism in the Global South*. London and New York: Routledge, Taylor Francis Group.
- Wearing, S. (2001). *Volunteer Tourism: Experiences that Make a Difference*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- Wearing, S. (2004). Examining Best Practice in Volunteer Tourism. In: R. A. Stebbins & R. T. Graham (Eds.), *Volunteering as Leisure / Leisure as Volunteering* (pp. 209-224). Wallingford: UK.
- Wearing, S., & Grabowski-Faulkner, S. (2013). Religiosity and volunteer tourism in Kenya. In: L. Blanchard & F. Higgins-Desbiolles (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism: Promoting Human Security through International Citizenship* (pp. 171-189). London: Routledge.

CHARACTERISTICS AND WORK MOTIVATIONS OF GOREME TOURISM ENTREPRENEURS

Emine Kale

Nevsehir Haci Bektas Veli University/Tourism Faculty, Nevsehir, Turkey

ABSTRACT

This study aims to identify the characteristics of small scale tourism enterprise in Goreme town and their work motivations. Data was collected with the questionnaire technique. Questionnaire was applied to 126 small-scale tourism enterprisers situated in Nevsehir, Goreme town. As for enterprisers, they are family organizations with background over 10 years. Majority of them accommodation facilities composed of pension and hostels.

Enterprisers have been found to start business life to evaluate the opportunities, be stimulated with economical factors, protect family heritage, to set up business, give importance to financial success.

Key Words: Enterprise, Tourism Enterprise, Small Scale Enterprises

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is of vital importance as it is dynamical power for development of economy. Small sized enterprises are in the position of economy's backbone in terms of the contribution it makes both to end-consumer and industrial consumers. Importance of small sized tourism entrepreneurship cannot be ignored for tourism sector as well. Effect of tourism on economy is strong both globally and regionally. Considering its contribution to other sectors too, being successful of tourism entrepreneurs is a necessity. Today, entrepreneurship has great significance to meet changing needs and requirements of customer, keep up with complex marketing conditions and create competition advantage.

Even though tourism enterprises consist of large enterprises in some destinations, small and medium sized enterprises grab attention in many destinations. The number of small tourism and accommodation enterprises which are operated by family is high in many countries and such enterprises make contribution for revealing and understanding of entrepreneurial ideas (Shaw & Williams, 2004: 99). Nevertheless, it is seen that the researches aimed at small enterprises and

entrepreneurs are insufficient. (Ateljevic & Page 2009; Ioannides & Petersen 2003; Li, 2008). Small and medium sized tourism enterprises contribute the development of local economy substantially in many regions. (Glancey & Pettigrew, 1997, p. 21) Identification of the characteristics of tourism enterprises also gives assistance for understanding this contribution. For instance, Russel & Faulkner (2004) has associated development of tourism entrepreneurship in a region with the characteristics of tourism entrepreneurs, environmental conditions and life step of destination. Barr (1990) has also stated that local entrepreneurs have an important role in development period of destination and the immigrant entrepreneurs in later periods. Therefore, explanation of tourism development in destination also depends on understanding of the characteristics of entrepreneurs.

In the motive of starting to work of tourism entrepreneurs, different factors as well as economic factors come to the forefront. Desire of being boss of its own job, establishing its own work in a small place rather than working in stressful city enterprise, keeping family together, supporting leisure interests are some of these (Skokic & Morrison, 2011, p.5). Glancey and Pettigrew (1997, p. 23) has dealt the motives of starting to work under two main groups: the factors such as dismissal, job insecurity, obtaining additional income, etc. constitutes driving factors, the factors like desire of being boss of its own job, attaining high income, catching business opportunity, retirement project, etc. forms attractive factors. Most of the sample in their research (65%) is motivated with attractive factors. The most important motives are established as having economic independence and keeping family job in the study of Jaafar et al. (2011). The factors that motivate rural tourism entrepreneurs are also described as providing job to family members, earning extra income, meeting marketing need, communication with customers, enhancing hobby and using tourism resources like farm (Schroeder, 2003: 9).

Sustaining lifestyle creates a significant starting point for tourism entrepreneurs (Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Szivas, 2001; Peters et al., 2009). Lifestyle entrepreneurs are defined as the persons who have got or operate the jobs related to their own personal values, belief, interest, passions (Marcketti, 2006), objectives (Tregear, 2005) rather than economic factors like growth (Tregear, 2005). Driving factors for lifestyle entrepreneurs are the need of setting up lifestyle, need for exceeding problems of market, forming a financial bridge between employment and retirement, family related duties. Attractive factors are: escape from city environment/more quality lifestyle, transition from an institutional job career to freer career, balance of work- life and more quality family life, experience of a different place and activity (Morrison et al., 2008:5-6). Lardies (1999) has set forth that

immigrant entrepreneurs are mostly motivated by attractive factors.

Different models of entrepreneurship attract attention in tourism sector: Shaw and Williams (1998: 253) have drawn attention to two distinct models of entrepreneurship of small tourism and accommodation enterprises which is closely related to lifestyle entrepreneurship. First one comprises business owners who act in tourism destinations due to non-economic reasons combined with deficiency of work experience in general. This group is called as those who are not entrepreneur. Second one is restricted entrepreneurs. Most of those are young entrepreneurs and motivated with economic motives emanating from more professionalism but has no job background at large extent. They are restricted with job skill and absence of capital. Glancey and Pettigrew (1997: 23-24), in the study conducted for small hotel enterprises in a Scotch city, have merged characteristics and motivations of entrepreneurs with “opportunistic entrepreneur” in general and described them as “portfolio entrepreneur”, detecting that most of them show interest in other jobs too. Those display inclination of merging with job centred entrepreneurs in other sectors.

In addition to “master” and “opportunistic” entrepreneurs in tourism sector, other category may be indicated as “humanitarian entrepreneurs”. Those entrepreneurs have the objective of integration with people and satisfying employees. Success criterion for them is satisfaction of customer and employees. Although characteristics of opportunistic and master entrepreneurs are separated distinctively in a research on 161 restaurant entrepreneurs in South California, it has emerged that humanitarian property is seen across sample (Williams & Tse, 1995: 23).

This study has the aim of uncovering the demographic features, objectives of starting to work and the motivation towards job of the tourism entrepreneurs in Goreme and determining if there is a difference in their motivation according to demographic data. Reason for selecting Goreme city is that it is at the central location of Cappadocia Region which is a significant destination with the share it has taken from Turkish tourism. The importance of the destination that is distinguished with belief and culture tourism increases more through being one of spreading centres of Christianity, having underground cities and hundreds of rock churches that first Christians carve in rock, being registered in UNESCO World Heritage of Goreme Open Air Museum both as culturally and naturally. However, transfer of traditional cultural values up to today without losing their essence and its combination with today contemporary understanding enhances attractiveness of the destination. Goreme has got the most original accommodation businesses of the district that is made up of

decoration again in modern style of conventional caves and arched houses in line with small scaled district. Similarly, other tourism establishments (souvenir, restaurant, recreation, etc.) are small scaled enterprises that also render services comply with the district. (www.goreme.bel.tr). Producing information for the characteristics of Goreme tourism entrepreneurship will be beneficial from the point of both realizing current situation and implications for the future. Especially, it may also be beneficial for tourism entrepreneurs who have idea of establishing a new business in Goreme.

METHOD

This research aims at determining the profile of tourism entrepreneurs in Goreme, a significant touristic city of Cappadocia region and establishing their motivations towards job. As it has the aim of identifying a situation, it has the feature of a descriptive research. Entrepreneurs of the tourism establishments in Nevsehir- Goreme city is the population of the research. All of the population is taken within the scope of research. 186 tourism firms (hotel, pension, souvenir, balloon, restaurant, cafe, bar, pastry shop, travel agency, rent a car, carpet sale) which are found in internet site of Goreme Municipality constitute research area. Survey technique is benefited for collection of research data. By interviewing with business owner and one of partners in enterprises, objective of the research has been clarified and surveys are applied face to face by researcher. At the end of the research, 126 usable surveys are produced. Return rate of the surveys is 68%.

Principally, it is made use of the studies of Getz and Carlsen (2000), Getz and Petersen (2005) for preparation of questionnaire form. Questionnaire form is composed of 2 parts. In the first part, the questions towards business and entrepreneurs are available. In order to ensure understanding of characteristics of tourism entrepreneurship, questions of this part are kept comprehensive and other entrepreneurship studies in literature are also considered for preparation of questions. In the second part, the questions intended for measuring importance of motivation for job of entrepreneurs exist. Opinions of the academicians, expert of subject matter and the entrepreneurs in the sector are utilized for evaluation of intelligibility of expression and the preparation of questionnaire form. Pilot study is applied on 15 persons and the corrections that raise clarity of questions are made.

FINDINGS

Demographic particulars of participants and the information on businesses are given in Table 1.

36,4% of the participants are at the age between 36-45. 28,6% of that covers the participants at the age between 26-35 and 46-55. From these findings, it may be said that most of the entrepreneurs in Goreme is at medium age group. A similar finding is also obtained from a research conducted to establish profile of entrepreneur in Elazig. (Ilhan, 2005). When gender of the participants is looked at, it is observed that an important part (92,1%) is man. This finding demonstrates that women entrepreneurs are not still at enough level and support the former studies in Turkey (Avcikurt, 2003; Ilhan, 2005; Karadeniz & Yilmaz, 2009). A considerable part of the participants is married (83,3%). This finding is in parallel with other studies related to tourism entrepreneurs (Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Getz & Petersen, 2005). More than half of the participants are high school graduate (56,6%). Quite low number of university graduate is witnessed (9,5%). This finding shows similarity to the conclusions of many studies (Bozkurt et al., 2012; Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Jaafar et al. 2010, 2011). When the age of starting to first entrepreneurship by the participants is analysed, it seems that great part (51,6%) has started to entrepreneurship at the age 25 and below, namely at a young age. It is identified that most of the participants (70,6%) were born in Goreme and again, the majority (75,4%) has commenced to entrepreneurship firstly in Goreme. Considering former jobs of the participants, it is seen that half of those (50%) has worked in private sector. The rate of those who have worked in their business is 32,5% too.

Table 1: The Information on Characteristics of Small Scales Tourism Entrepreneurs (N:126)

Variables	F	(%)	Variables	F	(%)
Age			Age of starting to		
Age 25 and below	3	2,4	Entrepreneurship firstly		
Age 26-35	36	28,6	Age 25 and below	65	51,6
Age 36-45	46	36,4	Age 26-30	38	30,2
Age 46-55	36	28,6	Age 31 and above	23	18,2
Age 56 and above	5	4,0			
Gender			Place of birth		
Woman	10	7,9	Goreme	89	70,6
Man	116	92,1	Outside Goreme	37	29,4
Marital Status			Place of starting to first		
Single	21	16,7	entrepreneurship		
Married	105	83,3	Goreme	95	75,4
			Outside Goreme	31	24,6
Education			Working area before		
Primary education	44	34,9	business		
High school and equiv. school	70	55,6	NA	18	14,3
Vocational High School	4	3,2	Mybusiness/family-run	41	32,5

College/Faculty	8	6,3	Private Sector	63	50,0
			Public Sector	4	3,2

Age for most of the businesses is more than 10 years. When shortness of life period of majority of small sized enterprises is taken into consideration, (Reynolds et al., 2000) this finding may be evaluated in a way that the businesses in Goreme have been in tourism sector for a long time and continue their success. Most of participants have founded their businesses themselves. This finding may prove that the participants take risk and have entrepreneurial characteristics. It appears that most of businesses comprise small sized family businesses (even though their legal status is individual business) and run together family members. This finding is in parallel with the ones in literature that small businesses are family run businesses (Avcikurt 2003; Getz & Carlsen, 2000; Getz & Petersen 2005).

Table 2: The Information concerning Characteristics of Businesses (N:126)

Age of business	F	%	Area of activity of business	F	%
5 years and less	25	19,8	Hotel	13	10,3
6-10 years	32	25,4	Motel	5	4,0
11-15 years	36	28,6	Pension	24	19,0
16 years and more	33	26,2	Restaurant	18	14,3
Way of establishing			Cafe/Bar/Disco/Pastry	13	10,3
I founded myself	99	78,6	Travel Agency	9	7,1
I took over	15	11,9	Souvenir	22	17,5
Family inheritance	7	5,6	Carpet Sale	7	5,6
I become partner	5	4,0	Other (Rent a Car, Balloon, Bath, Leather Sale, Buffet, etc.)	15	11,9
Family Members Working in Business			Number of the Person Working in Business (except Family Members)		
NA	46	36,5	NA	3	2,4
My spouse	17	13,5	1 Person	27	21,4
My children	25	19,8	2 Persons	34	27,0
My sibling	17	13,5	3 Persons	17	13,5
My father	9	7,1	4 Persons	10	7,9
My spouse and sibling	3	2,4	5-10 Persons	26	20,6
My spouse and children	6	4,8	More than 10 Persons	9	7,1
My mother and father	3	2,4	Status of Business		
			Individual Business	107	84,9
			Family Business	11	8,7
			Multi-Partnered	8	6,3

When objective of establishing business by the participant is analysed, it is seen that 37% make investment in as open market within area. Those are the entrepreneurs named as “opportunistic entrepreneurs”. 33% of the participants have entered on entrepreneurship as they see a job opportunity/investment. Those are the entrepreneurs motivated economically. 20% of the participants consist of “lifestyle entrepreneurs” who do business in the direction of lifestyle. The “master entrepreneurs” who carry on business as per their experience is in the minority. (5,6%). In a study made in Australia by Getz and Carlsen (2000), “doing business suited to lifestyle” forms first objective, “seeing as job opportunity/investment”, second one. In a study conducted on two destinations in Canada and Denmark by Getz and Petersen (2005), it is determined that business establishing objectives towards lifestyle are the most important for both destinations. In the study done on small and medium sized hotel entrepreneurs in Malaysia by Jafaar (2011), the most significant objective for starting to business by entrepreneurs is seen “gaining economic independence” and “keeping family business”.

Table 3: Objectives of Establishing Business by Entrepreneurs

Objectives of Establishing Business	F	%
Seeing as business opportunity/investment	42	33,3
Doing business as per lifestyle	25	19,8
Perceiving an open market in this area	47	37,3
Doing business in the direction of their experience	7	5,6
Retirement project	2	1,6
liking for meeting with different people	-	-
failing to find a suitable job to work	3	2,4

The expressions related to motivation towards business of the participants are given in Table 4. The highest motivation factors of participants are to protect family inheritance (96,8%), being boss of its own business (86,9%), gaining financial independence (92,5%). The least motivation factors are keeping family together (73,1%), motive for challenge (67,8%). According to these findings, important motivation of participants is pertinent to family inheritance and material elements. Different from these findings, in the study of Getz and Carlsen (1999), the factors that motivates entrepreneurs most are “living in the right environment” and “to enjoy a good lifestyle”, “to meet interesting people” respectively.

Table 4: Business Oriented Motivations of Participants

Variables	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Ave.	St. Deviation
To keep this property in the Family	-	-	3.2	34.1	62.7	4.59	.553
To be my own boss			11.1	20.6	68.3	4.57	.686
To permit me to become financially independent	0.8	1.6	4.8	32.5	60.3	4.50	.734
To support my/our leisure Interests	-	-	7.1	43.7	49.2	4.42	.624
Gain prestige by operating a-		-	8.7	40.5	50.8	4.42	.649
To meet interesting people	-	-	11.1	39.7	49.2	4.38	.679
To enjoy a good lifestyle	-	0.8	11.9	37.3	50.0	4.36	.772
To provide a retirement-		11.1	10.3	10.3	68.3	4.35	1.054
To make lots of Money	1.6	0.8	15.1	42.1	40.5	4.19	.836
To live in the right-		10.3	15.9	36.5	37.3	4.00	.975
To keep my family together	7.9	5.6	13.5	31.0	42.1	3.93	1.224
To provide me with a	13.5	4.8	13.5	21.4	46.8	3.83	1.412

1) Not at all important, 5) Very important

With the aim of testing if there is any difference between motivations of participants as per gender, marital status, age, education and objective of establishing business by entrepreneurs, Mann-Wihtney U and Kruskal Wallis H test are utilized. As no scale articles show normal distribution, nonparametric test is used. The expressions containing difference are stated in Table 5.

Difference is identified in the expression “to support my/our leisure interests” by gender. According to this finding, men pay more attention to convert leisure interest into business.

A difference in favour of the married is seen for the expression “to keep this property in the family” in terms of marital status. The married attaches more importance to protect family inheritance. The singles place emphasis mostly on “being boss of his/her own business” and “to enjoy a good lifestyle”.

When differences are reviewed from the point of birth place, while those born in Goreme care about “to provide a retirement income”, “to provide me with a challenge”, those born outside Goreme mind “to support my/our leisure interests”.

When an analysis is made according to the objective of establishing business, it is revealed that lifestyle entrepreneurs do not care keeping property in the family much. At the same time, those who have the objective of business opportunity/investment do not mind supporting leisure interests.

When differences are examined by age of the participants, difference is ascertained on “living in the right environment”. No the youth under age 25 find this subject important sufficiently compared to other age groups.

When educational differences are considered, while university graduates do not regard “keeping

Variables	Gender	N	mean rank	Mann Whitney U	Z	P-
To support my/our leisure	Woman	10	42,85	373,500	2,087	,037*

family together” an adequate motivation factor, primary education graduates do not see “gaining prestige by operating a business” as a significant motivation factor”.

Table 5: Differences for Business Oriented Motivations by Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Interests	Man	116	65,28			
Variables	Marital status	N	mean	Mann Z p. Whitney U ’		
To keep this property in the	Single	21	47.00	756,000	2,685	,007*
To be my own boss	Single	21	76,26	834,500	-2,140	,032*
To enjoy a good lifestyle	Single	21	77,81	802,000	-2,170	,030*
Variables	Place of birth	N	mean	Mann Z p. Whitney U ’		
To support my/our leisure	Goreme	89	59,40	2.011,500	2,190	,029*
To provide a retirement	Goreme	89	68,04	1.242,500	-2,627	,009*
To provide me with a	Goreme	89	68,80	1.174,500	-2,691	,007*
Variables	As per Establishing N mean X ² s.d. p. Objective rank					
To keep this property in the	business-opp. invest. 42 72,68					
To support my/our leisure	business-opp. invest. 42 54,24 Lifestyle 25 87.36 An open market					
Variables	Age N mean X ² s.d. p.					
To live in the right	Age 25 and below 3 38,50					
Variables	Education N mean X ² s.d. p.					
To keep my family together	Primary School 44 65,67					
Gain prestige by operating a business	Primary School 44 51.77			10,234 2 ,017*		
	High School 70 70.55					
	University 12 72.94					

CONCLUSION

In this study, it is tried to designate the demographic features, objective of starting to work and business related motivations of small scaled tourism entrepreneurs. Furthermore, it is determined if work motivation of entrepreneurs differentiates according to demographic variables.

It has emerged that most of the participants are married, graduate of high school, born in Goreme and have commenced to first entrepreneurship at young ages and in Goreme. Majority of businesses are family-run businesses that have been operated for a long time. Contrary to prior studies, the motivation for starting to work by entrepreneurs is arisen from economic reasons not from doing business fit for lifestyle. The greater part has set at work with the intent of evaluating a gap in the market. Those who get to work with the aim of business opportunity and investment takes the second place. The target of doing business suited to lifestyle takes the third place.

However, doing a business liked is regarded important (more for men) as much as economic factors.

In consequence of this study, it is revealed that the entrepreneurs in Goreme place more emphasis on economic matters. The entrepreneurs are rather centred on growth and increasing profitability. This circumstance is advantageous for development of Goreme tourism, maintaining their life, raising the contribution to regional economy by small scaled enterprises. Even though attention is paid on continuing lifestyle, sharing responsibility of business with family, living in the right environment, these matters are not found at expected level. In the wake of these results, paying regard to sustainability principles in growing as well as being profit and opportunity focused may be recommended to entrepreneurs.

Progress of small scales tourism entrepreneurship in Goreme is of significance for the region. In general, it is seen that the number of tourists coming to Cappadocia Region steps up as by years. (while it was 746.000 in 2007, it become 905.000 in 2014 by increasing gradually). In parallel with that, number of staying overnight and tourism revenues also go up. Increase is experienced every passing year in the number of tourists who prefer small accommodation facilities such as hostel, boutique and hotel with private certificate, etc. (<http://www.ktbyatirimisletmeler.gov.tr>). Considering these variables, development of small scaled businesses in Goreme will also contribute for meeting customer requests in more qualified way as over and above economic returns to the region. In the same time, it shall create opportunity to develop tourism in sense of sustainability without damaging the environment.

Since this study involves only the sample of Goreme entrepreneurs, in order for generalizing the conclusions of the research, more detailed studies in different destinations are needed. Next studies may also cover establishing the profiles of tourism entrepreneurs in addition to reasons of success and failure.

REFERENCES

- Ateljevic, J. ve Page, S. (2009). Introduction. In J. Ateljevic ve S. Page (Eds) *Tourism ve Entrepreneurship: International Perspectives*. Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann: 1-6.
- Ateljevic, J., & Doorne, S. (2000). Lifestyle entrepreneurship in tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 8(5), 378-392.
- Avcikurt, C. (2003). Auditing managerial training needs of Turkish small and medium-sized hotel enterprises. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 18 (5), 399-404.
- Barr, T., (1990). From Quirky Islanders to entrepreneurial magnates: The transition of the whitsundays. *Journal of Tourism Studies* 1 (2), 26-32.
- Bozkurt, O., Kalkan A., Koyuncu O. Ve Alparslan A. (2012). Turkiyede girişimciligin gelişimi: Girişimciler üzerine nitel bir araştırma. *Suleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 15: 229-247.
- Getz, D. & Carlsen, J. (2000). Characteristics and goals of family and owner-operated businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors. *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 547-560.
- Getz, D. & Petersen, T. (2005). Growth and profit oriented entrepreneurship among family business owners in the tourism and hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 24(2), 219-242.
- Glancey, K. & Pettigrew, M. (1997). Entrepreneurship in the small hotel sector. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 9(1), 21-24.
- <http://www.ktbyatirimisletmeler.gov.tr/TR,9851/turizm-istatistikleri.html>
- Ioannides, D. & Petersen, T. (2003). Tourism ‘non-entrepreneurship’ in peripheral destinations: A case study of small and medium tourism enterprises on Bornholm, Denmark. *Tourism Geographies*, 5(4), 408-435.
- ilhan, S. (2005). Bazi değişkenler agisindan Elazig’da girişimci profili. *Firat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 15(1), 217-248.
- Jaafar, M., Abdul-Aziz, A.R., Maideen, S. A., Mohd, S. Z. (2011). Entrepreneurship in the tourism industry: Issues in developing countries. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30 (4), 827-835.
- Jaafar, M., Maideen, A. J. & Sukarno, S. Z. M. (2010). Entrepreneurial characteristics of small and medium hotel owner-managers. *World Applied Sciences Journal 10 (Special Issue of Tourism & Hospitality)*: 54-62.
- Karadeniz, E., Yilmaz O. (2009). Entrepreneurial activities in Turkey: An international comparasion using gem data. *Bogazigi Journal*, 3 (1 -2), 19-36.
- Lardies, R. (1999). Migration and tourism entrepreneurship: North-European immigrants in Cataluna and Languedoc. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 5, 477-491
- Li, L. (2008). A review of entrepreneurship research published in the hospitality and tourism management journals. *Tourism Management* 29 (5): 1013-1022.

- Marcketti, S.B., Niehm, L.S. Fuloria, L. (2006). An exploratory study of lifestyle entrepreneurship and its relationship to life quality. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 34 (3), 241-259.
- Morrison, A., Carlsen, J., Weber, P. (2008). Lifestyle oriented small tourism [Lost] firms and tourism destination development. *CA UTHE 2008 Conference*
- Peters, M., Freshe, J. & Buhalis D. (2009). The importance of lifestyle entrepreneurship: A conceptual study of the tourism industry. *PASOS*, 7(3), 393-407.
- Reynolds, W., Williams, A. J. Savage, W. (2000). *Your own business: A practical guide to success*. Thomas Nelson, Melbourne.
- Russell, R. & Faulkner, B. (2004). Entrepreneurship, chaos and the tourism area lifecycle. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 556-579.
- Schroeder, T., (2003). Background and motivations of resource-based tourism operators in the Northern Great Plains: a Qualitative Study. www.und.edu/instruct/tschroed/nattour1.pdf
- Shaw, G. & Williams, A. (2004). From lifestyle consumption to lifestyle production: Changing patterns of tourism entrepreneurship. In: R. Thomas (Ed) *Small Firms in Tourism: International Perspective*. Oxford: Elsevier, 99-113.
- Shaw, G., & Williams, A. (1998). Entrepreneurship, small business, culture and tourism development. In: D. Ioannides ve K. Debbage (Eds) *The Economic Geography of the Tourist Industry: A Supply-Side Analysis*. London: Routledge, 235-255.
- Skokic, Vlatka & Morrison, Alison (2011). Tourism and hospitality entrepreneurship, Social setting and research methodology: Moving 'Into The Beyond' In: *Contemporary Trends in Tourism and Hospitality Research*. Goodfellow Publishers.
- Szivas, E., (2001). Entrance into tourism entrepreneurship: A UK case study. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3 (2), 173-172.
- Tregear, A. Angela (2005). Lifestyle, growth, or community involvement? The balance of goals of UK artisan food producers. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 17(1), 1-15.
- Williams, C.E. & Tse, E.C.Y. (1995). The relationship between strategy and entrepreneurship: The US restaurant sector. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 7(1), 22-26. www.goreme.bel.tr

DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM MODEL FOR THE PHA WANG NAM KHIAO - PHA KHAO PHU LUANG FOREST RESERVE, THAILAND

[Sangsan Phumsathan](#) Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Program, Faculty of Forestry, Kasetsart
University

[Sommai Udomwitid](#) Faculty of Economics, Kasetsart University

[Nantachai Pongpattananurak](#) Faculty of Forestry, Kasetsart University

[Thitiwoot Chaisawataree](#) Faculty of Architecture, Kasetsart University

[Waranan Tantiwat](#) Department of Economics, Faculty of Economics at Sriracha, Kasetsart
University

ABSTRACT

The primary objectives of this research focused on developing the sustainable tourism model for the Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve in order to sustaining forest area and developing local community simultaneously. The sustainable tourism model was created based on site potential, stakeholders' opinions, and cost- benefit analysis. The results showed that the destinations were ranked in high potential for tourism development. The majority of tourists paid attention to forest resources education program and sport outdoor activities. Benefit- Cost ratio (BCR) equaled to 1.81 and Internal Rate of Return (IRR) equaled to 16.38, showed suitability and worthiness for developing tourism in Wang Nam Khaio forest reserve. Tourism development strategies have been proposed, including 1) developing facilities and services for conservation and sustainable tourism 2) personnel training for sustainable development and 3) tourism marketing for niche market.

Key words: tourism model; sustainable tourism; forest reserve; Thailand

INTRODUCTION:

The national forest reserve is in the Thailand's protected area system which is reserved and managed

for conservation and sustainable forest resource utilization. Under the National Forest Reserve Act (1964), the forest reserve in Thailand is designated forests used to denote forests accorded certain degrees of protection and assigns responsibility for their control and maintenance to Royal Forest Department of Thailand. The activities include hunting, grazing, land encroaching are prohibited and banned unless specific orders are issued by the government. Presently (2017), there are 1,221 forest reserve area collectively encompassing 231,268.8 sq. km or 45.07 percent of the country which the government controlled for production and extraction (Forest Land Management, 2017). From past to present, despite the law protection, deforestation continues in Thailand's forest reserve area. The primary cause is the increasing demand for agricultural area, forest products, and also residential development. Additionally, many forest reserve area are surrounded by local villages leading to the problem of conversion of forest area for agricultural purposes and also illegal poaching. The results of these activities have resulted in loss of biodiversity and majors conflicts between local people and law enforcement agencies.

Integrated conservation and community development approach is the goal of national forest reserve management (Salafsky & Wollenberg, 2000; Royal Forest department, 2012). In this manner, appropriate tourism development can in fact be one of the most powerful tools for the forest reserve management with the expectation of conservation of the natural resources, while at the same time leading to increased benefits for local communities. Indeed, nature- based tourism, based on sustainable tourism concept, has often been viewed as the effective management strategy because this type of tourism is a non-consumptive activity that regularly viewed as a win-win situation for conservation and sustainable development (especially economically sustain local communities and enhance the quality of life) (Naidoo & Adamowicz, 2005).

Additionally, nature-based tourism, which is growing rapidly, has emerged as one of the important issue for protected area management in Thailand. According to the number of visitors visited national parks of Thailand, during 2012 - 2016, there were more than a 10 million of visitors travel to national parks. In 2016, the national parks welcomed about 16.5 millions of visitors. Based on these figures, tourist arrivals in national park have increased approximately 13 percent annually (National Park, Wildlife and Plant Conservation Department, 2017). Demand for quality eco-tourism destinations will continue to grow as urban congestion, pollution, crowding, and concern for the natural environment all increase. In this manner, tourism in forest reserve, as intermediate tourism area, can reduce tension to tourism destination set in sensitive area such as national parks.

The primary objective of this research was to develop the sustainable tourism model for the Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve based on site potential, stakeholders' opinions, and cost-benefit analysis. The ultimate hope of this project was to create alternative strategy that could help to sustaining forest area and developing local community simultaneously.

METHODS:

Study Site: Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve, Thailand

Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve is in the southern part of Nakhon Ratchasima Province, northeastern Thailand, covering the area of 1,061.05 km² and located 250 kilometers approximately from Bangkok. This forest area is covered by two major forest types, dry evergreen forest and dry dipterocarp forest. Average annual temperature is 26 degrees Celsius and average annual rainfall is 999.5 millimeters (Sakaerat Research Station, 2017). Additionally, this forest reserve is located on the major tourism route of the region and connected to many well-known tourism destinations, i.e. Khao Yai National Park.

The Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve is one of the important protected areas in Thailand, as the part of biosphere reserves. This forest area is surrounded by many villagers and agricultural field, both legally and illegally. This area has faced with the problem about unsustainable natural resource utilization of local people - especially illegally use the forest for crop plantations, livestock, mushroom gathering, hunting, and tree cutting. In this manner, government and various organizations have attempted to develop tourism activity as the alternative management strategies to support sustainable development in the area and also help to distribute visitors from Khao Yai National Park, one of the most famous national parks in Thailand, to less crowded area.

Study Framework:

The research for developing the sustainable tourism model for the Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve consists of three components: 1) the assessment of potential resources of tourism development, 2) the study of stakeholders' opinions toward tourism development in the forest area, and 3) a cost-benefit analysis for sustainable tourism development.

Assessing potential of the Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve for sustainable tourism development

This part was aimed to quantify the development potential of tourism resources in Wang Nam Khiao and Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve. Four major destinations, including Wang Nam Khiao Forestry Student Training Station, Thab Lan National Park Protection Unit 4 - Khao Makha, Pak Thong Chai Forest Plantation- Forest Industry Organization, and Sakearat Silvicultural Research Station - Royal Forest Department, were selected based on onsite evaluation and the results of focus group meeting with key stakeholders, i.e. local government organization, community leaders, representatives from both government and tourism businesses.

To evaluate tourism potential of the selected destinations, a set of indicators and standards has been developed along the lines of the global sustainable tourism criteria (World Tourism Organization: UNWTO, 1997), ecotourism standard criteria (Department of Tourism -Thailand, 2015), and the principle sustainable use of biodiversity (Convention of Biological Diversity: CBD, 2004). The 16 indicators have been developed based on the core indicators of sustainable tourism development covering two aspects including 1) potential and value of destination, and 2) tourism development potential. The indicators are as follows:

Indicators of potential and value of destinations

1. Ecological uniqueness of resource-based
2. the abundance of flora and fauna
3. beautiful landscape and scenery
4. Identity and physical uniqueness of resource-based
5. attractiveness of tourism destination
6. the importance/value of destination to local people
7. education opportunity/nature interpretation
8. thermal comfort zone
9. rainfall
10. the risk of environmental degradation from human activities
11. soil erosion risk
12. site resistance

Indicators of tourism development potential

1. Recreation Potential - diversity of recreation/tourism activities
2. Accessibility of destination
3. Safety
4. Tourism development opportunities from external factors

By the concept of ranking and scaling, Weighting Score Equation method has been used to calculate tourism resource potential.

Investigating stakeholders' opinions toward tourism development in the forest area

To study visitors' opinions toward tourism development in study area, visitor surveys involving 1,168 respondents were conducted at Khao Yai National Park, Thab Lan National Park, Khao Paeng Ma non-hunting area, and Wang Nam Khiao District - the popular tourist attractions located close to selected destinations. On-site surveys, in-depth interviews, visitor surveys involving some 1,168 respondents, and focus group meetings with key informants were conducted to gather the required data. A questionnaire was used to collect data regarding travelling objectives, travelling needs, behaviors, desired recreational/tourism activities, and perception of tourism development in forest area.

Furthermore, this research also explored the impacts of tourism development in the communities through residents' perception, both social and environmental aspects. The questionnaires were distributed to 157 sample residents living in five local communities located along the forest edge. The sample residents were systematically and randomly sampled surveyed householders and purposively selected interviewed key informants.

Aside from questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews were conducted with various stakeholders, including the representative from selected sites - Wang Nam Khiao Forestry Student Training Station, Thab Lan National Park, Pak Thong Chai Forest Plantation, Sakearat Silvicultural Research Station - local government organization, community leaders, government and law enforcement agencies, representatives of private companies, community groups, tourism business, and NGOs. The in-depth interviews focused on the opinion, issues of concern, readiness and obstacles of tourism development. The data were qualitatively analyzed by content analysis and statistical descriptive analysis used to describe the basic features of the data in a study.

A cost-benefit analysis for sustainable tourism development.

In the study of cost-benefit analysis, economists have developed various approaches in order to quantify values.

In this part, firstly, an economic analysis the willingness to pay (WTP) for tourism development in Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve was examined to access the economic benefits via the fee that tourists placed for the purpose of participating in recreational activities in study area. Consequently, based on WTP, a contingent valuation method (CVM) was investigated with double-bounded closed-ended questionnaires illustrated the willingness to pay for sustainable tourism. CVM is a survey method in which respondents are asked how much they are willing to pay for the use or conservation of natural goods. Their stated preferences are assumed to be contingent upon the alternative goods offering in a 'hypothetical market'. This research implements contingent valuation method Thirdly, part of analysis the benefits and costs from developed model for sustainable tourism in the study area, net present value (NPV) of developed tourism, benefit-cost ratio (BCR) and internal rate of return (IRR) were identified for indicating the worthiness of the tourism investment in study area. NPV is a measurement of the present net profitability (expected benefit subtracts by expected cost of investment) of over a period of time. BCR is the ratio identifying the relationship between possible benefits and costs of a proposed project. This ratio is calculated by dividing the total discounted value of the benefits by the total discounted value of the costs. IRR is the interest rate at which the net present value of all the cash flows from a project or investment equal zero (the interest rate that makes the NPV equals to zero).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

Potential of the Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve for sustainable tourism development

Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve is predominantly characterized by ecological and natural landscape features. *Wang Nam Khiao Forestry Student Training Station* is outstanding for presenting scientific research in forestry filed, such as silviculture, forest utilization, forest ecology, and dendrology. *Thap Lan National Park* is the second largest national park in Thailand and includes attraction such as Lan forest, Huai Yai Waterfall, Bo Thong Waterfall, Suan Hom Waterfall, Khao Makha camping area, and many beautiful view points. This park is home to

the rare species of palm named “Lan” (*Corypha lecomtei*) Deciduous dipterocarp forest, mixed deciduous forest, moist evergreen forest, and dry evergreen forest dominate most area of the park. Its lush forest is home to many endangered animals and various birds. The park is part of the Dong Phrayayen-Khao Yai Forest Complex UNESCO World Heritage Site based on the internationally important for the conservation of globally threatened and endangered species. *Pak Thong Chai Forest Plantation* is a good site to study agroforestry and how timber plantations can potentially support natural forest conservation and community development. Sakearat Silvicultural Research Station is famous for long term restoration work, including reforestation, tree planting programs, and silviculture research. (Figure 1 presents major tourist spots and their predominant characters.)

According to the set of indicators and standards for tourism potential, the results showed that the destinations were ranked in high potential for tourism development. Based on the major attractions and tourism resources of these destinations, tourism route was set themed “FORESTER’S TALE: FOREST - FOR LIFE - FOR FUTURE” objected to create the opportunity to learn and experience about forest resource and protected area management of Thailand for visitors via travelling and engaging the activities in the tourism destinations. The recreational sport activities (bicycling and trail running) (Figure 2) and ecotourism activities (hiking, bicycle, and nature study) were proposed.

Based on the results in this part, to support the goal of sustainability, conservation strategies including wildlife corridor and environmental education would be a priority consideration. Visitor uses will be prohibited during season when resources area vulnerable to disturbance. Developing an impact monitoring system is also important. The development of infrastructure and services will be created in appropriate scale and does not alter the environmental conditions. Enhancing visitor experience of local community is necessary to support community development. Finally, participatory management is needed for sustainable tourism model of forest reserve area.

Wang Nam Khiao Forestry Student Training Station, Faculty of Forestry, Kasetsart University⁷



Sakearat Silvicultural Research Station, Royal Forest Department



Thap Lan National Park,

National Park, Wildlife and Plant Conservation Department



Pak Thong Chai Forest Plantation, The Forest Industry Organization



Figure 1: Major attractions in Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve



Figure 2: Bicycling and running trail proposed in Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve

Stakeholders' opinions toward tourism development in the forest area

The 1,168 questionnaires with good quality, reliable, and can be further analyzed to draw a conclusion for the study. The survey sampled presented that majority of the respondents was females (58.7%), aged between 18-29 years old (48.50%) and mostly single (63.40%). The majority of them held bachelor degrees or equivalent (76.20%), were private company employees and government officers (51.40%), with an average income in between 10,000 - 20,000 Baht (about US \$280 - 550) a month. The majority of respondents was from Bangkok and the central part of the country (55.00%) and travelled in one-day (34.80%) and three days and two nights (33.60%) respectively. Most of

them have gathered the information from internet/website/social media (42.54%) and personal experience (24.37%). The respondents mostly travelled with their families (46.20%) with only 2-5 persons by using their private cars and the frequency of last-year-traveling was up to 5 times per year.

The survey found that the major purpose of traveling of the visitors were relaxation (87.76%), spending time with family and friends (54.28), escaping from routine life (41.44%), and discovering/seeing beautiful scenery or natural environment (41.35%). From the research findings, it could interpret that majority of the tourists were traveling on mass tourism basis. The findings suggest that tourists visiting the Wang Nam Khiao - Khao Phu Luang National Reserve Forest prefer passive activities with environmental related such as hiking and nature walks, photography, sightseeing. Additionally, one third of the respondents were interested in outdoor sport activities, i.e. biking and trail running.

The results showed that the plentiful natural resources and diversity of ecosystem are the most important factors attracting tourists to visit this forest reserve. The visitors recommended that, for sustainable tourism development, the tourism activity would be eco-friendly and concerned about environmental conservation. Furthermore, the responsible organization needed to be omniscient, professional, and able to take care of the tourist efficiently. For the accommodation development, the concept of eco-lodge should be applied. Moreover, the basic infrastructure for the disable or elderly was needed since it would help the elderly and disability to travel easily and comfortably. Additionally, the transportation was such an important system that the route/road and the guidepost to the location need to be clear and accessible.

In the part of local people's perception on the impacts of ecotourism development, the results presented that the respondents tended to strongly agree that tourism provided economic benefits to local community (increasing income, enhancing job opportunity, and reducing inequality in the distribution of income) and also resulted in a better conservation of natural resources (decreasing of trespassing on national park property and increasing public awareness about environmental concern. On the negative side, the results reflected the perception of negative impacts of tourism development. The respondents tended to agree that tourism increases the cost of living for local residents. Additionally, they also expressed their concerns about garbage disposal and waste problems. The results in this part draw the concern about the level of development that should not exceed the carrying capacity of the local communities and also forest area.

The finding indicated that every part of stakeholders agreed with the development of tourism accompanied by giving a main reason to support the opinion of economic interest and quality of life

development in its community. The community participation in the process of tourism development was also essential. The results confirmed that the shortage of manpower tourism management was a core problem, thus to strengthening tourism development, the personal's competency development for staff of local administrative organization according to tourism development is needed.

A cost-benefit analysis for sustainable tourism development in forest area

The results estimated that the WTP for tourism was between 250 - 1,000 Baht with arithmetic mean and median were 771.25 and 633.59 Baht per person respectively and the demand was between 58,747 - 141,543 persons per year. For more understanding, if the fee was calculated by median of WTP at the price of 650 Baht, the number of tourists visited the study area would be 78,723 persons per year. In addition, the results confirmed that the demand of tourists depends on the fee. A higher fee structure for participating in recreational activities will hold down or reduce the demands. (Figure 3)

Apart from WTP, NPV of tourism development equaled to 238.71 million Baht. BCR equaled to 1.81. IRR equaled to 16.38. These indicators presented suitability and worthiness for tourism development in Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve

According to the results in this part, the research suggested that the tourism capacity should be reviewed in order to enhance its potential. Furthermore, indirect cost affecting local communities should be evaluated to estimate economic worthiness.

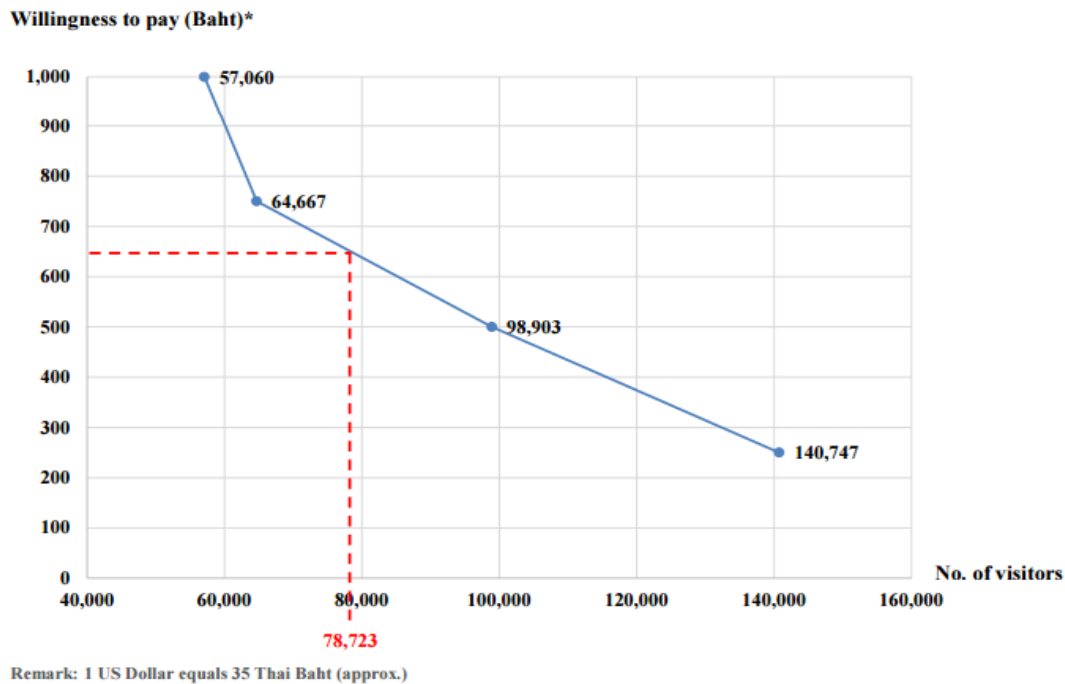


Figure 3: Forecasting tourism demand of Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve with different willingness to pay

CONCLUSION:

The idea of developing sustainable tourism model has been proposed for Pha Wang Nam Khiao - Pha Khao Phu Luang Forest Reserve management in order to create alternative strategy that could help to support sustainability of forest area and local community development. In the first step, tourism development potential of this forest area was analyzed. The results presented high potential for tourism development, based on both the potential and value of destinations and development potential. Additionally, all parties have agreed that tourism could be a powerful tool to support community development and local well-being. Additionally, the indicators of worthy investment including NPV, BCR ratio, and IRR have confirmed the suitability and worthiness for developed tourism in Wang Nam Khaio forest reserve.

According to SWOT Analysis of the development of sustainable tourism model for the Wang Nam Khiao Forest Reserve, the strategic plan for tourism development was proposed. This strategic plan comprised of five strategies including:

1. promoting recreational sport activities, such as mountain biking and trail running, for adventure tourist

2. promoting ecotourism for forest education, including hiking trail for youth & families, dendrological nature trail, and nature trail for environmental education
3. developing facilities and services for conservation and sustainable tourism, i.e. landscape improvement, green facility development, wildlife corridor
4. personnel training for sustainable development and
5. tourism marketing for niche market.

REFERENCES:

- Convention of Biological Diversity. (2004). *Guidelines on Biodiversity and Sustainable Development*. Secretariat of the Convention on Biodiversity. URL: <https://www.cbd.int/doc/publications/tou-gdl-en.pdf>.
- Department of Tourism - Thailand. (2015). Standard criteria for tourism destination - Thailand. Bangkok: Department of Tourism - Thailand.
- Forest Land Management. (2017). *Forest Statistic: Forest Reserve Area*. Royal Forest Department, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Global Sustainable Tourism Council. (2013). *Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria for Destinations (GSTC-D) version 1.0*. November 2013. Available Source: <http://www.gstcouncil.org/>.
- Naidoo, R. and Adamowicz, W. (2005). Biodiversity and nature-based tourism at forest reserves in Uganda. *Environment and Development Economics* 10: 2: 159-178.
- National Park, Wildlife and Plant Conservation Department. (2017). The number of visitors to Thai National Parks, fiscal year 2012 - 2016. URL: http://www.dnp.go.th/NPRD/develop/data/stat59/5year_59.pdf
- Royal Forest department. (2012). *National Forest Reserve Plan*. Royal Forest department, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Sakaerat Research Station. (2017). Sakaerat Research Station : SERS Environment. URL: <http://www.tistr.or.th/sakaerat/sakaeratE/Environment/environment.htm>
- Salafsky, N. and Wollenberg, L. (2000). Linking livelihoods and conservation: a conceptual framework for assessing the integration of human needs and biodiversity, *World Development* 28: 1421-1438.
- UNESCO. (2006). Towards Sustainable Strategies for Creative Tourism. *International Conference on Creative Tourism*, October 25-27, 2006. Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA.
- World Tourism Organization. (1997). Sustainable Tourism and Environmental. In: *International Tourism: A Global Perspective*. 2nd Edition. Spain. Pp. 253-255.

VIRTUAL REALITY IN TOURISM

Slavomir Magál University of SS. Cyril and Methodius Faculty of Mass Media Communication
Nam. J. Herdu 2, 917 01 Trnava, Slovak Republic

Martin Slivka University of SS. Cyril and Methodius Faculty of Mass Media Communication
Nam. J. Herdu 2, 917 01 Trnava, Slovak Republic

ABSTRACT

Tourism is one of the most dynamic industries where new trends in its development, new products and the possibilities for spending free time occur every year. Virtual reality (VR) in tourism is booming thanks to modern technologies that keep moving it forward. In tourism, virtual reality programs are used to prepare for flights by plane, simulate the flight itself or to view the possibilities of chosen destinations. A more visual culture enables passengers to see and experience a destination before buying their trip. An increase in community-based online websites such as Youtube will also increase the expectations of the visual content and its expansion. Using virtual reality and other high-quality pictures, dynamic visualisation will enable passengers to "try out" the travel experience.

It is expected that the use and implementation of VR within tourism will grow in the future, mainly in respect to hotels and airlines. This model aims at contributing to the development of tourism in certain regions, increasing their accessibility as well as their economic sustainability. Creating new preconditions for redefining the term tourism in the age of digitisation, virtual reality is becoming an exploitable option for building tourism also in developing countries and otherwise inaccessible places. In such an implementation, certain requirements and criteria will have to be taken into account to develop this form and to provide positive results in terms of both offer and demand.

The goal of this work is to look at virtual reality in the field of tourism and at the possibilities for its use in this industry. In regards to the market opportunities that exist or which can be developed in the future, the offer within tourism can be shifted from peak season to off-season. In the case of using off-season in some regions, the main attractions and programs might be altered, thus increasing future revenues and utilising infrastructures throughout the year.

Key words: tourism, new trends, communication, virtual reality

THE TERM VIRTUAL REALITY (VR)

Arising from reality terminology, the term virtual reality, according to LaValle (2017), was already used by German philosopher Immanuel Kant, although its use did not include technologies, according to the philosopher. Its contemporary use was popularised by Jaron Lanier in the Eighties of the Twentieth Century (LaValle, 2017). It is not absolutely clear when virtual reality originated and 1968 is most referred to as the year of its beginning. In that year, the American computer graphics experts Ivan Sutherland and Bob Sproull invented a headset that was able to project virtual reality (Prochadzka, 2016).

Virtual reality quickly transitioned from science-fiction films to the monitors of not only science workers but also ordinary users. "The core of virtual reality is an effort to display 3D models and scenes as realistically as possible, to manipulate with them, to create a real world, its certain part with all its principles and rules, to move in three dimensional space in real time. To reach this, basic principles from the computer graphic area are used. Virtual reality is a shift from simple (two-dimensional) interaction between humans and machines to a position where this interaction takes place in a three-dimensional environment. Three-dimensional representing of this interaction can drastically change the way of working with a computer as well as productivity and the pleasure of it. These methods are often strengthened by special peripheries that ensure pictorial, tactile and positional interaction." (Gatjal, 2016).

In more developed applications, a stereoscopic image is supplemented with surround sound reacting to movement in virtual space and tactile perceptions created by special gloves. Developers work on the extension of the tactile and other mechanic or thermal perceptions to the whole body. Such applications, however, require sophisticated overalls with integrated vibration receptors and generators, which is not very comfortable. Another possibility is computer- controlled seats that are known from so-called 4D cinemas, which are able to convey the sensation of vibrations and gradient; however, VR cannot be mistaken with 3D cinemas or spatial projection (Prochadzka, 2016). The development of individual devices or applications and their progression predicts that, in a year or two, technologies will be even more developed and some features will lose their meaning.

Within the term virtual reality, it is necessary to also introduce the term augmented reality which will be referred to in further parts of this work. Augmented reality (AR) is a combination of the real world and the virtual environment.

"Virtual reality uses a complete replacement of the real world with a virtual one, taking a user out of the real environment. We can say that AR is a certain type of virtual reality. The main difference is that AR does not use a complete replacement of the real world with a virtual one; it only supplements or alters the way we perceive the real world. AR, therefore, supplements the real world with virtual features. AR technology enables a person moving in a real environment to perceive objects created digitally. " (*Rozarena realita*, 2016)

USE AND PROPERTIES OF VIRTUAL REALITY

VR may be utilised in a number of ways and even more possibilities will be enabled in the future, including some controversial ones. This development will be irreversible for several upcoming years. A number of analysts also suppose that VR might be a new impulse for audio-visual technology. However, excessively playing games with VR can cause health problems, and not only mental, and the side effects should not be underestimated. For example, the Oculus and Samsung producers highly recommend that users of VR take a ten-minute break after thirty-minutes of use. They also warn that one should not operate any machine, drive a car or ride a bicycle for half an hour after finishing watching VR. Although authentic VR projections may be an intensive experience, excessive use of such a stimulant can cause physiological and mental disorders. The use of VR in the news or pornography business are among the new, highly-communicated VR projects. Within the news, it should convey naturalistic perceptions from the places in which the events described take place. The viewers that would watch reports from places after an earthquake would also have a sensation of being directly in that place of disaster, adding to the thrill sensation. Apart from shaking, they would also be able to feel the smell of fire or the weight of concrete ruins that would bury them in a real situation. Therefore, the rule of moderation and common sense is essential when using new multimedia (Prochazka, 2016).

VR might be utilised in many different spheres:

In architecture: survey and manipulate with data; architects will be able to take a walk with their clients across their new home before it is built

In medicine: to treat people who are afraid of heights or to treat amblyopia, but also as a tool in educating future surgeons, in planning an operation which can be tried with a virtual patient, in immobility, sclerosis, autism, etc.

In aviation: to train airplane pilots, military operations, etc.

In the gaming business: games with virtual reality create the illusion of three-dimensional space. They utilise the stereo-visual perspective and surround sound to simulate the effects of imaginary worlds.

In robotics, the pornography business, and many other sectors. (Virtualna realita, 2016)

Simulation of virtual reality differs from computer simulations due to the need of a special device that transmits images, sound and sensual perceptions to users. This device records and transmits to the program the speech and movement of the user. VR provides the user with a three-dimensional illusion of the world. There are two types of VR systems:

This group includes the use of a headset¹ for VR and special gloves - this system provides a direct experience from the simulated world. The user can turn, pick, throw or move computer-generated objects.

They can do this with the same movements as in the real world and they receive the information about the virtual world through the headset and sensual perceptions.

Programs - training pilot systems, computer games and medical training. This type does not require special devices (headset, etc.) Instead, it uses conventional equipment such as a monitor, keyboard and mouse to manipulate simulated objects (Virtualna realita, 2016).

The properties of virtual reality include:

Individual actions take place in real time; if possible, with immediate response to the user's actions.

The virtual world and objects in it have three dimensions or, at least, they appear to be three-dimensional.

The user is able to enter the virtual world and move around in it on various routes (they can walk, fly, jump, quickly move to pre-defined places, etc.).

The virtual world is not static; the user can manipulate its individual parts. Also, virtual objects move within animation curves, interact with the user and with each other (Virtualna realita, 2016).

¹ Headset - in order for the user to see the virtual world, they need to have the so-called headset on their head that has displays integrated in front of each eye. It also contains a motion sensor, speakers and a touch sensor.

VIRTUAL REALITY AND THE CONSUMER MARKET

The opinions on the growth of VR differ; mainly from the view of the specific companies that deal with the development or sale of VR. Within its special edition of the Virtual Reality (2016a) report, the digital publisher Raconteur provided interesting facts about virtual reality and the media-marketing market. In the issue published, the companies stated that consumer expense of software and hardware will reach more than 21.8 billion dollars and some expect, within this statement, that the market will reach as much as 150 billion dollars by 2020. Although the future prognoses differ from each other, they all expect growth that will beat other advertising markets and start to be compared to television commercials. Some global brands are already searching for a medium, in virtual reality, to connect consumers through supported content. Happy Finish, specialising in VR since 2013, has built a VR portfolio for brands such as Asda, Honeywell, Subway, Vauxhall, Renault and Whist (funded through the Arts Council England) and, within these companies, a strong effect on consumers was identified in terms of their consumer behaviour, increasing the purchasing power of their products. Using headsets and other hardware improves the sensual experience before purchasing thanks to the 360-degree interaction with the environment. These companies create their own virtual content to be better remembered and it is expected that, over the next few years, VR strategy will rise and become as important as social media or mobile strategies within individual consumer interaction campaigns.

In terms of consumer markets, we can expect a revolution in using virtual reality in individual industries or life aspects within the next few years. In the individual industries, Raconteur (2016b) identified ten key segments where VR is already implemented or being tested:

1. Sport - sport transmission aims at bringing fans as close to the event as possible and VR has the potential to offer the players' view. Some betting offices are developing projects where customers can experience live horse-races from a jockey's point view in a 3D virtual world. For example, within NHL, VR tests are being started in the USA that transmit the matches between LA Kings and San Jose Sharks live.
2. Urbanism - digital company Wagstaffs aspires to decrease the planning process of building permits using VR. They have created a 3D digital model of the centre of London called Vucity. In this way, project designers and developers can see what the project would look like in reality. They have created almost 100 square metres of central London to help plan new buildings or traffic connections.

3. Sea life - sea archaeologist Michel L'Hour uses VR to survey the shipwreck of Luna from the period of Louis XIV. The simulation helped the team to survey the scene. A long-term goal is to create fully functional robots that can be controlled through virtual reality as if humans were in their place. Sea archaeologists estimate that there are about 200,000 sites off the French coast and as many as three million sites all over the world that can be surveyed. The oil and gas sector as well as emergency systems already use remotely controlled vehicles, and VR is going to introduce a new level of information and control.
4. Engineering - currently, product designing through VR is probably the No. 1 business application. Computer-aided designing is being transformed and engineers are able to enter their creations. In the future, the use of VR could save costs on design revisions as the controlling time would be about 20 percent less.
5. Mental health - Plextek Consulting carried out surveys on the use of VR in mental health and claims that it helps in situations where traditional therapy does not work in patients. This might help patients who want to be treated at home or by a specialist who is not geographically close. Such a virtual environment should use gaming technologies through which a therapist or family would be able to interact with the patient and to adjust the environment according to the patient's clinical needs - to help the patient in terms of their mood, behaviour and life conditions during treatment.
6. Advertisement - in VR, advertisements should be carried out in an unintrusive way. In-game advertisements already are a stable part of 2D games and, for example, gaming giant Zynga generates 20% of its profits thanks to advertisements placed in games. The same process should also be applied in VR. A consumer- guide approach is also applied where consumers are shown what they can expect from a specific place; this approach was used by Center Parcs within their Eco holidays to let their customers interact with the newest places.
7. Executive meetings - video conferences have been held for a several years already and the transfer to VR is considered a logical step; it should be a huge progress that should change the dynamics of company negotiations. A change should mainly occur in respect to data visualising in the meetings, which should be displayed in 3D simulations.
8. Tourism - in the future, we can also expect VR holidays, such as The Void amusement

park in Utah in which the visitors become fighters in a strange war and have to run through a giant maze. Building VR- friendly hotels is also expected as the tourism industry is currently using VR to introduce real-world destinations. In January 2015, Qantas airlines introduced a three-month trial attraction for its customers in the form of excursions to saloons and cabins all over the world. More details on the specific services and examples will be provided in the paragraph entitled Virtual Reality in Tourism.

9. Safety - VR gives architects, safety analysts and event managers a unique opportunity to evaluate risks. Stable analysis needs accurate models, which is a reason why, for example, the international company Ordnance Survey, dealing with map production, has significant demand from VR companies. The company managed to process the terrain geometry of the Great Britain in high definition and with an accuracy to 5 metres. The best solution available for the public is its equivalent with a 30 m definition by NASA.
10. Alternative living - the price of real estate in the United Kingdom is very high. Graduates and workers with a low income are forced to live in small flats. VR might improve their situation through headsets, where they would be able to come home to a spacious landscape or a log cabin. Jonathan Tustain, co-founder of Freefly VR, creates exit VR worlds to reduce stress. He has developed, for example, DotCalm - a virtual bedroom in a futuristic skyscraper. Telling peaceful stories, a hypnotic voice brings the users to a sleeping state.

VIRTUAL REALITY AT TOURISM DESTINATIONS

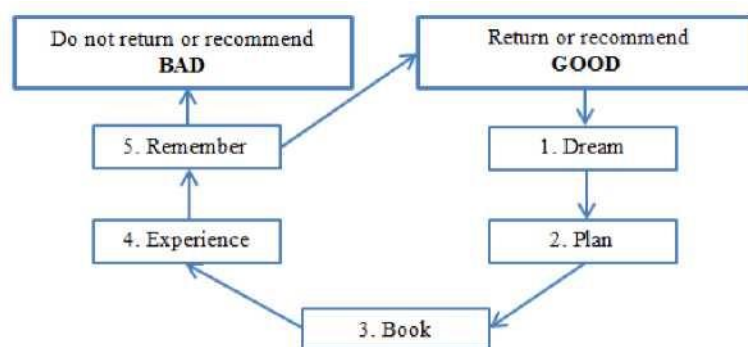
The tourism area is one of the fastest developing sectors. The desire to travel, meaning an interest on the one hand, is, on the other hand, also a booming trend that will most probably move forward (Magal & Slivka, 2015). In the field of providing services, communication is a very important feature and it is essential to consider the criteria of subjective perception and decision making. Using various communication tools is an important aspect of addressing target groups (Petranova, 2014).

As we have already explained in the previous parts of this work, VR is a simulation of the real world or, sometimes, an imaginary world. In the context of tourism, simulation of the real world is even more important. In tourism, special emphasis is given to the visual side as this kind of stimulation is essential for experiences (Gutierrez, 2008; Guttentag, 2010). This is the reason why VR is a great opportunity for individual destinations within tourism. The huge potential of VR and tourism was

also identified in other researches (Argyropoulou, Dionyssopoulou, & Miaoulis, 2011; Sussmann & Vanhegan, 2000).

Several companies in the field of tourism have already pointed out the aspects of VR and implemented various types of VR excursions. However, these methods mostly consist of panoramic photographs in space, as they are also displayed in the Street-View service by Google. That is not quite virtual reality, as the navigating ability is limited for customers and there is no possibility to work with the content of the pictures. However, pointing at interest within the individual industries in respect to the use of VR tools, these applications are still considered VR applications (Guttentag, 2010).

Within the marketing mix and its 4P principles, we can closely scrutinise how the marketing mix might influence customers' journeys. Promotion is one of the 4P principles that expresses all the efforts of destination management organizations (DMOs) with the goal of informing or increasing awareness and interest in customers. This is perhaps an effort that can strongly influence the first phase of a customer's journey - the phase of dreaming. By implementing



VR into advertising strategies, DMOs might influence the customers' choice of destination (Virtual reality in tourism, 2016).

Image: The Consumer's Journey according to the UNWTO.

Morgan, Pritchard and Pride (2002, p.42, as cited in UNWTO, 2007) state that emotional reactions strongly influence the customers' decisions. They argue that “*what persuades potential tourists to visit and return to one place instead of another is whether they have empathy with the destination and its values*”. This has changed from the concept of the unique selling proposition (USP) to the

unique emotional proposition (UEP), which is used by DMOs to differentiate themselves from the competition. Not only is that necessary because so many destinations are trying to establish themselves in the market, but also because this multitude of offers leads to destinations being unable to differentiate themselves with physical attributes and factors, such as climate, from other competitors (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2012).

UNWTO (2007, p. 43) has released a clearer definition of what a UEP is:

- A single proposition as an emotional trigger;
- Not offered by, or unable to be offered by, the competition;
- Something exceeding clients' expectations;
- Strong enough to convert “lookers” to “bookers”;
- The cornerstone of competitive strategy and communications.

VIRTUAL REALITY IN TOURISM - CASE STUDIES

Looking at the definition of UEP above, we can clearly see the utilisation of VR in tourism and destination management. While several destinations all over the world consider using VR within promotion, only a few of them actually apply the strategy containing real VR content. Destination British Columbia in Canada (Destination BC) is deemed to be the scout within DMO VR applications. Another important DMO (at a national level) with a VR concept is Tourism Australia (South Africa Tourism Board, 2015).

One of the examples of utilising VR within this area is a 360-degree video from the Great Bear Rainforest - a protected landscape area located along the Pacific coast of British Columbia. Shot from the view of the first and the third person, the footage shows touristic experiences from the view of the visitors. Viewers walk along the coastline and watch whales and later have the option to visit a sea lion colony or to go hiking in the mountains, adding an element of interactivity (Destination BC, 2014).

Tourism Australia launched another stage of the "There is nothing like Australia" campaign at the end of January 2016, which focuses on coastal and aquatic areas. Supported by research, DMOs approached this campaign, in which visitor polls show that customers value the pristine beaches and coastal environments as a very strong competitive factor. Their campaign includes a 360-degree video from 17 places all over the country, capturing active views above and below the waterline (Tourism Australia, 2016a; 2016b).

In 2014, Marriott Hotels started to use VR within its Teleporter program enabling guests to visit 8 large cities of the USA (New York, Boston, Washington D.C., Atlanta, Dallas, San Diego, San Jose and San Francisco) by using 4D technology. In 2015, Marriott was the first hotel chain within the hotel industry to introduce VRoom Service - a first- of-its-kind guest service that allows the guests to order virtual reality experiences directly to their rooms. Consisting of a business suitcase, VRoom is available to the hotel guests who can find Samsung VRGear and headphones in it.

Upon connecting to the hotel Wi-Fi, they can view Virtual Reality Postcards - 360-degree panoramic photographs of attractive localities all around the world, such as the Andes Mountains in Chile, the bustling streets of Beijing, or see an ice-cream show in Rwanda. Every year, dozens of new destinations should be added to the offer that will be available for the guests. With this concept and by using modern technologies, the hotel is building its brand (eMarketer, 2015). *“It’s part of a larger effort as a brand to inspire our next-generation travellers and to spark conversations about why people travel. We believe that travel expands the mind and helps to push our guests’ imaginations. VR Postcards and VRoom Service gave us the opportunity to combine industry-leading technology and storytelling in an effort to connect and engage with our next-generation traveller “ (Dail, 2015).*

Picture 1: VR Room in Hotel Marriott



In terms of tourism, hotel chains also try to move forward and respond to the shared economy of companies such as Airbnb and Couchsurfing. For example, Starwood launched a keyless application that can be used by the guests to unlock their room using their smartphones instead of keys or cards. Hilton allows its customers to choose a room within the hotel and Marriott introduced 4D virtual reality entitled The Marriott Teleported and, in 2015, launched an ancillary virtual reality service

within its rooms called VRoom service (Valich, 2015).

Within the examples of hotels and hotel chains, the Best Western Hotels & Spa chain should also be mentioned, which is the newest example of a brand that decided to enter the sphere of virtual reality in an effort to boost its marketing activities. In 2016 the chain planned that all 2200 hotels across North America would have the "Best Western Reality Experience" allowing its customers to see every room, hall and piece of equipment online before arriving at the hotel. This is one of the hotel's marketing measures by which it started its campaign in the summer of 2016. The goal is to increase customers' experience also by using 360-degree videos with a high resolution that allow them to focus the camera on every single place to find out whether there are any stains on the carpet, for example. Certainly, hotels and touristic companies are not the only subjects to join or utilise VR programs. As we have already mentioned above, there are a number of markets and a wide spectrum of utilisation within individual segments or industries. According to the Skift portal (Ting, 2016), it is expected that 120 billion dollars will have been expended on VR by 2020.

There are two different marketing approaches within the individual touristic companies and their use of 360-degree videos and virtual reality:

- To inform and sell - a strategy used by brands such as Best Western, Shangri-La, Carlson Rezidro and Vacasa. To these brands, VR and 360-degree videos mean a tool for informing their customers about their products.
- To entertain and create new markets - brands such as Marriott, Starwood and Holiday Inn Express use VR to entertain their customers and virtually transfer them to different places.

Still, the question is whether virtual reality is more than just a marketing tool and whether these activities are reflected in a higher number of reservations, in customers' awareness or bigger loyalty. The number of headsets sold can be an answer - about 30 million pieces were sold globally in 2016 and some estimates state that about 16 billion pieces will have been sold by 2020. Companies also refer to advancing storytelling to another level and brands aspire to have new technologies used by their customers or to influence them directly through the technologies (Ting, 2016).

CONCLUSION

Virtual reality represents a new technology that is reflected in every industry, providing innovation in terms of its use and people's interaction with new technologies. Certainly, the risks of its use as

well as the moral aspect in certain types of its use should also be considered. Within the hotel industry or services in tourism, one of the possibilities is to use it for those places that represent a safety risk and that can be inaccessible for tourists. It may be concluded that, in respect to user profile and behaviour, there are groups with many extra needs, with accessibility being their common characteristic - meaning the ability of all people to use the products and services of the tourist infrastructure.

After Google had mapped a huge part of the world within its Street View function, it began to map more adventurous places. In combination with gaming features and a huge database of location shots, it is able to create various adventurous scenarios and, this way, virtual reality can be even more adventurous than reality. An interesting idea was expressed by Yves Behar, the founder of Fuseproject (Cupka, 2016), which connects technologies and design. He admits that technologies allow us to do great things; however, he adds that the more time is spent in virtual reality, the less time is left for real experiences. What to do about this? According to him, the greatest challenge for designers for the future is to bring technologies into the real world. Another challenge will be to come back to reality without losing comfort.

If DMOs focus on the behavioural features, they can better reveal the effects and determine measures for increasing demand. As regards the market opportunities that exist or can be developed in the future, the offer within tourism can be shifted from peak season to off-season. In the case of using off-season in some touristic regions, the main attractions and programs might be altered, thus increasing future revenues and utilising infrastructures throughout the year. Enterprises in the field of tourism will improve their market potential and enhance image by continuously increasing quality and the competitiveness of their offer within tourism. Not only can virtual reality be used for fun, it can also be a form of help for older people and their socialisation and self-realisation, for example. It offers the possibility to build tourism within developing countries and otherwise inaccessible places, thus creating new preconditions for redefining the term tourism in the age of digitisation. In such an implementation within a group of seniors, certain requirements and criteria will have to be taken into account to develop this form and to provide positive results on both sides of offer and demand.

SOURCES:

Cupka, M. (2016) Retrieved from: <http://zurnal.pravda.sk/fenomen/clanok/379016-2016-rok->

[virtualnej-reality-a- virtualnych-ludi/](#)

- Dail, S. (2015): Retrieved from: <https://www.emarketer.com/Article/Marriotts-Virtual-Reality-Transports-Guests-Around-World/1013409>
- Destination BC. (2014). *Destination BC Creates The Wild Within VR Experience*. Retrieved from: <http://www.destinationbc.ca/News/Local/Destination-BC-Creates-The-Wild-Within-VR>
- eMarketer. (2015). Retrieved from: <https://www.emarketer.com/Article/Marriotts-Virtual-Reality-Transports-Guests-Around-World/1013409>
- Gatjal, P. (2016). Virtualna realita. Retrieved from: <http://edi.fmph.uniba.sk/~winczer/SocialneAspekty/GatjalVirtualnaRealita.htm>
- Guttentag, D. A. (2010). Virtual reality: Applications and implications for tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 637-651.
- Gutierrez, M. A. A., Vexo, F., & Thalmann, D. (2008). *Stepping into Virtual Reality*. London: Springer London.
- LaValle, S.M. (2017). *Virtual reality*, Illinois : University of Illinois, 2017, p. 5.
- Magal, S., Slivka, M. (2015). *Specifics of marketing communication of Slovak seniors*. Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Emerging Research Paradigms in Business and Social Science: *Middlesex University*
- Dubai, Dubai, United Arab Emirates / proceedings edited by: Cody Morris Paris, Ajit Karnik, Alun Epps. - Dubai : Middlesex University, 2015.
- Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Pride, R. (Eds.). (2004). *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition* / [edited by] Nigel Morgan and Annette Pritchard, Roger Pride (2nd ed.). London: Elsevier Butterworth- Heinemann.
- Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2012). Conceptualising technology enhanced destination experiences. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 1(1-2), 36-46.
- PETRANOVA, D. (2014). Uroven medialnej gramotnosti slovenskych seniorov. *Communication Today*. Trnava : Fakulta masmedialnej komunikacie UCM v Trnave, 2014.
- Prochadzka, M. (2016): Virtualna realita, boom ci bublina? Retrieved from: <http://techbox.dennikn.sk/temy/virtualna-realita-boom-ci-bublina/>
- Raconteur. (2016a). Retrieved from: <http://www.seriousgamesinternational.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/02/virtual-reality.pdf>
- Raconteur. (2016b). Retrieved from: <http://www.raconteur.net/technology/10-key-sectors-using-virtual-reality-technologies>
- Rozshena realita. (2016). Retrieved from: http://www.priemyselneinzhinierstvo.sk/?page_id=1579
- South Africa Tourism Board. (2015). *Experience an all-round view of Cape Town*. Retrieved from <http://360.southafrica.net/#view=start>
- Sussmann, S., & Vanhegan, H. (2000). Virtual Reality and the Tourism Product: Substitution or Complement?
- Proceedings of the Eighth European Conference on Information Systems (ECIS) (pp. 1077-1083). Vienna, Austria: *Wirtschaftsuniversitat Wien*.

Ting, J. (2016) Retrieved from: <https://skift.com/2016/05/23/best-western-goes-all-in-on-its-virtual-reality-marketing-move/>

UNWTO. (2007). *A practical guide to tourism destination management*. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

Valich, M. (2015). Retrieved from: <https://vrworld.com/2015/09/11/marriott-introduces-vr-experience-with-samsung-gearvr/>

Virtualna realita. (2016). Retrieved from: <http://virtualnarealita.eu/co-je-virtualna-realita/>

Virtual reality in Tourism. (2016). Retrieved from: <http://www.virtual-reality-in-tourism.com/overview-destinations/>

Images:

Summers, S. (2015) Retrieved from: <https://www.engadget.com/2015/09/28/vroom-service-marriott-hotel/>

The Customer Journey according to the UNWTO. Retrieved from: <http://www.virtual-reality-in-tourism.com/overview-destinations/>

TOURISM DEMAND FOR MEXICO AND URUGUAY

Gabriela Mordecki

Universidad de la Republica, FCEA, Instituto de Economia, Montevideo, Uruguay

Ana Leiva

Universidad de la Republica, FCEA, Instituto de Economia, Montevideo, Uruguay

Nathalie Desplas

Tecnologico de Monterrey Campus Chihuahua, Chihuahua, Mexico

ABSTRACT

Tourism is an important engine for economic growth and countries' development. Tourism activities have a great impact on Mexico and Uruguay, and in this paper, the authors measure tourism demand. They study the relationship between the number of USA tourists for Mexico and Argentinean tourists for Uruguay, analyzing the relationship with income and real exchange rate (RER) of each country. They found long-run cointegration vectors between variables, following Johansen methodology, through VECM. Income-elasticity resulted greater than 2 for American tourists in Mexico, and near 3 for Argentinean tourists in Uruguay. Bilateral RERs also were significant in both models.

Key words: tourism demand, cointegration, real exchange rate JEL: C32, F14, F41.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is frequently viewed as an important engine for the economic growth and countries' development (Brida, Lanzilotta, & Risso, 2010; Desplas, 2010; Schubert, Brida, & Risso, 2001; Tang & Tan, 2013; WTTC¹, 2011). Tourism mobility is growing over time and space allowing increasing destination income, employment, foreign exchange income, and improve balance of payments equilibrium. Experts argue that the tourism industry continues to be one of the world's largest sectors with a crucial impact in the economic welfare of local populations, the entrepreneurship activity, the direct and indirect tourists' spending due to the multiplier effect. In addition, recently, the tourism-growth literature explains that tourism is perceived in many regions as a crucial source of their own expansion and development. For example, in developing countries (Ghimire, 2013); Malaysia (Tang & Tan, 2013); Pakistan (Adnan & Ali, 2013); Cyprus, Latvia and

¹ World Travel and Tourism Council.

Slovakia, (Chou, 2013); Singapore (Timothy, 2014); Hong Kong (HK Tourism Board, 2014); China (Chon, Pine, Lam, & Zhang, 2013). In other places like the Mediterranean countries (Tugcu, 2014); the Latin-American countries (Peterson, Cardenas, & Harrill, 2014); Mexico (UNTWO¹, 2014b); the USA (White House, 2014); and the European Countries in general (Costa, Panyik, & Buhalis, 2014) among others. Tourism is also more critical in a resource-poor environment, such as in small islands destinations like Aruba (Ridderstaat, Croes, & Nijkamp, 2014).

Over the last decades and despite economic, security or health crisis, tourism experienced continued growth, innovation and diversification, becoming “one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world from 25 million in 1950, to 278 million in 1980, 528 million in 1995, 1,035 million in 2012, and 1,087 million in 2013” (UNWTO, 2014b).

According to UNWTO (2014a and 2014b), despite crisis and health situations international tourism expansion continued to be substantial in 2013 and has generated growth all over the world, assessing again the contribution tourism makes to social and economic development. This strong key driver of socio-economic and commercial development creates export revenues, infrastructure investments, jobs’ creation and small businesses’ generation.

In 2015, more than 32 million tourists visited Mexico, that represent a high growth (more than 10%) driven by the US demand in spite of a “warning” that implores U.S. citizens to lower their personal profiles for security issues. Mexico's tourism industry boomed in 2015: of the total of international passengers arrived in the country, 57.3% were US citizens, confirming that its big neighbor remains its main tourist market. Furthermore, out of the US tourists who traveled abroad, 18% made it to Mexico, a figure that shows a steady increase in market share to Mexico from US travelers and a historical record in term of numbers.

On the other hand, Uruguay is located in the south of South America, between two big neighbors: Argentina and Brazil, and with a very peculiar geographic and political structure, defined by its history and afterwards development. The country has 3.3 million inhabitants, with 700 km of coastline over the Rio de la Plata and the Atlantic Ocean with a temperate climate. Argentinean tourists have historically been its main visitors, particularly in the main Uruguayan touristic resort, Punta del Este, 360 km away from Buenos Aires. The relevant periods meant for Argentinean tourists to come to Uruguay are summer and winter holidays, and long weekends. Additionally,

¹ [United Nations World Tourism Organization.](#)

many of Argentinean tourists have their own houses in Uruguay, and they have family relationships, and/or investments and commercial interests. So, for many of these tourists, Uruguay is a “captive destination”, as they have other interests or properties, that impulse them visiting Uruguay during the holidays (Serviansky, 2011).

On the one hand, total yearly tourists represent about 90% of Uruguayan population and Argentinean tourists are nearly 60% of this total; this market share remaining the same over time. On the other hand, tourist activities have a great impact on Uruguayan economy. The Tourism Satellite Account (Alonsoperez &Risso, 2012) shows that Tourism represents 4% of Uruguayan GDP, generates 6% of total employment and 14% of the total exports (Tourism Ministry and Uruguayan Central Bank).

ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK AND BACKGROUND

Paraskevopolous (1977), Loeb (1982), Stronge and Redman (1982), Truett and Truett, (1987), Witt and Witt (1995), Mudambi and Baum (1997), Song, Witt & Fei (2010) present important researches about the estimation of the determinants of a tourism demand. Crouch (1995) find 80 empirical studies on the demand function for tourism while Song and Li (2008) review the published studies on tourism demand modeling and forecasting since 2000. Most of these studies focused on the Income of source countries, and the relative price of the exported tourism services as the main determinants of the Tourism Demand.

Lim (1997) presents a review of more than 100 published studies of empirical International tourism demand models. Tourist arrivals/departures and expenditures/receipts have been the most frequently used dependent variables. The most popular explanatory variables used have been Income, relative tourism prices, and transportation costs. Song and Li (2008) found that the methods used in analyzing and forecasting the demand for tourism have been more diverse than those identified by other review articles, and in addition to the most popular time-series and econometric models, a number of new techniques have emerged in the literature.

Spain, a Top 10 tourism country, appeared as the subject of diverse papers about demands determinants. Among them, demand is mainly studied with Vector Error Correction Models (VECM) trying to identify not only the characteristics of the agents that are demanding Spanish tourism but also competitors influence on international demand. Through this approach, the authors try to identify Spain competing destinations with countries of similar characteristics in the region.

Alvarez-Diaz et al. (2015) model Russian demand for Spanish destinations using Cointegration and

VEC models. Quantity of tourists is used as the dependent variable while Russian per capita Income, Spanish and competitors' prices. The authors identify that those determinants are relevant to explain Russian demand. Previously, the same authors studied in a different paper tourism's determinants divided by country, trying to explain them by income variations (using the Industrial Production Index) and prices (with Consumer Price Index), once again using VEC models.

Han et al. (2006) describe international tourism from US towards Europe with an “almost ideal demand system model”. This model evidences the linkages between tourists' demand and relative prices, exchange rates and expenditure. The authors find that the different macro-variables impose different effects on the destinations. While US demand for France, Spain or Italy are highly influenced by prices, UK or Spain have a negative correlation with income.

Other particularities can be found while looking the behavior of international tourism demand for Australian destinations. On one hand, Lim and McAleer (2001) paper models the quantity of tourists from Singapore using as explanatory variables income, relative prices with Australia and with competitors as well as transportation costs. Similarly, to what has been used in the previous cases, the authors use a VEC model as well as a Johansen cointegration model and an Ordinary least squares (OLS) model.

On the other hand, the same authors, in 2002, study the long-run relationship between Malaysia touristic demand and other macroeconomic variables as income, relative exchange rate or price level, combined with transportation expenses using different models. Depending on the model chosen, it is possible to identify effects from the different dimensions.

Brida, Risso, & Carrera., 2008, estimated the long-term effects of tourism demand in Mexico with respect to U.S. visitors using Johansen methodology. They found Granger-causality going from number of tourists to the relative prices. Results show that U.S. income positively affects the Mexican tourism demand.

Others researches focused on Uruguayan tourism, study the relevance of tourism activities on GDP growth (Brida, Lanzilotta, & Risso, 2010) while Robano (2000), Altmark et al. (2013), and Serviansky (2011) try to estimate the determinants of tourism demand. With different emphasis, those experts tried to find a relationship between real tourism spending with real income of the foreign tourists.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this current paper, we try to measure tourism demand comparing Mexico and Uruguay, two different countries, but strongly similar in term of tourism industry relevance for growth, employment and national income.

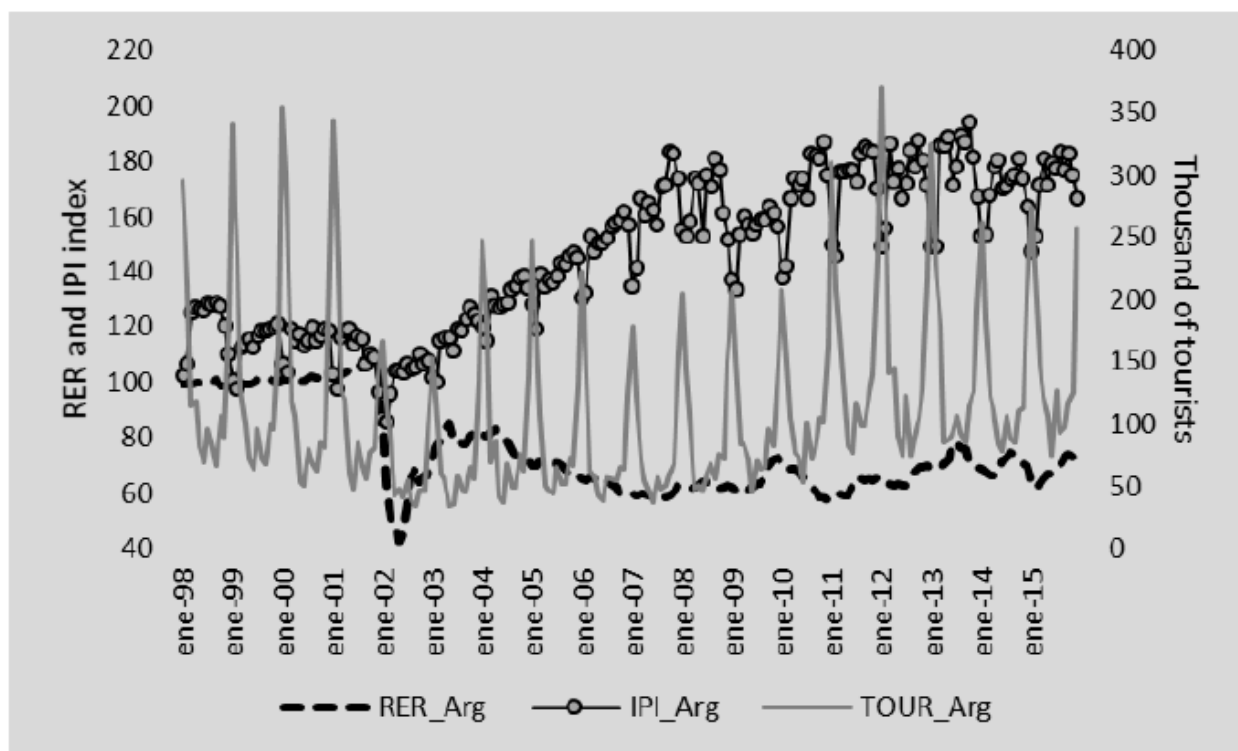
Data

This research studies the period from January 1998 to December 2015, using monthly data and considering the log transformation of the series, to solve scale problems between the series. To estimate the tourist's income, the Industrial production index (IPI) has been used as a *proxy*, taking advantage of the monthly provided information. To estimate the relative prices between countries, we used the bilateral real exchange rate (RER) between countries. In all cases, the RERs was calculated from the hosting country point of view, improving the competitiveness of Uruguay or Mexico towards Argentina or US.

Figure 1 shows the Uruguayan model series. In the tourist (TOUR_Arg) and the IPI series (IPI_Arg), a marked seasonality is revealed, which has been corrected introducing seasonal dummies. This figure highlights the 20012002 regional crisis, with the implied high devaluation in Argentina (December 2001) and in Uruguay (from August 2002), reflected in the bilateral RER path (RER_Arg).

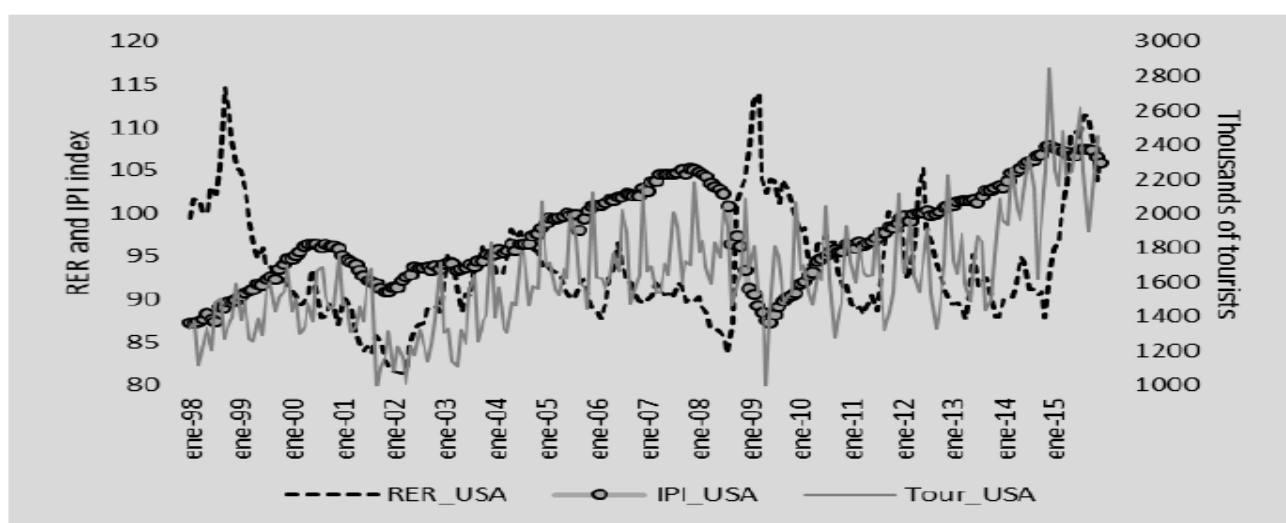
Figure 1

Uruguayan Model Series



In Figure 2, time series of Mexican model have been represented: the US monthly tourists arrivals in Mexico (TOUR_USA), the bilateral real exchange rate between Mexico and USA (RER_USA: it increases as Mexican competitiveness in relation to the US improves) and the US Industrial production index (IPI_USA), as a *proxy* of US citizen's income. Finally, seasonal dummies were added to correct seasonality mainly in tourists' series.

Figure 2 Mexican Model Series



Applying Johansen (1988, 1992) methodology, we try to find a long-run relationship for tourism demand and the most important source of tourism for each country: United States' tourists for Mexico and Argentina's tourists for Uruguay.

The tourism demand equation will be:

$X_i = \alpha_i RER_i + \beta_i IPI_i + \gamma_i$ Where X is the tourist demand for country i = Mexico, Uruguay

RER is the country's bilateral real exchange rate with the corresponding partner: Argentina for Uruguay and US for Mexico.

IPI is the Industrial Production Index used as a proxy of the country's income of the corresponding partner: Argentina for Uruguay and USA for Mexico.

Table 1 Unit Root Tests

<i>Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) HO = there is</i>				
	Statistic value of	Rejection H0	Statistic value of the	Rejection
<i>LTour Arg</i>	0.076321	No	-4.286977	Yes
<i>LTour USA</i>	1.004104	No	-3.858005	Yes
<i>LIPI Arg</i>	1.100784	No	-3.179880	Yes
<i>LIPI USA</i>	0.481431	No	-3.613775	Yes
<i>LRER Arg</i>	-0.698396	No	-6.130425	Yes
<i>LRER USA</i>	0.030842	No	-6.068407	Yes
<i>LRER Arg Bra</i>	-0.043243	No	-6.614358	Yes
Lags are calculated due to Akaike criteria				

As a result of the ADF test, all the variables resulted integrated of first order, I(1). Attending this series characteristic, we decided to apply the Johansen (1988, 1992) methodology to test the existence of long-term equilibrium relationships among the variables, looking for cointegration vectors.

MAIN RESULTS

The cointegration is then analyzed with the Johansen test, from the Trace and the Eigenvalue of matrix λ (Tables 2 and 3). The existence of a cointegrating vector was not rejected, and the signs of the variables were as expected. Moreover, in the resulting pattern exclusion tests for p and weak exogeneity test for a all were significant. Furthermore, residuals were well behaved (see the Appendix).

Table 2

Cointegration Test for Uruguayan Tourism from Argentina

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test					
Hypothesized	No.	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical	Prob.**
None *		0.211155	78.66564	47.85613	0.0000
At most 1 *		0.097137	30.75410	29.79707	0.0387
At most 2		0.046183	10.11277	15.49471	0.2722
Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level					
Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)					
Hypothesized	No.	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen	0.05 Critical	Prob.**
None *		0.211155	47.91155	27.58434	0.0000
At most 1		0.097137	20.64133	21.13162	0.0584
At most 2		0.046183	9.551331	14.26460	0.2431
Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level * denotes rejection					

For the Uruguayan model, we found two cointegration vectors, with the Trace test, but only one with Maximum Eigenvalue, concluding that there is only one long-run cointegration vector between the variables.

In this model, we also included the RER between Argentina and Brazil, as Brazil is the most important alternative destination of Argentine tourists coming to Uruguay, not being significant in either the short or the long term. However, we decided to keep it in the model due to the improvements in the residuals behavior.

The long-run cointegration vector for Uruguayan model is:

$$LTour_Arg = 2.987 LIPI_Arg_t + 2.65 IBER_Arg - 14.0727 \quad (9.71742) \quad (8.35403)$$

Both coefficients were significantly different from zero ("t" values are in parenthesis below each coefficient). LIPI_Arg coefficient was near 3, and as this variable is a proxy of Argentinean's income, its coefficient is a proxy of Uruguayan tourism demand income elasticity, and as a luxury expenditure, it was significantly higher than one.

Table 2

Cointegration Test for Mexican Tourism from USA

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)					
Hypothesized	No. of	Eigenvalue	Trace	0.05 Critical	Prob.**
None *		0.167156	50.48001	29.79707	0.0001
At most 1		0.064341	13.53252	15.49471	0.0967
At most 2		0.000489	0.098767	3.841466	0.7533
Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at **MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis					
Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)					

Hypothesized	No. of	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen	0.05 Critical	Prob.**
None *		0.167156	36.94749	21.13162	0.0002
At most 1		0.064341	13.43376	14.26460	0.0673
At most 2		0.000489	0.098767	3.841466	0.7533
Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level					

For the Mexican model, we found one cointegration vector with the Trace test, and with Maximum Eigenvalue, concluding that there is only one long-run cointegration vector between the variables.

The long-run cointegration vector for Mexican model is:

$$LTour_USA_t = 2.336 LIPI_USA_t + 1.981 RER_USA_t - 12.295 \quad (2)$$

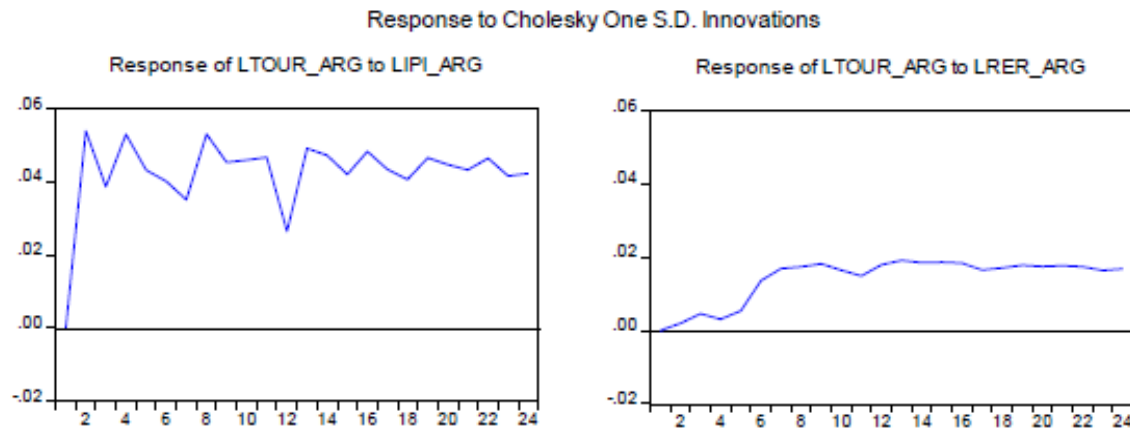
(7.83562) (7.34006)

In the Mexican model, the coefficients were smaller than for Uruguayan model, but significantly greater than one, what also confirms that tourism is a luxury good (or service). Nevertheless, in the US citizen's travel characteristics to Mexico, there are components of business or other reasons different from recreational travels.

Impulse response functions

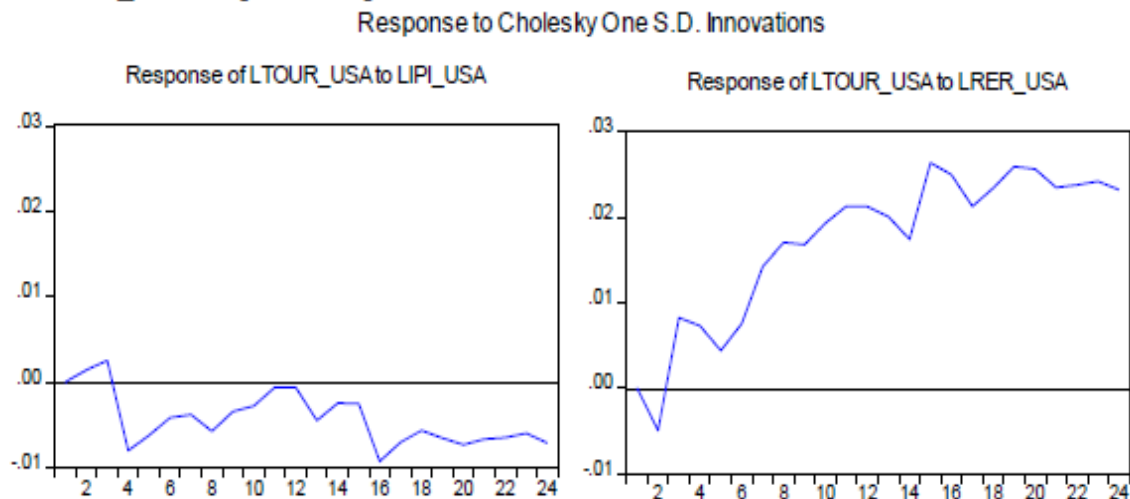
Afterwards, we calculated impulse-response functions (IRF) in the VEC models, which traces the effect of a onetime shock to one of the innovations on current and future values of the endogenous variables. Figure 3 enables to appreciate the IRF of a shock on Argentineans income (LIPI_Arg) and on relative prices between Uruguay and Argentina (LRER_arg) over Argentinean tourists visiting Uruguay. Both have a positive and permanent impact, but the income impact more than doubles the prices' impact. This result has a high relevance for policy makers, considering the importance of Argentinean's income situation when they decide how to spend their holidays due to the positive relative prices shocks (measured on RER). After 8 months, the impact is a 2% increase on the number of tourists. Additionally, an income shock after two months the number of tourists would increase near 5%.

Figure 3
LTOUR_Arg Impulse Response Functions



This result can also be a consequence of the special characteristic of Argentinean tourists: near 40% of Argentinean tourists use their own houses in Uruguay or visit some relatives (Brida, Monterubbianesi & Serviansky, 2012), what is known as “captive tourism”.

Figure 4
LTOUR_USA Impulse Response Functions



In the case of US tourists traveling to Mexico, the impulse response functions show a slight negative but no significant impact of a shock on US income (Figure 4), but a positive and significant response of tourists to a positive impact over bilateral RER between US and Mexico. From these results, we can conclude that the Mexican tourist demand from US citizens depends on the bilateral real exchange rate, and income changes have no impact, mainly in the considered period (January 1998 to December 2015).

FINAL REMARKS

The main objective of this research was to estimate and compare the tourism demand for Uruguay and Mexico from the main outbound tourism countries: Argentina for Uruguay and the USA for Mexico. Tourism is frequently viewed as an important engine for the economic growth and development of countries. In Mexico, the domestic trips have become a notable feature but the main tourism exports are from international travelers for who Mexico was the 9th country more attractive in 2015 and 58.3% came from the USA. For Uruguay, total yearly tourists represent about 90% of its population, Argentinean tourists being nearly 60% of this total and historically the main visitors.

This objective was instrumented through the estimation of two models, one for each country, through Johansen methodology. We found one long-term relationship for each country tourist demand, both including Industrial production index as a monthly proxy of the country's income and the bilateral real exchange rate as a proxy of relative prices between the analyzed countries.

We also highlighted one cointegration relationship for each country, through Vector error correction models (VECM). We calculated an income-elasticity greater than 2 for American tourists in Mexico, and near 3 for Argentinean tourists in Uruguay. The two models show income-elasticities greater than one, showing that the characteristic of "luxury" good can be applied to tourism. Bilateral RER also were significant in both models.

Through the impulse response functions, we can appreciate the different reactions to shocks among both country's tourist demands. In the case of Uruguay, shocks on both variables (income and relative prices) produce an impact on the number of Argentinean tourists visiting Uruguay, but the income's impact (here estimated through the monthly IPI) resulted more than double than prices impact (estimated through bilateral RER). The impact of income shock has an immediate effect on the Argentinean tourists visiting Uruguay, almost 5% the second month after the shock. In the case of the RER, the impact reaches 2% within 8 months.

A shock on US income simulated by the impulse response functions shows no significant impact on the number of US tourists visiting Mexico. However, there is a significant impact of a RER shock that reaches 2.5% within 14 months. These results are crucial when studying the behavior of tourism stakeholders. The private and public sectors must consider them as an additional instrument for planning, elaborating and implementing future strategies or policies for this particular sector.

REFERENCES

- Adnan Hye, Q. M., & Ali Khan, R. E. (2013). Tourism-led growth hypothesis: a case study of Pakistan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 303-313.
- Alonsoperez, M.J., Risso, W.A. (2012). *Una aproximacion alPBI turistico departamental del Uruguay 2010*. Ministry of Tourism and Sport/ International Development Bank Program.
- Altmark, S., Mordecki, G., Risso, W.A., Santinaque, F. (2013). Argentinian and Brazilian Demands for Tourism in Uruguay. *Tourism Analysis*, Vol. 8, pp 173-182.
- Alvarez-Diaz, M., Otero-Giraldez, M. S. y Gonzalez-Gomez, M. (2015). La Modelizacion de la Demanda de Turismo de Economias Emergentes: El caso de la Llegada de Turistas Rusos a Espana. Universidad de Vigo. Working Paper: 15/03. June 2015.
- Alvarez-Diaz, M., Otero-Giraldez, M. S. y Gonzalez-Gomez, M. (2012). Estimating International Tourism Demand to Spain Separately by the Major Source Markets. Universidad de Vigo. *Working Paper: 12/04*. September 2012.
- Brida, J. G.; Risso, W. A.; Carrera, E. J. S. (2008). A long-run equilibrium demand function: tourism in Mexico. *Tourismos 3* (1) Chios: University of the Aegean, 2008, 66-82.
- Brida, J., Lanzilotta, B., Risso, W. (2010). The tourism-led growth hypothesis for Uruguay, *bri*, vol. 16 (3), pp. 765771.
- Brida, G., Monterubbianesi, P.D. & Serviansky, M. (2012). El impacto del costo de transporte en la demanda de turismo receptivo argentino en Uruguay. Un analisis desagregado de cointegracion y causalidad. *TURyDES Vol 5*, N° 12.
- Chon, K. S., Pine, R. J., Lam, T., & Zhang, H. Q. (2013). Tourism and hotel development in China: From political to economic success'. *Routledge*.
- Chou, M. C. (2013). Does tourism development promote economic growth in transition countries? A panel data analysis. *Economic Modelling*, 33, 226-232.
- Costa, C., Panyik, E., & Buhalis, D. (2014). A Comparative Approach to European Tourism Planning and Organisation Systems: An Introduction. *European Tourism Planning and Organisation Systems: The EUMember States*, 61, 1.
- Crouch, G. I. (1995). A meta-analysis of tourism demand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Volume 22, Issue 1.
- Desplas, N. (2010). *La oferta turistica de la sierra tarahumara: su caracterizacion y sus potencialidades para el turista europeo*. Talleres graficos del Estado de Chihuahua, Mexico: Secretaria de Desarrollo Comercial y Turistico, pp.1-71.
- Enders, W. (1995). *Applied Econometric Time Series*. Iowa State University, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Editors.
- Ghimire, K. B. (Ed.). (2013). The native tourist: Mass tourism within developing countries. *Routledge*.
- Hong Kong Tourism Board (2014), *Hong Kong, the facts*. Recovered on December 2014 in the link: <http://www.gov.hk/en/about/abouthk/factsheets/docs/tourism.pdf>
- Johansen, S. (1988). Statistical Analysis of Cointegration Vectors, *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control*, vol. 12, pp. 231-254.
- Johansen, S. (1992). Cointegration in Partial Systems and the Efficiency of Single-equation Analysis. *Journal of Econometrics*, 52, 3, pp. 389-402.
- Lim, C. (1997). Review of international tourism demand models, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Volume 24, Issue 4, October 1997, Pages 835-849.

- Lim, C. & McAleer, M. (2001). *Modelling the determinants of international tourism demand to Australia*. The Institute of Social and Economic Research Osaka University.
- Mudambi, R. and Baum, T. (1997). Strategic segmentation: an empirical analysis of tourist expenditure in Turkey, *Journal of Travel Research*, vol. 36, pp. 29-34.
- Paraskevopolous, G. (1977). An Econometric Analysis of International Tourism, *Lecture Series No. 31*, Centre of Planning and Economic Research, Athens, Greece.
- Peterson, R. R., Cardenas, D., & Harrill, R. (2014). Tourism as a Catalyst for Economic Development in Latin America: Setting an Agenda for Policy and Research. *Tourism Analysis*, 19(1), 117-122.
- Ridderstaat J., Croes R. and Nijkamp P. (2014), Tourism and Long-run Economic Growth in Aruba, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16, pages 472-487, doi: [10.1002/jtr.1941](https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.1941)
- Robano, V. (2000). Determinantes del turismo receptivo en Uruguay, Proceedings of the XV Jornadas de Economia del Banco Central del Uruguay, Montevideo.
- Schubert, S.F., Brida, J.G., & Risso, W.A. (2011). [The impacts of international tourism demand on economic growth of small economies dependent on tourism](#), *Tourism Management*, Volume 32, Issue 2, April 2011, Pages 377-385
- Serviansky, M. (2011). El impacto del costo del transporte en la demanda de turismo receptivo argentino en Uruguay. Un analisis desagregado de cointegracion y causalidad, *thesis presented to obtain the master degree in economics, Montevideo, Uruguay*.
- Song, H. and Li, G. (2008). Tourism demand modelling and forecasting—A review of recent research. *Tourism Management*, Volume 29, Issue 2, 203-220.
- Song, H., Li, G., Witt, S.F. and Fei, B. (2010). Tourism demand modelling and forecasting: how should demand be measured? *Tourism Economics*, 16 (1), 63-81.
- Stronge, W., and Redman, M., (1982). US tourism in Mexico: and empirical analysis, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 9, 21-35.
- Tang, C. F., & Tan, E. C. (2013). How stable is the tourism-led growth hypothesis in Malaysia? Evidence from disaggregated tourism markets. *Tourism Management*, 37, 52-57.
- Timothy, D. J. (2014). Trends in Tourism, Shopping, and Retailing. *The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism*, 378-388.
- Truett, D., and Truett, L. (1987). The response of tourism to international economic conditions: Greece, Mexico, and Spain, *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 21, 177-90.
- Tugcu, C. T. (2014). Tourism and economic growth nexus revisited: A panel causality analysis for the case of the Mediterranean Region. *Tourism Management*, 42, 207-212.
- UNWTO. (2014a). Tourism in the world in 2013 Retrieved December 1st, 2014, from http://dx.tq4w60xqp.wcloudfront.net/sites/all/files/pdf/unwto_highlights14_en.pdf
- UNWTO. (2014b). UNWTO World Tourism Barometer Retrieved December 10, 2015, from <http://mkt.unwto.org/barometer>
- White House, (2014). Fact sheet: & report: President Obama Visits Cooperstown to Highlight Travel and Tourism that is Growing our Economy and Creating Jobs. Retrieved December 11, 2014, from <http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2014/05/22/fact-sheet-report-president-obama-visits-cooperstown-highlight-travel-an>
- WTTC. (2011). WTTC Annual Reports, Progress and Priorities 2011/11; *The World Travel and*

APPENDIX³

Model 1

Uruguayan Tourism Demand from Argentina

Normality residual tests

VEC Residual Normality Tests			
Orthogonalization: Cholesky (Lutkepohl)			
Null Hypothesis: residuals are multivariate normal			
Sample: 1998M01 2015M12			
Included observations: 202			
Component	Jarque-Bera	df	Prob.
1	0.961501	2	0.6183
2	3.728856	2	0.1550
3	3.550176	2	0.1695
4	2.696900	2	0.2596
Joint	10.93743	8	0.2053

Autocorrelation Residual Tests		
VEC Residual Serial Correlation LM Tests		
Null Hypothesis: no serial correlation at lag order h		
Sample: 1998M01 2015M12		
Included observations: 202		
Lags	LM-Stat	Prob
1	15.69975	0.4741
2	13.99723	0.5989
3	25.00851	0.0697
4	20.55264	0.1964
5	22.50152	0.1277
Probs from chi-square with 16 df.		

Model 2

Mexican Tourism Demand from US

Normality Residual Tests

VEC Residual Normality Tests			
Orthogonalization: Cholesky (Lutkepohl)			
Null Hypothesis: residuals are multivariate normal			
Sample: 1998M01 2015M12			
Included observations: 202			
Component	Jarque-Bera	df	Prob.
1	0.316883	2	0.8535
2	0.309266	2	0.8567
3	1.551813	2	0.4603
Joint	2.177962	6	0.9026

Autocorrelation Residual Tests

VEC Residual Serial Correlation LM Tests		
Null Hypothesis: no serial correlation at lag order h		
Date: 08/31/16 Time: 15:29		
Sample: 1998M01 2015M12		
Included observations: 202		
Lags	LM-Stat	Prob
1	8.499261	0.4847
2	8.159813	0.5181
3	10.47951	0.3131
4	12.14074	0.2055
5	15.26063	0.0840
Probs from chi-square with 9 df.		

³ The econometrics estimations were made using E-views 9. The details of the econometric estimations can be requested to the authors.

INTENTION OF YOUNG RUSSIAN TOURISTS TO VISIT COUNTRY-TARGET OF ANIMOSITY: THEORY- AND DATA-DRIVEN MODELS

Svetlana Stepchenkova

University of Florida Gainesville, FL, USA

Andrei Kirilenko

University of Florida Gainesville, FL, USA

Elena Shichkova

Lobachevsky State University of Nizhni Novgorod Nizhni Novgorod, Russia

ABSTRACT

The study investigates the effect of animosity, national attachment, and ethnocentric tendencies of young Russian tourists, their perceptions of United States as country and a vacation destination, and their demographic and travel experience profile on intention to visit. The most influential variables were identified using two models: theory-driven and data-driven. The theory-driven model was estimated using path analysis, while the data-driven model was analyzed using data mining techniques. Both approaches obtained essentially the same results: destination image, country image, and animosity were the most influential variables affecting decision-making of young Russian tourists.

Key Words: Animosity, Country Image, Destination Image, Data Mining, National Attachment, Path Analysis

INTRODUCTION

The study is set in the Russia-U.S. context where Russia is the tourism-generating region and the U.S. is the vacation destination. The relations between the United States and Russia have been in decline for the last five years, with the conflict culminating over the events in Ukraine and Crimea in 2014 and sanctions imposed on Russia by the “collective West.” Russian general and social media and rhetoric of official agencies and public figures reflect the growing levels of national pride and animosity toward the United States. The study investigates the effect of animosity, national attachment, and ethnocentric tendencies of young Russian tourists on their desire to vacation in the United States. The young Russian tourists are of special interest, since as “citizens of their respective countries, they should mirror the larger national attitudes of their countries” (Saffu & Walker, 2005: 562). At the same time, they may not be willing to sacrifice consumption of global brands, including American brands, to which they are

accustomed. If so, then marketing efforts of Brand USA targeting the younger Russian tourists may be in order, even in the situation of strained relations between the two countries at present.

Recent developments in machine learning brought a variety of new methods for building the models that are not derived from theoretical insights but are based on analysis of patterns directly observed in data. Accordingly, the traditional theory-driven research design is more often bypassed by data-driven approaches. There is currently an active discussion of an ongoing epistemological paradigm shift driven by availability of Big Data and rapid progress in development of data analytics methods. Some authors even proposed the death of theory-driven research, at least, in natural sciences (Anderson, 2008). While one may disagree with such extreme opinions, one cannot reject the effectiveness of data-driven science. As Google's research director Peter Norvig noticed (2009), one can argue that "in complex, messy domains ... involving unpredictable agents such as human beings, there are no general theories ... but if you have a dense distribution of data points, it may be appropriate to employ non-parametric density approximation models such as nearest-neighbors or kernel methods rather than parametric models such as low dimensional linear regression." It has been suggested that in social sciences the new data-intensive approaches will complement traditional theory-driven studies, establishing the base for computational social sciences (Kitchin, 2014).

This study investigates the desire of young Russians to visit the United States using the "traditional" theory-driven approach and the relatively new data-driven methods. Three groups of potentially influential variables were considered: (1) image of the United States as a country and as a vacation destination; (2) psychographic variables of animosity toward the United States as well as national attachment and ethnocentric tendencies of young Russian consumers, and (3) demographic and travel experience variables. The goal was to identify the most influential variables and their effect on destination choice and to see whether the two approaches, theory-driven and data-driven, point in the same direction. The theory-driven model was estimated using path analysis, a technique combining multiple regression and structural equation modeling approaches. The data-driven model was estimated using the data mining techniques.

MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Animosity is the "remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein et al., 1998, p. 90). Jung and colleagues define animosity as "the emotional antagonism toward a specific party of various levels of intensity" (Jung et al., 2002, p. 525). Animosity can be rooted in historic conflicts over border or territories, past military conflicts, more recent economic disputes, or

diplomatic confrontations. Actions by governments and organizations in such conflicts can increase levels of animosity toward their respective countries, which, in turn, can result in boycotting exports from those countries by international consumers (Nes, Yelkur, & Silkoset, 2012). Studies (Nes et al., 2012; Reifler & Diamantopoulis, 2007) support the link between animosity and willingness to buy the product from the country-target of that animosity in a number of geographical contexts and with various product types. The effect is direct and negative: an increase of animosity levels coincides with a diminishing willingness to buy. One of the tenets of animosity theory is that animosity is unrelated to product judgements, that is, in a situation of high animosity, the resolve not to buy products originated in the country-target of animosity can be very strong despite favorable evaluations of that products' quality (Klein et al., 1998). However, recent studies found that, in certain contexts, animosity affects product judgements (Etterson & Klein, 2005; Nissen & Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2009).

Jung et al. (2002) classified types of animosity along two dimensions: stable-situational and national-personal.

Stable animosity, as the name suggests, refers to general antagonistic emotions accumulated in a long-standing conflict between the countries or in difficult political relationships over a prolonged period of time. Situational animosity, in contrast, arises due to a current circumstance and can interplay with the stable one, that is, produce "spikes" over the background stable animosity. National stable animosity is a product of memories about how the country-target of animosity has treated the person's home country in the past, while personal animosity, whether stable or situational, arises from personal negative experiences with a foreign country or its people in the context of tourism, business travel, or interaction in an international setting.

Animosity in a form of anti-Americanism, that is, a "consistent hostility towards the government, culture, history or peoples of the U.S.," (Amine, 2008, p. 402) has been on the rise in Russia for some time. Eighty-one percent of Russians hold negative views about the U.S, a sharp increase in negative sentiment from only two years prior, when 49% of Russians held negative views toward the U.S. (Pew Research, 2015). Russian media portrays the U.S. as a deeply flawed country, with a corrupt and ineffective political system and social and racial problems. Thus, with respect to animosity toward the United States, the following relationships were included in the model:

R1: National animosity directly and positively affects general animosity.

R2: Personal animosity directly and positively affects general animosity.

R3: General animosity has a direct negative effect on both country image and destination image.

R4: General animosity has a direct negative effect on intention to visit.

Research documents predispositions of some consumers toward imported goods and at the same time preference of others for products manufactured in their own country (Verlegh, 2007). In the marketing literature, the term “consumer ethnocentrism” represents beliefs that consumers may hold about the “appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280); thus, consumer ethnocentrism is thought to reflect consumers’ predisposition for protection of domestic economy. Shimp and Sharma (1987) demonstrated a strong negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the quality evaluations and buying intentions for domestic products; however, the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on buying foreign products is far less certain. Consumers may actually prefer foreign goods when they are clearly superior to the domestic alternatives; for example, Klein et al. (2006) showed that Russian consumers, while biased toward the domestic goods, did not discriminate against superior imported products.

National identification and consumer ethnocentrism are related concepts, as national identification strongly influences individuals’ judgments of their own country and of other countries (Verlegh, 2007). As individuals seek to express their identity through consumption, domestic products often have important social and cultural connotations and may serve as a symbol for national identity (Askegaard & Ger, 1998). The current situation in Russia is a good illustration of this thesis: in response to Western sanctions, the Russian government imposed a “sweeping ban on the import of meat and meat products, fish and sea food, cheese, milk and milk products, as well as fruit and vegetables from the United States, the European Union, Australia, Canada and Norway” (Felgenhauer, 2014). This move was largely met with approval by the Russian population: as Russian Prime Minister Dmitry Medvedev stated, “the ban will bring Russia much good—the shelves in our malls will be cleared and filled with Russian produce—we must not miss such an opportunity to expand import replacement” (Felgenhauer, 2014, citing Russian news agency Interfax, August 7, 2014).

The patriotic sentiment had been running very strong in Russia for half a year prior to the time of the study, starting with Sochi Olympic Games and the events in Crimea in February, 2014. This sentiment, as well as consumer ethnocentric tendencies, in the authors’ view, have been channeled through animosity. As animosity is in large part determined by external events (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), and ethnocentrism and national attachment rather reflect the inherent predispositions of a person (Sumner, 1906; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), people with higher levels of ethnocentric tendencies and

national attachment may express more anti-American sentiment and, thus, feel more antagonistic toward the U.S. and its products in general. Moreover, national attachment may also influence tourist decision-making, as “natives of one country may react negatively to foreign countries and their products because of heightened awareness of their own cohesive group identity and solidarity” (Huang et al., 2010, p. 912). Therefore, considering the intensity and immediacy of the conflict, the following propositions were tested:

R5: Consumer ethnocentrism directly and positively affects general animosity.

R6: Consumer ethnocentrism has a direct negative effect on intention to visit.

R7: National attachment directly and positively affects general animosity.

R8: National attachment has a direct negative effect on intention to visit.

With respect to country image and tourist destination image, three relationships as established in the literature (e.g., Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Nadeau et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2016) were included:

R9: Country image has a direct positive effect on destination image.

R10: Country image has a direct positive effect on intention to visit.

R11: Destination image has a direct positive effect on intention to visit.

Finally, studies have shown that demographic variables and familiarity with the destination can significantly affect perceptions of destination image and intention to revisit (e.g., Chew & Jahari, 2014; Huang et al., 2010). Travel horizons, that is a wider travel experience (Oppenmann, 2000), makes a person more open-minded and tolerant to other cultures as a result can also affect destination image and desire to visit (Stepchenkova & Li, 2013). Thus, the following relationships were included in the model for testing:

R12: Gender directly affects destination image.

R13: Gender directly affects intention to visit.

R14: Familiarity directly and positively affects destination image.

R15: Familiarity directly and negatively affects general animosity.

R16: Familiarity directly and positively affects intention to visit.

R17: Travel experience directly and negatively affects general animosity.

R18: Travel experience directly and positively affects intention to visit.

METHOD The Instrument

As animosity is context specific (Reifel & Diamantopoulos, 2007) and has a temporal dimension (Etterson & Klein, 2005), the scale used by Jung et al. (2002), with its focus on the political and, especially, economic aspects of animosity, seemed well suited for the current situation in Russia, as the first signs that the country was struggling from recession and economic sanctions imposed by the US and “collective West” had already appeared in the media by the time of the survey (November, 2014). However, in the pilot-test of the instrument, the stable aspect of animosity did not manifest itself. While in the past the U.S. and Russia were both military allies and foes, respondents may have been too young to harbor national stable or personal stable animosity toward the U.S., as Russian-U.S. relations have fluctuated between friendly and hostile over the course of their lives. Thus, the respective items related to the stable aspect of animosity were excluded. National Situational animosity had three items: e.g., “The U.S. want to gain more control over my country in the current political and economic situation.” Personal Situational animosity had four items: e.g., “Because of the U.S. actions, I feel that my safety is threatened.” As animosity is affective in nature (Klein et al., 1998; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1997), general animosity was measured with three indicators: “I dislike Americans”; “I do not want to be friends with Americans”; and “I feel resentful toward the U.S.”

The consumer ethnocentrism was operationalized using six items from the CETSCALE instrument (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) following Klein et al. (1998) and Verlegh (2007): e.g., “Russian people should always buy Russian- made products instead of imports” and “Purchasing foreign-made products is not patriotic.” Operationalization of the national attachment construct followed Verleigh (2007) and had four items: e.g., “I am proud to live in Russia” and “I feel very strong ties with Russia.” The questionnaire items pertaining to the constructs of animosity, national attachment, and consumer ethnocentrism are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Model Constructs: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Items	Consumer Ethnocentrism.	National Attach.	Personal Animosity	General Animosity	National Animosity	Commun.
It is not right to buy foreign products because it puts Russians out of jobs.	0.86					0.76
We should buy products made in Russia instead of other countries get rich off us.	0.82					0.74
Purchasing foreign-made products is not patriotic.	0.79					0.67
A real Russian should always buy Russian-made	0.78					0.67
Russian people should always buy Russian-made instead of imports.	0.76					0.72
We should buy from foreign countries only those that we cannot obtain within our own country.	0.67					0.56
I am proud to live in Russia.		0.87				0.83
Living in Russia means a lot to me.		0.87				0.79
I feel very strong ties with Russia.		0.81				0.75
When a foreigner praises Russia, it feels like a compliment.		0.77				0.67
Because of the U.S. actions, I feel that my safety is threatened.			0.80			0.76
Because of the U.S. actions, I worry more about my than I did earlier.			0.76			0.66
I feel that in the current political and economic actions are directed against personally me and my			0.73			0.67
I resent the U.S. for making my family poorer.			0.66			0.67
I dis like Americans.				0.90		0.90
I do not want to be friends with Americans.				0.86		0.85
I feel resentful toward the United States.				0.75		0.77
The U. S. want to gain more control over my country current political and economic situation.					0.85	0.79
Now the U.S. are trying so hard to inflict economic on my country.					0.83	0.76
The U.S. do not care that my country has become result of recent sanctions.					0.67	0.51
Eigenvalue	4.02	3.18	2.61	2.41	2.30	
Variance Explained (%)	20.08	15.91	13.07	12.07	11.47	72.59
Cronbach's alpha	0.90	0.89	0.83	0.89	0.74	

Country image and destination image were operationalized as overall attitudes towards the US as a country and a destination, respectively. The wording used was: “On the scale from 1 (Extremely

negative) to 10 (Extremely positive), evaluate your overall image of the United States as a country (a vacation destination).” Prior to obtaining the overall attitude scores, the respondents were asked to supply three the most salient images in respective domain (country or destination) along with their favorability scores. The aim of such a “priming” was to make respondents think about the U.S. as a country and vacation destination and to “activate” the respective nodes in their memory network.

Familiarity was measured by the item “Do you have friends or relatives living in the United States?” Travel experience was represented by the number of trips abroad in the five years prior to the survey. Lastly, the visit intention was operationalized with one item: “I would like to visit the United States in the next 5 years.” The measurement scale for the animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, national attachment, and intention to visit items was a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree), where the larger values represented the higher levels of animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and national attachment. For the visit intention item, a larger score represented a higher desire to visit.

Data Collection and Sample

The survey of 405 students was conducted at a large regional university in Russia in November 2014. Participants were young urban Russians from a relatively well-off and educated stratum of society, which can be considered the Russian middle class (Tekes Report, 2015). Nine respondents skipped entire sections in the questionnaire and all their answers were excluded from the analysis. The gender composition of the remained sample was skewed toward females (64% vs. 36%). The majority of respondents (89%) identified themselves as ethnic Russians. Seventy-three percent of respondents had traveled internationally at least once five years prior to the study, 31% more than three times, and 14% more than five times. While only 6% of them visited the US, 27% had either friends or relatives living in the US.

Preliminary Analyses

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the dataset for patterns in missing data, conduct data imputation, test for multivariate outliers, and generate the descriptive statistics. The Analysis of Moments Structure (AMOS 23) was used to estimate the proposed model using the path analysis method (Fig. 1). The largest percentage of missing data in collected variables was 0.08%. Little’s test confirmed that missing data were missing completely at random for all variables. Data imputation was conducted using the expectation maximization algorithm. No data were imputed in the demographic section of the survey.

Exploratory factor analysis was performed on the items pertaining to the latent constructs of national situational, personal situational and general animosity, as well as consumer ethnocentrism and national attachment (Table 1). The items fell in their respective factors as was proposed, and no item was excluded as statistically “weak.” The obtained factor solution was strong: KMO statistic was 0.88, Bartlett’s test was highly significant, total variance explained by five factors was 72.59%, all factor loading exceeded 0.66, and all communalities were greater than 0.50 (Kline, 2005). Cronbach’s alphas indicated strong internal reliability of the items in their proposed constructs (Table 1). Thus, five respective manifest variables were created by the means of summated scales to use in the model (Figure 1). All manifest variables met the assumptions of univariate normality. The variables were examined for multivariate outliers using the Mahalanobis distance approach (Pallant, 2013), and none were found. The data were deemed suitable for testing the theory-driven model using the structural equation modelling path analysis procedure.

RESULTS: THEORY-DRIVEN MODEL

The magnitude of the bivariate correlations between variables in the model was in the range of 0.099 (tourism destination image and national attachment) and 0.581 (country image and general animosity), indicating the absence of multicollinearity in the data. Because of the missing values on gender, familiarity, and travel experience variables, the sample size was decreased by seven cases to 389 respondents. The model exhibited very good fit: $\chi^2(15)=19.036$, $p=0.212$; GFI=0.991; AGFI=0.962; SRMSR=0.044; CFI=0.996; RMSEA (90% CI) = 0.026 (0.0000.058). The conventional cut-off for the GFI and AGFI indices is 0.90 (Hair et al., 2013; Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA values smaller than 0.05 indicate close fit, while values between 0.05 and 0.08 suggest reasonable error of approximation (Kline, 2005). The CFI index should exceed 0.90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and SRMSR (standardized root mean square residuals) below 0.10 are considered an acceptable fit (Kline, 2005).

Table 2
Path Analysis: Standardized Solution

	Path	Direct	Sig. ^a	Indirect	Total
R1	General Animosity<---National Animosity	0.05			0.05
R2	General Animosity<---Personal Animosity	0.37	***		0.37
R5	General Animosity<---Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.24	***		0.24
R7	General Animosity<---National Attachment	0.07			0.07
R15	General Animosity<---Familiarity	-0.07	#		-0.07
R17	General Animosity<---Travel Experience	-0.07			-0.07
R3a	Country Image<---General Animosity	-0.59	***		-0.59
	Country Image<---Travel Experience			0.04	0.04
	Country Image<---Familiarity			0.04	0.04
	Country Image<---National Animosity			-0.03	-0.03
	Country Image<---Personal Animosity			-0.22	-0.22
	Country Image<---Consumer Ethnocentrism			-0.14	-0.14
	Country Image<---National Attachment			-0.04	-0.04
R3b	Destination Image<---General Animosity	-0.25	***	-0.18	-0.43
	Destination Image<---National Animosity			-0.02	-0.02
	Destination Image<---Personal Animosity			-0.16	-0.16
R9	Destination Image<---Country Image	0.31	***		0.31
R12	Destination Image<---Gender	0.11	*		0.11
R14	Destination Image<---Familiarity	0.10	*	0.03	0.13
	Destination Image<---Travel Experience			0.03	0.03
	Destination Image<---Consumer Ethnocentrism			-0.10	-0.10
	Destination Image<---National Attachment			-0.03	-0.03
R4	Intention to Visit<---General Animosity	-0.25	***	-0.22	-0.47
	Intention to Visit<---National Animosity			-0.02	-0.02
	Intention to Visit<---Personal Animosity			-0.17	-0.17
R6	Intention to Visit<---Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.02		-0.11	-0.13
R8	Intention to Visit<---National Attachment	0.00		-0.03	-0.03
R10	Intention to Visit<---Country Image	0.18	***	0.09	0.27
R11	Intention to Visit<---Destination Image	0.28	***		0.28
R13	Intention to Visit<---Gender	0.03		0.03	0.06
R16	Intention to Visit<---Familiarity	0.08	#	0.06	0.14
R18	Intention to Visit<---Travel Experience	0.04		0.03	0.07
Squared Multiple Correlations: Manifest Variable		R^2			
	General Animosity	0.359			
	Country Image	0.342			
	Destination Image	0.283			
	Intention to Visit	0.348			

^a Direct path effect is significant at 0.10 level (#); at 0.05 level (*); at 0.001 level (***)

There were four endogenous variables in the model: General Animosity, Country Image, Destination Image, and Intention to Visit. Parameter estimates were examined for strength of the proposed

relationships. Since the scales for measuring variables differed, the magnitudes of unstandardized path coefficients are not directly comparable and should be interpreted with reference to the original scale. The standardized coefficients are directly comparable and constitute effect sizes for the model. The summary of direct, indirect, and total standardized effects for the original model is provided in Table 3. Only Personal Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism had a significant effect on General Animosity. For Country Image, General Animosity had a highly significant negative effect. For Destination Image, the following variables were influential: General Animosity, Country Image, Gender, and Familiarity. Lastly, for Intention to Visit, Country Image and Destination Image were highly significant while familiarity was marginally significant. Thus, out of 18 proposed relationships (R1-R18), ten were supported and one was marginally supported.

RESULTS: DATA-DRIVEN MODEL

The RapidMiner Studio software was chosen as an integrated platform for data mining. To comply with the machine learning conventions, we will call the independent variables “features” and dependent variable “target”. Our goal was to test capability of the data mining approach to (1) reduce the number of features affecting the target variable intention to visit and (2) effectively predict intention to visit and visualize results of the analysis. The following independent variables were considered: Gender, Trips Abroad, FriendsOrRelatives in the USA, Animosity (General, Personal, and National), National Attachment, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and overall favorability of country and destination image. The target variable was intention to visit the United States in the next five years.

The first goal was achieved through the feature selection process, which selects a small subset of features that are the most useful in explaining the target. Similarly to EFA dimensionality reduction, feature selection attempts to reduce the number of variables in a model, essentially providing a better understanding of the observed data and the real-world processes that produced these data (Guyon & Elisseeff, 2003). The target intention to visit variable was discretized into three classes: averse (values 1 and 2); neutral (values 3, 4, and 5); and enthusiastic (values 6 and 7). The following commonly used in machine learning methods (Wang et al, 2010) were selected: Chi-Square, Gini, Information Gain, Information Gain Ratio, and Relief. The Chi-Square method tests the hypothesis of independence between a feature and the target that is that each value of the feature is equally likely to appear in each target class. Gini and two entropy-based indices, Information Gain and Information Gain Ratio, are impurity-based measures (that is, the measures of misclassification), frequently used in decision tree learning. Finally, Relief method measures ability of a feature to differentiate among similar data vectors (Liu & Motoda’s, 2007).

For the second goal, decision tree data mining method was applied. Three decision tree models were built and then the overall model was obtained, with all influential variables included. The models were built and analyzed using the RapidMiner data mining platform. The intention to visit variable was discretized into two classes: negative and positive. Information gain ratio criterion was selected for splitting; tree depth was limited to 6 and pruning and prepruning was applied. Model performance was determined using 10-fold cross-validation based on three indicators accepted in data mining applications: accuracy, recall, and precision (Junker et al., 1999). Relative importance of variables in a model was determined using the information gain and correlation criteria.

Feature Selection

Results of feature selection are found in Table 4, which lists feature weights distributed between 0 and 1; more relevant features have higher weights. Universally, the top three features are Country Image (CI) and Tourist Destination Image (TDI) favorability and General Animosity, which are the same variables that are highly significant in the model estimated with path analysis (Table 2). Moreover, all other variables have much lower scores returned by all methods except for Relief, which had more uniform weight distribution. When the original survey items are used (not the manifest variables created with the use of the EFA), the results are the same, which makes the EFA step to construct manifest variables redundant. In four out of five feature selection methods (excluding Relief), the following five features have the highest weights: Country Image and Tourist Destination Image overall favorability and three general animosity items (“I feel resentful toward the United States”, “I dislike Americans”, and “I do not want to be friends with Americans”). In the Relief method, consumer ethnocentrism items (“We should purchase products manufactured in Russia instead of letting other countries get rich off us” and “We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country”) become also important.

Model

Decision tree models of intention to visit are shown on Figure 1 A (with manifest variables) and B (with original survey items). Model A has accuracy 0.61, recall 0.50, and precision 0.56, and model B has accuracy 0.60, recall 0.48, and precision 0.62. In model A, low travel destination favorability (right side of the tree) leads to predominantly negative (when country image is low) or neutral (when country image is high) decision to travel. Moderate or high travel destination favorability (left side of the tree) combined with high animosity leads to negative decision to travel. When animosity is low, decision to travel is positive when country image is high or when the travel destination favorability is very high

and neutral, otherwise. Model B is similar: low travel destination favorability leads to predominantly negative (when country image is low) or neutral (when country image is high) decision to travel. Moderate or high travel destination favorability combined with very positive country image lead to positive decision to travel. When the country image is moderate or low, decision to travel is determined by the level of animosity

Table 3

Relative feature weights for the Intention to Visit model (manifest variables are used). The top three features are shaded

	Chi-Square	Gini	Info Gain	Info Gain Ratio	Relief
Gender	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.36
Trips abroad	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.23	0.20
Friends/Relatives in the	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.04	0.00
Animosity General	0.95	0.96	0.95	0.85	1.00
Animosity Personal	0.24	0.24	0.17	0.24	0.52
Animosity National	0.16	0.17	0.22	0.31	0.26
National Attachment	0.20	0.23	0.28	0.23	0.48
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.35	0.32	0.37	0.45	0.42
Country Image	0.93	0.93	1.00	0.73	0.73
Tourist Destination Image	1.00	1.00	0.89	1.00	0.73

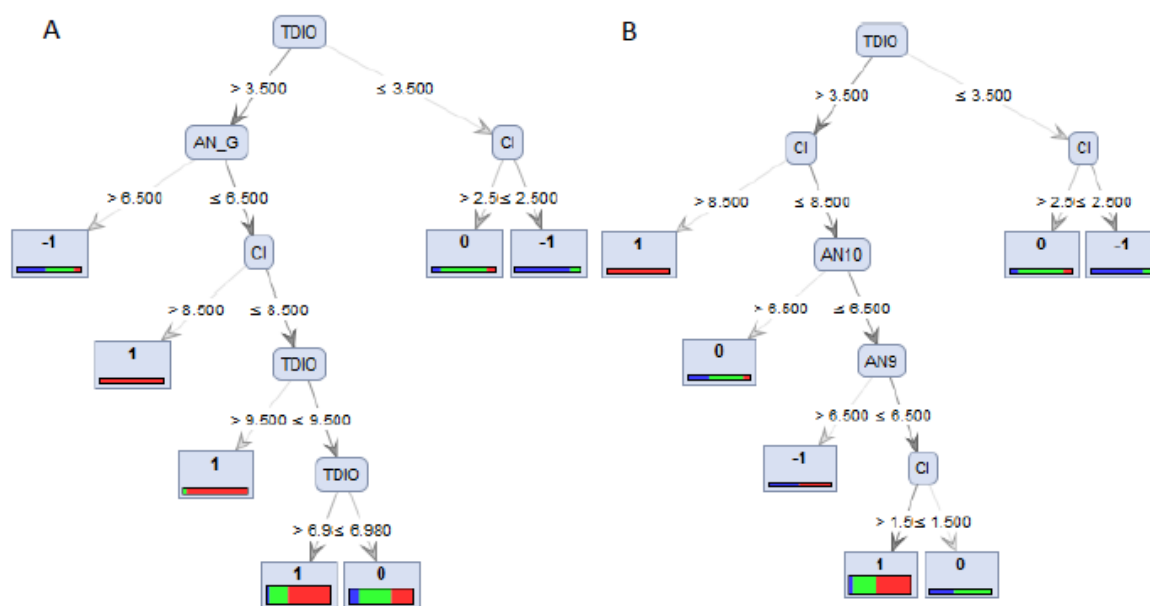


Figure 1

Decision tree model of the intention of young Russians to visit the United States: A: with manifest variables; B: with original survey items. Variable names are as follows: TDIO - Travel Destination Image favorability; CI - Country Image favorability; AN2, AN3, and AN_G - Animosity (two original variables and General Animosity manifest variable). Numbers and colors in the boxes designate decision to travel and relative size of the group: -1 (blue) - negative; 0 (green) - neutral, and 1 (red) - positive

CONCLUSION

The most influential variables for the intention to visit the United States, the country-target of animosity, are general animosity, country image, and destination image.

The results of the theory-driven model indicate that tourist destination image has the largest direct effect on intention to visit (0.28), while general animosity is the most influential variable in terms of its total effect on intention to visit (-0.47). Animosity has also large and medium size effects on country image (-0.59) and destination image (-0.25), respectively. The study also found that general animosity measured as a negative affect toward the United States is stemmed mainly from personal situational animosity (direct effect -0.37), while the national animosity was not significant (direct effect 0.05). Consumer ethnocentrism, which significantly influenced general animosity (0.24), but not country image (-0.14) or destination image (-0.10), did not affect intention to visit (total effect -0.13), indicating that in the situation of economic conflict ethnocentric tendencies of the consumers may be channeled through animosity. National attachment, while correlated with consumer ethnocentrism ($r = 0.37$), did not have any significant effect on any of the endogenous variables. Finally, the total effects of gender (0.06), familiarity (0.14), and travel experience (0.07) on intention to visit did not reach the level of statistical significance.

While the aforementioned results were obtained within a theory-based approach, it has also been demonstrated that very similar results can be obtained with a data-driven approach. Very few variables, namely two general animosity items ("I dislike Americans"; "I do not want to be friends with Americans"), country image, and destination image variables, affected the decision to travel. Same as in the theory-driven model, the effects of gender, travel experience, and familiarity were minimal. The authors speculate that, at least for larger data sets, the data mining methods have a potential to provide

an attractive low-cost alternative to traditional and more time-consuming theory-driven methods of analysis. Continuing, while some of the data mining methods such as the artificial neural networks, are essentially the black-boxes and do not allow "reverse-engineered" analysis of how the respondents' conclusions are obtained, others, such as the decision trees used in this paper, are able to show explicitly how the decision are made.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, C. (July 16, 2008). The end of theory: the data deluge makes the scientific method obsolete. *Wired Magazine*.
- Alvarez, M. D., & Campo, S. (2014). The influence of political conflicts on country image and intention to visit. A study of Israel's image. *Tourism Management*, 40, 70-78.
- Amine, L. S. (2008). Country-of-origin, animosity and consumer response: marketing implications of anti- Americanism and Francophobia. *International Business Review*, 17, 402-22.
- Askegaard, S., & Ger, G. (1998). Product-country images: toward a contextualized approach. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 3, 50-58.
- Ettenson, R., & Klein, G. (2005). The fallout from French nuclear testing in the South Pacific - a longitudinal study of consumer boycotts. *International Marketing Review*, 2 (2), 199-224.
- Felgenhauer, P. (August 7, 2014). In escalating standoff with West, Russia imposes food ban. *Eurasia Daily Monitor*, 11 (145). www.jamestown.org/single/?tx_ttnews%5Btt_news%5D=42721&no_cache=1,last accessed on August 23, 2015.
- Guyon, I., & Elisseeff, A. (2003). An introduction to variable and feature selection. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 3(Mar), 1157-1182.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2013). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th ed. Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, R. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indices in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6, 1-55.
- Huang, Y. A., Phau, I., & Lin, C. (2010). Consumer animosity, economic hardship, and normative influence: how do they affect consumers' purchase intention? *European Journal of Marketing*, 44(7/8), 909-937.
- Jung, K., Ang, S. H., Leong, S. M., Tan, S. J., Pornpitakpan, C., & Kau, A. K. (2002). A typology of animosity and its cross-national validation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(6), 525-39.
- Junker, M., Hoch, R., & Dengel, A. (1999). On the evaluation of document analysis components by recall, precision, and accuracy. ICDAR'99 (pp. 713-716). IEEE.
- Kitchin, R. (2014). Big Data, new epistemologies and paradigm shifts. *Big Data & Society*, 1(1).
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Krishnan, B. C. (2006). Extending the construct of consumer ethnocentrism: when foreign products are preferred. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 304-321.
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The animosity model of foreign product purchase: an empirical test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(1), 89-100.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*, 2nd ed. The Guilford Press:

New York, NY.

- Liu, H., & Motoda, H. (Eds.). (2007). *Computational methods of feature selection*. CRC Press.
- Nadeau, J., Heslop, L. A., O'Reilly, N., & Luk, P. (2008). Destination in a country image context. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(1), 84-106.
- Nes, E. B., Yelkur, R., & Silkoset, R. (2012). Exploring the animosity domain and the role of affect in a crossnational context. *International Business Review*, 21, 751-765.
- Oppermann, M. (1998). Travel horizon: A valuable analysis tool? *Tourism Management*, 19(4), 321-329.
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual*. McGraw-Hill Education: UK.
- Pew Research (2015). "America's global image" by Wike, R., Stokes, B., & Poushter, J., June 23, 2015. Last accessed on August 23, 2015 at <http://www.pewglobal.org/2015/06/23/1-america-global-image>.
- Riefler, P., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2007). Consumer animosity: a literature review and a reconsideration of its measurement. *International Marketing Review*, 24(1), 87-119.
- Rose, M., Rose, G. M., & Shoham, A. (2009). The impact of consumer animosity on attitudes towards foreign goods: a study of Jewish and Arab Israelis. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(5), 330 - 339.
- Roth, K.P., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2009). Advancing the country image construct. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(4): 726-40.
- Saffu, K., & Walker, J. H. (2005). An assessment of the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) in an advanced and transitional country: The case of Canada and Russia. *International Journal of Management*, 22(4), 556-571.
- Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14(3), 280-89.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Li, X. (Robert) (2012). Chinese outbound tourists' destination image of America: Part 2. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(6), 687-703.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Shichkova, E. (2016). Country and destination image domains of a place: Framework for quantitative comparison. *Journal of Travel Research*, in press. DOI: 10.1177/0047287516663320.
- Sumner, G. A. (1906). *Folkways*. New York: Ginn Custom Publishing.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of Intergroup Relations* (pp. 7-24). Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.
- Tekes Report (2015). Future of Russian Middle Class. Last accessed on September 13, 2016 at https://www.tekes.fi/globalassets/global/ohjelmat-ja-palvelut/kasvajakansainvalisty/future-watch/report_middle_class_fin.pdf.
- Verlegh, P. W. J. (2007). Home country bias in product evaluation: the complementary roles of economic and socio- psychological motives. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(3), 361-73.
- Verlegh, P. W., & Steenkamp, J. B. E. M. (1999). A review and meta-analysis of country-of-origin

research. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 20(5), 521-546.

Wang, H., Khoshgoftaar, T. M., & Napolitano, A. (2010, December). A comparative study of ensemble feature selection techniques for software defect prediction. In *Machine Learning and Applications (ICMLA), 2010 Ninth International Conference on* (pp. 135-140). IEEE.

Zhang, J., Wu, B., Morrison, A. M., Tseng, C., & Chen, Y. C. (2016). How country image affects tourists' destination evaluations: A moderated-mediation approach. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, in press. DOI: 10.1177/1096348016640584.

INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCE ON THE LOCAL COMMUNITIES' PERCEPTIONS OF EMOTIONS, TRUST, ATTACHMENT, AND SUPPORT FOR THE FIFA BRAZIL WORLD CUP

Bishnu Sharma, University of the Sunshine Coast, Australia

Dogan Gursoy, Washington State University, USA

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the demographic difference in local communities' perceptions of positive and negative emotions, trust in the government in organising the event, trust in the organising committee in organising the event, their level of attachment and support for the FIFA World Cup held in Brazil in 2014. The data for this study was collected from 12 cities in Brazil which were involved in hosting the World Cup games using a survey approach. Demographic variables used were gender, city of residence, age category, numbers of years lived in a city, marital status, occupation, education, income and ethnicity. The study found significant differences in their perceptions by the city of their residence. Significant differences were also noted in the negative emotions by all the demographic variables considered in this study. However, not all of them were significant for their level of trust, support and attachment to the event.

Key Words: Demographic difference, trust, emotions, attachment, and support

INTRODUCTION

The FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games are some of the international mega-events (Baade and Matheson 2004) which not only have the local or host country or regional appeal but also are characterised by their extensive international appeal as they have the capacity to attract an international audience through various forms of media such as TV, newspaper, the internet etc. (Kim & Chalip, 2004). The FIFA World Cup started in 1930 and has now emerged as one of the largest international sport events in the world and is contested by qualifying national teams from the 6 confederations 'Africa; Asia; Europe, North; Central America and Caribbean; Oceania; and South America'. This event takes place every four years on the years opposite to the Olympics to avoid competition with the Games for both players and fans (Baade & Matheson, 2004). There are altogether 209 teams entering the

qualification which consist of 53 teams from Africa, 46 teams from Asia, 54 teams from Europe, 35 teams from North, Central and Caribbean, 11 teams from Oceania, and 10 teams from South America. The upcoming FIFA events are scheduled for 2018 and 2022 which will be held in Russia and Qatar respectively. In spite of the fact that hosting the World Cup is an expensive affair (Baade & Matheson, countries / cities compete vigorously in hosting such events as they are perceived to help create an international image in making the destination more attractive for international tourists (Lee, Taylor, Lee & Lee, 2005) and consequently it has appeared as a significant component of destination marketing (Kim & Chalip, Kim & Chalip (2004) also noted that such events can lead to increased level of visitation, reduced seasonality of tourist flow, improvement in a destination's position in the market and foster destination development. These outcomes are expected to make a worthwhile contribution in boosting the economy (Baade & Matheson 2004) and making social and cultural changes to the host country (Gursoy, Sharma, Panoso, & Ribeiro, 2015; Pappas, 2014). Europe and South America can be regarded as the soccer powerhouses as they have demonstrated a dominant performance in the FIFA World Cup.

Organising such events involves the construction of sports arenas / stadiums (at least eight but preferably ten modern stadiums with seating capacities of 40,000 to 60,000) along with the improvement in infrastructure facilities such as communication systems, housing facilities and traffic networks (Barclay, 2009) which requires considerable amount of human, financial, and technical resources (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). South Korea, for example, spent somewhere around \$2 billion in the construction of ten new stadiums and Japan spent nearly \$4 billion in building seven new stadiums and refurbishing three existing ones for hosting the 2002 World Cup (Barclay, 2009). It has also been noted that the expenses related to security are growing significantly. Hosting mega-events of such size are expected to produce significant long-term economic benefits in terms of growth in tourism and urban infrastructure development (Getz, 2008) leading to increased level of spending by the visitors/sports fans in hotels, restaurants and other businesses ultimately generating a positive growth in employment (Barclay, 2009). For example, the Atlanta Olympic Organising Committee expected a \$5.1 billion economic boost and employment generation of 77,000 and the Sydney Olympic Games was predicted to produce a \$6.3 billion of positive economic impact and creation of 100,000 new jobs (Barclay, 2009). Despite the involvement of high cost/expenditure in construction and infrastructure improvement in hosting the event, the host countries and cities consider those costs as investment as they can trigger positive economic returns/benefits. However, on a negative note hosting such events can cause price rise and substantial inconvenience to the local community during the preparation stage (Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Lorde, Greenidge, & Devonish, 2011).

Positive influence e.g. the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism might lead

to resident's support for tourism activities and negative influence/change might lead to resident's withdrawal of support or opposition for tourism activities (Long & Kayat, 2011). Gaining community support for tourism / sporting event can also play an instrumental role for successful preparation and hosting of international sporting events which could be influenced by the local communities' emotions, attachment and their level of trust to the event organising body and the related government institutions (Sharma, Gursay, Panosso, & Ribeiro, 2016). For example, individuals' emotions play an important role in developing business relationships and also in mediating the interpersonal interaction sensitivities (Andersen & Kumar, 2006; Kumar, 1997). It has also been noted that gaining communities support for tourism is likely to be influenced by their socio-demographic characteristics (Sharma & Gursay, 2015). For example, communities' involvement in tourism in generating economic or social benefits can influence their perceptions towards tourism (Caneday & Zeiger, 1991). Demographic variables that can affect communities' perceptions towards tourism or an event include age, education level, income, employment status, marital status, ethnicity, place (city) of residence (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012; Sharma & Gursay, 2015). For example, young people take a more favourable attitude toward tourism's economic impacts than others (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Long & Kayat, 2011).

The literature also suggests that positive or negative emotions are associated with individual's level of satisfaction particularly in relation to sporting events (Desbordes, Ohl, & Tribou, 2001). As noted by Caro and Garcia (2007), individual emotions can influence perceived performance of the event leading to their satisfaction with event meaning enhanced support for the event. For example, positive emotions can have a positive influence on individual's level of satisfaction and negative emotions can lead to negative pleasure or some kind of anxiety to fulfil expectations or suffering (Caro & Garcia, 2007). Positive emotions relate to flourishing or optimal well-being and include enthusiasm, joy, love, laughter, empathy, action, and curiosity whereas negative emotions may include apathy, grief, fear, hatred, shame, blame, regret, resentment, anger, despair and hostility. Positive emotions are thus worth cultivating as they have a complementary effect in widening the array of thoughts and actions that come to individual's mind (Fredrickson, 2001). It has also been argued that 'positive emotions trigger upward spirals toward enhanced emotional well-being' (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002: 172). However, in reality people might express all sorts of combinations of positive and negative emotions. For measuring emotions, Caro and Garcia (2007) have used the following scales: pleased - angry, amused - bored, happy - unhappy, lively - down, delighted - undelighted, excited - calm, glad - sad, active - passive, hopeful - disillusioned, surprised - indifferent.

With growth in the size of a business from a family business to medium and large, involvement of the owners / shareholders in its management declines as they are normally managed professionally by the

independent managers ‘Chief Executive Officers’ and other managers e.g. functional managers (such as Marketing Manager, Operations Manager, Research & Development Manager), and project managers. There are managers at different levels in management structure, e.g. top level managers, middle level managers, and lower level managers. In the process of business management, businesses need to deal with suppliers which could be local and global, number of different employees, form partnerships to make collaborative arrangements with various national and international companies in marketing, research and development and so forth which involves great deal of trust and cooperation (Hill, Schilling, & Jones, 2017; Mangan, Lalwani, Butcher, & Javadpour, 2012).

Therefore, trust has a very important role in gaining confidence between various partners and managing business relationships with various related stakeholders including suppliers, customers, employees, government agencies (Cova & Salle, 2000; Jiang, Henneberg, & Naude, 2011; Witkowski & Thibodeau, 1999) which requires high level of commitment (Andersen & Kumar, 2006). Trust has been put into the following 3 different modes: 1) process-based tied to past or expected exchange, 2) characteristics-based tied to person or social characteristics, and 3) institution-based tied to formal structures based on individual or firm specific attributes (Zucker, 1986). Importance of trust has been discussed in the literature in various sectors including e- commerce in managing information security (Ratnasingham, 1998), financial investment and contracting decisions (Bottazzi, Rin & Hellmann, 2011), authority relations of groups, organizations and societies in terms of link among trust, personal relationships and the predictability of other people’s actions (Tyler, 2001), in government for public administration (Cooper, Knotts, & Brennan, 2008), for ethics, law and public policy, etc.

There are several studies which have examined tourism impacts in terms of social, cultural, economic, health and environmental impacts on local communities (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012; Inbakaran & Jackson, 2006; Li, Hsu & Lawton, 2014; Lorde, Greenidge, & Devonish, 2011; Long & Kayat, 2011; Sharma & Gursoy, 2015). Studies related to tourism impacts include a range of perspectives and a variety of contexts covering both positive and negative effects on host communities (Moyle, Croy, & Weiler, 2010). There are also studies that have investigated the factors that shape local residents’ attitude toward tourism development which include community concern and community attachment (Gursoy, Chi, & Dyer, 2010). Residents’ attachment to the community and their sensitivity towards environment have been reported as having an important role in shaping community attitudes towards hosting a sporting event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Launching and organising special events such as mega-sporting events are considered as a part of tourism and economic development strategies for communities in many countries / cities of the world (Twynam & Johnston, 2004). The importance of community support for making the event successful has also been discussed (Ritchie, Shipway, &

Cleeve 2009). However, community's support for sport events can be controversial as the governments have a tendency to impose extra tax to subsidise such events (Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002). The role that media plays in portraying the event also shapes residents' emotional attachment (Chien, Ritchie, Shipway, & Henderson, 2011).

Based on the review of the literature it can be summarised that residents' positive emotions, attachment and trust are associated with their level of support for hosting the mega-sporting events such as FIFA World Cup or the Olympics. However, there is a gap in understanding of the demographic influence on emotions, attachment, trust and support for such events. Therefore, this study investigates the demographic difference in the level of trust the local residents have to the relevant government and non-governmental bodies, their level of emotions (positive or negative), attachment and support for organising such events particularly in the case of the FIFA World Cup held in Brazil in 2014. To achieve these objectives the study will examine the following research question. The study includes the following demographic aspects: gender, age category, city of residence, marital status, level of education, level of income, ethnicity, number of years of residence in a city, and occupation.

Research question: Is there a difference in the communities perceptions' of support for 2014 World Cup, their attachment, emotions, and trust in the organising committee and the government by their gender, age category, city of residence, marital status, level of education, level of income, ethnicity, number of years of residence in a city, and occupation?

METHOD

In investigating the above research question, data for this study were collected using personal interviews from the residents of the 12 selected cities in Brazil utilizing an intercept approach. A professional data collection company was contracted to collect data from each of the selected cities. The 12 cities that hosted at least one World Cup game included Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo, Belo Horizonte, Porto Alegre, Brasilia, Cuiaba, Curitiba, Fortaleza, Manaus, Natal, Recife, Salvador. The interviewers were properly identified with the badge of the company and tablets were used for data collection. Interviewers were asked to approach every tenth person passing through. They were instructed to ask the person if s/he was interested in participating in a survey that measures local residents' perceptions of the 2014 World Cup. If the answer was a no, interviewers were instructed to intercept the next person and ask the same questions until they identified an individual who agreed to participate in the survey. After the individual agreed, the purpose of the study was explained in detail by the interviewer and a personal interview using a structured survey instrument was conducted. Each question was asked to the respondent by the

interviewer and his/her responses were recorded on a tablet. The survey company called back around 20 percent of respondents from each city to confirm the validity of the responses after each interviewer submitted the data they collected. The aim was to collect at least 250 usable responses from each city. The number of targeted usable responses was higher in cities with larger populations. The usable number of responses were 3770 from the 12 cities. Survey instrument used in this study was developed following the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991). A number of items to measure each construct were identified from the literature. Assessment of the content validity of these items was made by a group of tourism experts. The team of experts was also asked to provide comments on content and understandability of those items. They were then asked to edit and improve those items to enhance their clarity and readability. They were also asked to identify any of those scale items that are redundant and to offer suggestions for improving the proposed scale. After checking the content validity of the survey instrument, two pre-tests were conducted on local residents in Sao Paulo, Brazil. Based on the outcome of the pre-tests, the survey instrument was finalized.

The survey captured information on community attachment to the event, residents' positive and negative emotions toward the event, residents' perceptions of the trust to the government and the organising committee for organising the event, and their support for the event. Following items were used to measure community attachment to the event: 1) this event meant a lot to me, 2) I was very attached to this event, 3) I identified strongly with this event, 4) I had a special connection to this event and the people who attended to this event, 4)

I would not substitute any other event for recreation/entertainment I enjoy here, 6) to change my preference from going to this event to another leisure alternative would require major rethinking. Local residents' emotions towards the 2014 World Cup were measured with 13 items; seven items measuring positive emotions 'astonished, glad, caring, loving, fascinated, inspired, and amazed' and six items measuring negative emotions 'unfulfilled, afraid, sad, annoyed, discontented, and aggravated'. Following items were used to measure local residents' perceptions of support for mega event: 1) I am glad that we hosted the World Cup, 2) the idea of hosting the World Cup gave me national pride, and 3) I supported Brazil hosting the World Cup. Following items were used to measure the level of trust to the government to organise the event: 1) trusted the government to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them, 2) trusted the government to make the right decisions in the events development, 3) do you believe the government made a serious effort to incorporate residents into event planning process?, 4) trusted the government to make event decisions 5) trusted the government to look after the interests of the community in relation to this events development. Following items were used to measure their trust to the organising committee to organise

the event: 1) organizing committee to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them, 2) organizing committee to make the right decisions in the events development, 3) trusted the organising committee for the event decisions made by them, and 4) organizing committee to look after the interests of the community in relation to this events development.

All of the items were measured on a five-point Likert type scale with 1 as strongly disagree, 2 as disagree, 3 as neutral, 4 as agree and 5 as strongly agree. The trust also was measured on a five-point Likert scale with 1 as do not trust them at all, 2 as do not trust them very much, 3 as neutral, 4 as trust them a little, 5 as trust them completely. For analysing the data, statistical techniques such as descriptive / frequency analyses, 't' test, ANOVA, and Cronbach alpha reliability were used.

RESULTS

The survey was participated by people over 16 years old - average age being 39.27 years. The majority (35.9%) of survey respondents were over 45 years in terms of their age followed by 25 to 34 years with 24.1% and 16 to 24 years with 21.3%. 39.2% of the respondents were single and 36.2% were married. Others were either living with partner or officially and unofficially separated or widower. In terms of ethnicity the majority of them were brown (40.4%) followed by white (36.7%) and black (16.2%). Data analysis was carried out using various statistical techniques. 33.8% of the survey respondents indicated no interest in the World Cup, 40% indicated little interest and the remaining 26.2% indicated much interest. 53% of the respondents were female. 36% of the respondents rated the World Cup as poor/very poor and 34% of them rated good/ excellent and the remaining 30% were neutral.

The composite scores were calculated for each of the constructs under study 'trust organising committee, trust government, positive emotions, negative emotions, attachment to the World Cup, residents' support for the World Cup' using the mean scores of the corresponding items. Alpha reliability coefficients were computed for each of these constructs and the Cronbach alpha figures are: trust government in organising event - 0.863, trust organising committee in organising the event - 0.867, residents' positive emotions towards the World Cup - 0.872, residents' negative emotions towards the World Cup - 0.788, residents' Attachment to the World Cup - 0.882, and residents' support for the World Cup - 0.802. According to Robinson et al. (1991), an alpha value of 0.80 or higher is considered as exemplary; values between 0.70 and 0.79 are considered as extensive; values between 0.60 and 0.69 as moderate, and values less than 0.60 as minimal. Based on these categories, strong evidence of reliability is noted in various constructs under study.

Response to research question: Is there a difference in the communities perceptions ' of support for

2014 World Cup, their attachment, emotions, and trust in the organising committee and the government by their gender, age category, city of residence, marital status, level of education, level of income, ethnicity, number of years of residence in a city, and occupation?

A 't' test was carried out for investigating the difference in residents' support, attachment to the 2014 World Cup, positive and negative emotions towards the 2014 World Cup, trust government in organising the event and trust organising committee in organising the event by gender (see Table 1).

Table 1 Test of difference in community's support, attachment, emotions, and trust by respondents' gender

Particulars ¹	Female Mean (N) (SD)	Male Mean (N) (SD)	t-value	Female
Support for mega-events	3.31 (2004) (1.33)	3.36 (1775) (1.40)	-1.072	
Attachment to the 2014 World Cup	2.55 (2006) (1.30)	2.83 (1776) (1.37)	-6.542***	Lower
Positive emotions towards the 2014 World Cup	2.85 (2006) (1.19)	2.87 (1777) (1.21)	-0.328	
Negative emotions towards the 2014 World Cup	3.23 (2006) (1.12)	3.16 (1777) (1.14)	2.066*	Higher
Trust Government in organising the event	2.09 (1979) (1.02)	2.12 (1773) (1.07)	0.873	
Trust organising committee in organising the event	2.13 (1923) (1.09)	2.20 (1752) (1.13)	-1.997*	Lower

† stands for $p < 0.10$, * stands for $p < 0.05$, ** stands for $p < 0.01$, *** stands for $p < 0.001$

The figures presented in table 1 suggest that male respondents had a significantly higher level of attachment to the World Cup and trust in organising committee in organising the event compared with female respondents. In terms of negative emotions, female respondents had a significantly higher level of emotions compared with the male respondents. There was, however, no significant difference in the level of support for the world cup, positive emotions towards the world cup, and trust in government in organising the event between male and female respondents.

For investigating the difference in the residents' perceptions of emotions, support, attachment and trust by other demographic variables an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used (See table 2).

Table 2 Test of difference by various demographic characteristics

	F Values by respondents' demography							
	City of residence	Age Category	Number of years lived in a city	Marital status	Occupation	Education	Income	Ethnicity
Support for mega-events	13.41***	3.14*	0.04	1.37	1.50	3.04**	2.67*	1.62
Attachment to the 2014 World Cup	13.10***	0.57	1.94	0.29	1.72*	2.57*	1.74	1.37
Positive emotions towards the 2014 World Cup	16.85***	1.58	0.09	1.00	1.29	1.80	0.89	0.84
Negative emotions towards the 2014 World Cup	11.73***	11.23***	9.22***	4.03**	4.61***	7.58***	10.77***	6.47**
Trust Government in organising the event	9.93***	14.18***	2.21	4.03**	2.72***	7.34***	1.96	0.90
Trust organising committee in organising the event	11.23***	5.52**	0.38	2.03	1.36	3.17**	0.21	1.42

† stands for $p < 0.10$, * stands for $p < 0.05$, ** stands for $p < 0.01$, *** stands for $p < 0.001$

The details of various demographic variables used in this study and the sample size are given below:

The survey was conducted in the following 12 cities where the World Cup games were hosted: Rio de Janeiro (n=402), Sao Paulo (n=499), Belo Horizonte (n=294), Porto Alegre (n=298), Brasilia (n=234), Cuiaba (n=242), Curitiba (n=307), Fortaleza (n=302), Manaus (n=249), Natal (n=243), Recife (n=302), Salvador (n=293).

The figures with the parentheses indicate the sample size.

Age categories used were: less than 25 years old (n=910), 25 to 50 years old (n=1834), 50 to 75 years old (n=863) and over 75 years old (n=58).

Number of years lived in a city included: less than 20 years (n=1248), 20 to 50 years (n=2016), more than 50 years (n=401).

Marital status included: single (n=1455), married (n=1331), living with partner (n=397), officially separated / divorced (n=213), unofficially separated (n=68), widower (n=201).

Occupation included: registered employee (n=1205), employee without registration (n=235), public officer (n=161), regular autonomous (pay ISS) (n=290), liberal profession (n=41), businessman (n=119), freelancer (n=371), estagiario / aprendiz (n=39), others EAP (n=56), unemployed but looking for work (n=173), housewife / domestic duties (n=253), retired (n=350), student (n=277), living off income (n=14), others no EAP (n=41), unemployed and not looking for work (n=40).

Education included: Analfabeto / Primario ou fundamental I incomplete (n=188), Primario ou fundamental I complete / Ginasial ou fundamental II incomplete (n=478), Ginasial ou fundamental II complete (n=380), Colegial ou ensino medio incomplete (n=497), Colegial ou ensino medio complete (n=1246), Superior incomplete (n=389), Superior complete (n=350), Pos graduacao (n=137).

Income groups included: up to R\$ 1,448.00 (n=1282), from R\$ 1,448.01 to R\$ 2,172.00 (n=827), from R\$ 2,172.01 to R\$ 3,620.00 (n=664), from R\$ 3,620.01 to R\$ 7,240.00 (n= 496), from R\$ 7,240.01 to R\$ 14,480.00 (n=183), from R\$14,480.01 to R\$ 36,200.00 (n=55), R\$36,200.01 or more (n=13).

Ethnicity included: White (n=1340), Black (n=584), Brown (n=1494), Asiatic (n=80), Indigenous (n=58), Other colour (n=109).

The figures presented in Table 2 above suggest that there is significant difference in the perceptions of local community on support, attachment, emotions and trust aspects in organising the FIFA 2014 World Cup by various demographic variables. The study extended further to investigate the significant differences in the residents' perceptions of support, trust, attachment and emotions for the 2014 World Cup by age category in particular (see Table 3).

Table 3 Test of difference in community support, trust and negative emotions by age category

Particulars	Respondents' Age Category				F value
	Less than 25 years old Mean (Sample size)	25 to 50 years old (Sample size)	50 to 75 years old Mean (Sample size)	More than 75 years old	
Support for mega-events	3.25 ^a (910)	3.33 ^b (1834)	3.45 ^{a,b} (863)	3.38 (58)	3.14*
Trust government in organising the event	2.03 ^c (910)	2.06 ^d (1834)	2.31 ^{c,d} (863)	2.24 (58)	14.18***
Trust organising committee in organising the event	2.11 ^e (910)	2.13 ^f (1834)	2.28 ^{e,f} (863)	2.37 (58)	5.52**
Negative emotions towards the 2014 FIFA World Cup	3.28 ^g (910)	3.27 ^h (1834)	3.02 ^{g,h} (863)	3.03 (58)	11.23***

Note: f stands for $p < 0.10$, * stands for $p < 0.05$. The superscript 'a' suggests that there is a significant difference in means for support for mega-events between people in the age category of less than 25 years and 50 to 75 years at a p value of 0.05 or less and likewise the superscript 'b' suggests that there

is a difference in support for mega-events between people in the age category of 25 to 50 years and 50 to 75 years.

The figures presented in table 3 above suggest that the people in the age bracket of 50 to 75 years had the highest level of support for organising the World Cup and their level of support is significantly different from the ones in the age category of less than 25 years and 25 to 50 years old. In terms of trust, the same group of people in the age bracket of 50 to 75 years have a higher level of trust in the government in organising the event and also is significantly higher than the level of other age groups particularly the ones with less than 25 years and 25 to 50 years old bracket. Similar results have been noted for their trust in the organising committee in organising the event. In terms of negative emotions, the people in the age bracket of less than 25 years have the highest level of negative emotions and their level of emotions is significantly different from the ones with 50 to 75 years old category.

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the difference in the local community/residents' level of support for the FIFA 2014 World Cup held in Brazil along with their attachment to the games, their positive and negative emotions, and their trust to the government and the organising committee in organising the event. For these investigations a survey approach was used to collect the data from the 12 host cities in Brazil. The survey was analysed by using the statistical techniques such as 't' test and ANOVA. In terms of gender difference, the study found that male respondents had a significantly higher level of attachment to the World Cup and trust in organising committee in organising the event compared with female respondents. In terms of negative emotions, female respondents had a significantly higher level of emotions compared with the male respondents. There was, however, no significant difference in the level of support for the world cup, positive emotions towards the world cup, and trust in government in organising the event between male and female respondents.

There were more than 2 categories in other demographic variables such as city of residence, age, marital status, income, education, etc. Therefore, ANOVA was used for investigating the significant difference in the constructs under study for different demographic variables. The results from this analysis indicate that there is a significant demographic influence on support, attachment, emotions and trust aspects in organising the megaevent such as the World Cup of which city of residence and the age category were worth noting.

The study was extended further to investigate the significant differences in the residents' perceptions of

support, trust, attachment and emotions for the 2014 World Cup by age category in particular. The outcome of this analysis suggest that the people in the age bracket of 50 to 75 years had the highest level of support for organising the World Cup and their level of support is significantly different from the ones in the age category of less than 25 years and 25 to 50 years old. In terms of trust, the same group of people in the age bracket of 50 to 75 years have a higher level of trust in the government in organising the event and also is significantly higher than the level of other age groups particularly the ones with less than 25 years and 25 to 50 years old bracket. Similar results have been noted for their trust in the organising committee in organising the event. In terms of negative emotions, the people in the age bracket of less than 25 years have the highest level of negative emotions and their level of emotions is significantly different from the ones with 50 to 75 years old category.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to acknowledge that this project was funded by the "CNPq - Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Cientifico e Tecnologico", Brasil (National Council for Scientific and Technological Development", Brazil).

REFERENCES

- Andersen, P.H., & Kumar, R. (2006). Emotions, trust and relationship development in business relationships: A conceptual model for buyer-seller dyads. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 35, 522-535.
- Andriotis, K., & Vaughan, R.D. (2003). Urban residents' attitudes toward tourism development: The case of Crete. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(2), 172-185.
- Baade, R.A., & Matheson, V.A. (2004). The quest for the Cup: Assessing the economic impact of the World Cup. *Regional Studies*, 38(4), 343-354.
- Barclay, J. (2009). Predicting the costs and benefits of mega-sporting events: Misjudgement of Olympic proportions? *Economic Affairs*, 29(2), 62-66.
- Bottazzi, L., Rin, M.D., & Hellmann, T. (2016). [The Importance of Trust for Investment: Evidence from Venture Capital](#). *Review of Financial Studies*, 29(9), 2283-2318.
- Caneday, L., & Zeiger, J. (1991). The social, economic, and environmental costs of tourism to gaming community as perceived its residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 45-49.
- Caro, L.M., & Garcia, J.A.M. (2007). Cognitive - affective model of consumer satisfaction. An exploratory study within the framework of a sporting event. *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 108-114.
- Chien, P.M., Ritchie, B.W., Shipway, R., & Henderson, H. (2011). I am having a dilemma: Factors affecting resident support of event development in the community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 13 pages, DOI: 10.1177/0047287511426336.
- Churchill, G.A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 64-73.
- Cooper, C.A., Knotts, H.G., & Brennan, K.M. (2008). The importance of trust in government for public administration: The case of zoning. *Public Administration Review*, 68(3), 459-468.

- Cova, B., & Salle, R. (2000). Rituals in managing extrabusiness relationships in international project marketing: A conceptual framework. *International Business Review*, 9(6), 669-685.
- Deery, M., Jago, L., & Fredline, L. (2012). Rethinking social impacts of tourism research: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 33, 64-73.
- Desbordes, M., Ohl, F., Tribou, G. (2001). Estrategias del marketing deportivo. Analisis del consumo deportivo. Barcelona: Paidotribo.
- DeVellis, R. F. (1991). *Scale Development*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology - The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56(3), 218-226.
- Fredrickson, B.L., & Joiner, T. (2002). Positive emotions trigger upward spirals towards emotional well-being. *Psychological Science*, 13(2), 172-175.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29, 403-428.
- Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K.W. (2006). Hosting mega events: Modeling locals' support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(3), 605-623.
- Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2010). An examination of locals' attitudes. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(4), 723-726.
- Gursoy, D., Sharma, B., Panoso, A., & Ribeiro, M.A. (2015). 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil: Local residents' perceptions of impacts, emotions, attachment, and their support for the event, *Proceedings of the 5th AHTMM Conference*, 18-21 June, Beppu, Japan.
- Hill, C.W.L., Schilling, M.A., & Jones, G.R. (2017). *Strategic Management: An Integrated Approach - Theory*. 12th Edition, Cengage Learning, Boston.
- Huh, C., & Vogt, C.A. (2008). Changes in residents' perceptions toward tourism over time: A cohort analytical approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 446-455.
- Inbakaran, R., & Jackson, M. (2006). Resident attitudes inside Victoria's tourism product regions: A cluster analysis. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 13(1), 59-74.
- Jeong, G.H., & Faulkner, B. (1996). Resident perceptions of mega-event impacts: The Taejon International Exposition case. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 4(1-2), 3-11.
- Jiang, Z., Henneberg, S.C., & Naude, P. (2011). The importance of trust vis-a-vis reliance in business relationships: some international findings. *International Marketing Review*, 28(4), 318 - 339.
- Kim, N.S., & Chalip, L. (2004). Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management*, 25, 695-707.
- Kim, H.J., Gursoy, D., & Lee, S.B. (2006). The impact of the 2002 World Cup on South Korea: Comparisons of pre- and post-games. *Tourism Management*, 27, 86-96.
- Kumar, R. (1997). The role of affect in negotiations: An integrative overview. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 33, 84- 100.
- Lee, C.K., Taylor, T., Lee, Y.K., & Lee, B. (2005). The impact of a sport mega-event on destination image. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 6(3), 27-45.
- Li, X., Hsu, C.H.C., & Lawton, L.J. (2014). Understanding residents' perception changes toward a

- mega-event through a dual-theory lens. *Journal of Travel Research*, 1-15, DOI: 10.1177/0047287513517422.
- Long, P.H., & Kayat, K. (2011). Residents' perceptions of tourism impact and their support for tourism development: The case study of Cuc Phuong National Park, Ninh Binh province, Vietnam. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(2), 123-146.
- Lorde, T., Greenidge, D., & Devonish, D. (2011). Local residents' perceptions of the impacts of the ICC Cricket World Cup 2007 on Barbados: Comparisons of pre- and post-games. *Tourism Management*, 32, 349-356.
- Mangan, J., Lalwani, C., Butcher, T., & Javadpour, R. (2012). *Global Logistics & Supply Chain Management*, 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons Ltd, Chichester, West Sussex.
- Moyle, B., Croy, W.G., & Weiler, B. (2010). Community Perceptions of Tourism: Bruny and Magnetic Islands, Australia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(3), 353-366.
- Pappas, N. (2014). Hosting mega events: Londoners' support of the 2012 Olympics. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 21, 10-17.
- Pennington-Gray, L., & Holdnak, A. (2002). Out of the stands and into the community: using sports events to promote a destination. *Event Management*, 7(3), 177-186.
- [Ratnasingham, P.](#) (1998). The importance of trust in electronic commerce, *Internet Research*, 8(4), 313 - 321.
- Ritchie, B.W., Shipway, R., & Cleeve, B. (2009). Resident perceptions of mega-sporting events: A non-host city perspective of the 2012 London Olympic games. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 14(2-3), 143-167.
- Robinson, J.P., Shaver, P.R. and Wrightsman, L.S. (1991) *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes*. Academic Press: San Diego, Calif.
- Sharma, B., & Gursoy, D. (2015). An examination of changes in residents' perceptions of tourism impacts overtime: The impact of residents' socio-demographic characteristics. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(12), 1332-1352.
- Sharma, B., Gursoy, D., Panosso, A., & Ribeiro, M.A. (2016). Local residents' level of trust, emotions, attachment, and support for the 2014 FIFA World Cup, Brazil. Proceedings of the 6th *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management (AHTMM) Conference*, 119-128, Guangzhou, China.
- Twynam, G.D., & Johnston, M. (2004). Changes in Host Community Reactions to a Special Sporting Event, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 7(3), 242-261.
- Tyler, T.R. (2001). Why do people rely on others? Social identity and social aspects of trust. In Cook, K.S (eds.) *Trust in society*, 285-306, Russell Sage Foundation: NY.
- Witkowski, T. H., & Thibodeau, E. J. (1999). Personal bonding processes in international marketing relationships. *Journal of Business Research*, 46, 315- 325.
- Zucker, L.G. (1986). Production of trust: Institutional sources of economic structure, 1840-1920. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 8, 53-111.

BARRIERS TO ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS (EMS): CASE OF 4 AND 5 STAR HOTELS IN ISTANBUL

Ömer Çoban

Batman University/School Tourism and Hotel Management, Batman, Turkey

S. Emre Dilek

Batman University/School of Tourism and Hotel Management, Batman, Turkey

Ecem Tezgel

Istanbul University/Institute of Social Sciences, Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

In the late 1990s with studies that focused on the driving forces, costs and benefits and nature of such systems began about EMS. However, in tourism, very little research has been conducted on EMS, except for a few studies on environmental management, such as the environmental protection practices and environmental performance of hotels. In this study, we tried to determine the barriers to EMS of 4 and 5 stars' hotels operating in Istanbul. In this regard, the aim of this study is to encourage the hotels how they implement EMS through eliminating the barriers.

The data were collected from the top and mid-level managers of hotels between October and December in 2016 by face to face survey. Data gained from 114 hotels was analyzed via factor analyses, independent samples t-test and ANOVA. It was found that EMS barriers can be examined under three dimensions as; (1) lack of knowledge, skills and professional advice, (2) uncertainty of outcomes, (3) lack of resources and costs. On the other hand, hotels characteristics play an important role on these dimensions.

Keywords: EMS, Barriers, Hotels, Tourism, Istanbul.

INTRODUCTION

The environmental awareness has been increased day by day for all industries. Their interactions with the environment have been an issue of interest (Leonidou & Leonidou, 2010), due to either external (regulations) or internal reasons (business policy) (Psomas, et al., 2011). Service businesses which are called the “silent destroyers of the environment” (Hutchinson, 1996) should pay more attention to

environmental issues. Hence, tourism is one of the industries that intensively depend on the environment (Mensah, 2006). Tourism industry has been contained four major components, these are hospitality services, tour operators and travel agencies, attractions towards natural, cultural and historical resources and transportation services (McIntosh & Goeldner 1990). In this regard, hotels are the most important element of the travel and tourism industry and play a critical role in concerns over environmental protection (Erdogan & Baris, 2007). Because of the hotels use the natural resources as a part of tourism products (Chan, 2011) and consume quantities of water, energy and non-durable products (Robinot & Giannelloni, 2010).

So, the hotels should concern about environmental issues.

EMS have recently been more recognized in the hotel industry around the world (Chan, 2009). EMS in the hotel industry should account for the impact of environmental management on the natural resources (Holden, 2000). The areas of environmental management include: (1) recycling of waste, (2) waste management, (3) energy and water saving, (4) environmental health, (5) clean air and environmental education (Chan a& Wong, 2006; Mensah, 2006; Middleton & Hawkings, 1998) in the hotel industry. Main benefits of environmental management are; cost efficiency, minimizing resource consumptions, improving financial performance, competitive advantage, corporate image, gaining the trust of tourists (Ayuso, 2006; Bohdanowicz, 2006; Kasim, 2007; Chan, 2008; Chan, 2009; Chan, 2011; Chan & Hawkins, 2010; Goodall, 1995; Kirk, 1995; Tzschentke, et al., 2004).

Most known EMS are ISO 14000 series, providing an effective guideline, auditing, evaluation on the content of environmental management for hotels (Chan & Ho, 2006). ISO 14000 standards which extend between hotel and its guests, suppliers and even the residents (Chan, 2011). However, the hotels have some barriers to EMS implementations such as, lack of knowledge and skills, professional advice, resources and implementation costs (Chan, 2008).

The aim of this study is to determine barriers to EMS of 4 and 5 stars hotels in Istanbul. Additionally, if there are significant differences occurring in EMS barrier dimensions according to the hotel characteristics investigated in the study. So we tried to reveal the barriers to EMS of the hotels and suggest some advices related to reduce the barriers to EMS. Except for a few studies on environmental management, very little research has been conducted on EMS in the hotel industry. Therefore, it was aimed to contribute to the literature and assistance in developing environmental performance of hotels in Istanbul.

EMS FRAMEWORK AND PRACTICES IN THE HOTELS

An Environmental Management System is defined as a part of the overall management system which includes the organizational structure, planning activities, liabilities, implementations, procedures, obtain, apply, achieving, reviewing and maintaining a company's environmental policy (Chan, 2011; Sambasivan & Fei, 2008). EMS have revealed as one of the most efficient instruments to achieve sustainable development since the 1990s (Chan, 2011). The purposes of EMS are to achieve adapting to environment, reducing waste and protecting natural resources by managing institutional environmental action (Sayre, 1996).

EMS enable an organization to control the effects of production process on the environment (Sena da Silva & Dumke de Medeiros, 2004). It is not only focusing company's attention on negative environmental impacts, but also sustaining high environmental standards in whole organization (Morrow & Rondinelli, 2002). In other words, EMS emphasize the need by protecting the environment for a company's sustainability and future generation (Chavan, 2005). However, EMS can provide some benefits to a company such as; financial advantages via energy saving and reduction in other resources. In addition to these benefits, it can improve the company's image with all stakeholders. (Hemenway & Hale, 1995).

EMS include various systems such as EU eco-management and audit scheme (EMAS), Green Globe 21 and ISO 14000 series (Chan & Wong, 2006; Psomas et al., 2011; Ustad, 2010). ISO 14000 series are one of the well-known EMS, which were developed in 1996 by the International Standards Organization (ISO) (Peiro- Signes et al., 2014; Psomas et al., 2011). ISO 1400 series consist of 34 environmental standards shown the table below:

Table 1

The ISO 14000 Family of International Standards

Group	Standards
Environmental Management Systems	ISO 14001, ISO 14004, ISO 14005, ISO 14006
Environmental Assessment	ISO 14015, ISO 19011
Environmental Labeling	ISO 14020, ISO 14021, ISO 14024, ISO 14025
Environmental Performance Evaluation	ISO 14031, ISO/TS 14033, ISO 14034
Life Cycle Assessment	ISO 14040, ISO 14044, ISO 14045, ISO
Environmental Management Vocabulary	ISO 14050
Material Flow Cost Accounting	ISO 14051
Greenhouse Gases	ISO/TR 14062, ISO 14063, ISO 14064-1, ISO
Environmental Aspects in Product Standards	ISO Guide 64

Source: ISO, 2016.

Of the above series, ISO 14001 has the only standard that a company becomes certification for EMS (Chan and Wong, 2006). Therefore, ISO 14001 is one of the most popular EMS standards, especially in Europe (Gonzalez- Benito & Gonzalez-Benito, 2005). It consists of five major factors: (1) environmental policy, (2) planning, (3) implementation and operation, (4) auditing and (5) feedback (Chan, 2008; Chan & Wong, 2006; Erickson & King, 1999; Krnt & Gleckman, 1998; Nattrass & Altmore, 1999). ISO 14001 provides both material and moral utilities to companies, such as cost curtailment and economy, advanced communication, advanced corporate image, progression in operational duration (Chandrashekar et al., 1999; Daily & Huang, 2001; Darnall et al., 2000; Hanna et al., 2000; Lee-Mortimer, 2000; ; Maxwell et al., 1997; Nattrass & Altmore, 1999; Schaarsmith, 2000; West & Manta, 1996; Zingale & Himes, 1999).

EMS in hospitality industry are very important issue to minimize negative effects of hotels' operations on environment. Therefore, EMS are vital matter in both hospitality sector and tourism research field. There are many studies focusing on the relationship between hotels and environmental management have recently been conducted (Chan, 2008; Chan, 2009; Chan, 2011; Chan & Hawkins, 2010; Chan & Ho, 2006; Gil et al., 2001; Kirk, 1995; Kirk, 1998; Le et al., 2006; Mensah, 2006; Pereira-Moliner et al., 2012; Ustad, 2010; Ustad et al., 2010). With reference to studies, two motivating factors for the adoption of EMS can be expressed as; corporate governance and legislation for the hotels (Chan & Wong, 2006; Segarra Ona et al., 2012). Thus, several empirical studies aimed to determine that EMS may improve customer and employee satisfaction and corporate image (Bohdanowicz, 2005; Hillary, 2004; Kirk, 1995; Molina-Azorin et al., 2009; Pereira-Moliner et al., 2012). Other important benefits of EMS in hotels are to increase profitability and improve relationships with the local community (Kirk, 1998). When it comes to implementations of EMS in the hotels, there are various implications listed below (Chan, 2011; Stipanuk, 1996; Ustad, 2010):

- Renewable energy
- Energy saving
- Water consumption
- Waste sorting and reducing
- Supporting to protect biodiversity and natural resources
- Reducing air and sound pollution

Hotel industry's wide adoption of EMS is still slow, despite the success of several hotels due to unable or unwilling to implement (Chan & Ho, 2006; Kasim, 2009). This situation is derived from internal and external barriers (Chan, 2008; Hillary, 1999; Hillary, 2004), these barriers are main focus of our paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Academic research into EMS began in the late 1990s (Chan, 2011). EMS have recently studied in various research field such as planning (Chin et al., 1999; Pun et al., 2002), motivation (Quazi et al., 2001), benefits, drivers and barriers (Chan, 2006; Galan et al., 2007; Chan, 2008; Chan, 2011; Chan & Wong, 2006;; Lozano & Valles, 2007, Zutshi &Sohal, 2004). Thus, EMS are well-recognized in the tourism and hospitality industry and widely studied research topic (Chan & Ho, 2006). Several studies have analyzed the environmental implementation in the hotel industry (Kirk, 1995; Kirk, 1998; Trung & Kumar, 2005). Some other studies have examined the determinants of environmental innovation (CrespECladera & Orfila-Sintes, 2005) and the factors to adopt environmental practices (Le et al., 2006), main barriers to EMS motivations (Chan, 2006; Chan, 2008).

Previous research on EMS determined that international, multinational group, large and chain hotels being long operational period were mostly to pay attention to environmental management (Erdogan & Baris, 2007; Chan, 2011; Mensah, 2006;). For instance, in Elkington (1994), Shrivastava (1995), Gil et al. (2001) have been found that the age of hotel facilities can influence hotels' environmental performance. On the other hand, Gilley et al. (2000), Foster et al. (2000), Kasim (2009) have also stated there is an importance of the relationship between size of hotel and environmental management. Most studies have also claimed that hotels' ownership affect hotel's environmental management when compared to those hotels which were part of chains or independent (Cummings, 1997; Erdogan & Baris, 2007; Enz &Siguaw, 1999; Gil et al., 2001; Kirk, 1995; Kirk, 1998).

Few studies consider a relationship between the implementation of EMS and barriers in tourism literature. Hillary (2004) identified some internal and external barriers to the adoption of EMS in reviewing the literature. Internal barriers are lack of resources, understanding and perception, implementation problems and attitudes and company culture. External barriers are certification and verification costs, lack of financial resources, institutional weaknesses and lack of support and guidance (Chan, 2008; Hillary, 1999; Hillary, 2004; Ustad, 2010; Ustad et al., 2010). In addition to that Erdogan and Baris (2007) demonstrated these barriers could be lack of information about the level of environmental knowledge and disinterest of hotel managers related to EMS. Chan (2008) used Hillary's (1999, 2004) statements as a measurement instrument in his study, to investigate the barriers related to

EMS in Hong Kong hotel industry. Six barrier dimensions have been emerged in Chan's (2008) study as; (1) lack of knowledge and skills, (2) lack of professional advice, (3) lack of resources, (4) uncertainty of outcome, (5) certifiers/verifiers, (6) implementation and maintenance costs.

RESEARCH METHOD

Hillary (2004) developed a scale by examining 28 studies in 1999 to measure the barriers faced by businesses in the literature about the EMS. These barriers consist of 48 factors and eight dimensions which were identified by Hillary as some internal and external barriers (Hillary, 2004). Chan (2008) tried to address the barriers to EMS of hotels in Hong Kong in his study with reference to Hillary's scale. In this study we used the scale by Chan (2008) to investigate barriers to EMS of 4 and 5 star hotels in Istanbul. The questionnaire consists of two parts. The seven questions to identify hotels' characteristics in the first part. 28 statements were tried to determine the barriers related to EMS in hotel industry in the second part of questionnaire. The respondents were asked to rate these statements on a 5-point Likert scale which are from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5= Strongly Agree. The population of the study was all the four stars hotels (119) and five stars hotels (90) in Istanbul according to Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism in 2016. The data were collected from the top and mid-level managers of 114 hotels between October and December in 2016 by face to face via convenience sampling method. The questionnaire was firstly translated into Turkish and then taken two academics' opinion who study on tourism and environment. It was used to ask a pilot test group comprising 12 hotel managers. Afterwards, two statements removed from the questionnaire.

The 114 data were analyzed via factor analyses, independent t-test and ANOVA.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Factor analysis with VARIMAX rotation was employed to analyze dimensional structure of 26 barrier statements. A factor loading of > 0.5 was set as the criteria to select each statements (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 1, the three factors were identified; (1) lack of knowledge, skills and professional advice, (2) uncertainty of outcomes, (3) lack of resources and costs differently from Chan's (2008) study. Factor 1-2 of Chan's study have clustered under one factor (lack of knowledge, skills and professional advice) and also factor 5-6 under one factor (lack of resources and costs) in our study. Besides factor 4 of Chan's study hasn't played a part in our study. The Cronbach alpha of each dimension was also examined, and the value of dimensions were: lack of knowledge, skills and professional advice = 0.978; uncertainty of outcomes = 0.963; lack of resources and costs = 0.921 (see Table 2). The reliability of three factors over 0.90 were excellent according to Hair et al. (2010).

The mean of statements under three factors ranged from 2.75 to 4.00. The lowest and highest means in factor 1 were respectively examined as “*poor quality information and conflicting guidance is given for the EMS*” with 2.75; as “*changing economic climate alters the priority given to an EMS in hotel*” with 3.89. The means in factor 2; “*drivers and benefits are insufficient*” and “*we doubt the ongoing effectiveness of EMS to deliver objectives*” were highest with 3.26 and “*multifunctional staff is easily distracted by other work*” was lowest with 3.15. Finally, “*the support from top management for EMS implementation is inconsistent*” was the lowest mean with 3.20 and “*implementation of EMS requires capital expenditure*” was the highest with 4.00 in factor 3. After analyzing the overall mean value of three factors on barriers, it was determined that lack of resources and costs were considered by the hotel managers as the most important barrier (3.51).

Table 2
Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation and Reliability Analysis

Attributes	Mean	Factor Loading	Communality	Factor and Overall Mean	Eigenvalue	Variance %	Cumulative Variance %	Cronbach's Alpha
We lack the knowledge of formalized systems	2,80	,842	,822	Factor 1: Lack of Knowledge, Skills and Professional Advice (3,27)	17,62	37,86	37,86	,978
Poor quality information and conflicting guidance is given for the EMS	2,75	,833	,839					
Lack of understanding of ISO 14000 environmental statements or value reporting	2,79	,817	,780					
We lack the sector specific implementation tools and examples	2,87	,814	,793					
We do not have adequate technical knowledge and skills for EMS	2,76	,812	,799					
Lack of promotion of EMS	2,85	,809	,783					
We lack specialist staff for EMS	2,83	,797	,784					
Lack of explanation of concepts and more guidance needed on environmental aspects and significance evaluation	2,80	,787	,845					
We lack experienced consultants of quality to assist hotels	3,88	,723	,817					
The institutional arrangement for ISO 14001 is inadequate	3,76	,719	,798					
We lack experienced verifiers	3,67	,704	,744					
Changing economic climate alters the priority given to an EMS in hotel	3,89	,669	,743					
A single authoritative body to interpret ISO 14000 is absent	3,15	,656	,761					
There is a lack of clear or strict legislative framework	3,83	,651	,760					
A central source of information on environmental legislation is absent	3,85	,641	,694	Factor 2: Uncertainty of Outcomes (3,21)	1,95	24,63	62,49	,963
There are no benefits to implement EMS	3,20	,810	,862					
We doubt the ongoing effectiveness of EMS to deliver objectives	3,26	,808	,868					
We are uncertain about the value of an EMS in the market place	3,21	,805	,839					
Drivers and benefits are insufficient	3,26	,790	,795					
We have difficulties in evaluating environmental aspects/effects and determining the significance during the implementation of EMS	3,20	,787	,855					
Multifunctional staff is easily distracted by other work	3,15	,756	,836	Factor 3: Lack of Resources and Costs (3,51)	1,09	17,00	79,51	,921
We lack management and/or staff time for implementation and maintenance	3,21	,856	,858					
The support from top management for EMS implementation is inconsistent	3,20	,706	,804					
Implementation of EMS requires capital expenditure	4,00	,699	,717					
The cost of implementation and maintenance is high	3,93	,665	,785					
We lack accessible financial support	3,22	,659	,694					
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measures of Sampling Adequacy: % 95,9; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: X^2 : 3589,771; df.: 325; $p < 0.001$; Grand Mean: 3,306; Cronbach's Alpha for Whole Scale: .980								

Table 3

Comparison of Means (One-Way ANOVA and T-Test) for the Barriers to EMS

Group No. Factors	Sample Size (%)	Lack of Knowledge, Skills and Professional Advice	Uncertainty of Outcomes	Lack of Resources and Costs
Type				
1. Independent	32 (%28)	3,58	3,95	3,91
2. National Chain	28 (%25)	3,23	3,20	3,43
3. International Chain	54 (%47)	3,11	2,77	3,31
ANOVA (Sign. Value)		,074	,000*	,000*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison			G1>G2>G3	G1>G2>G3
Ownership				
1. Franchising	76 (%67)	3,05	2,91	3,12
2. Direct Investment	27 (%24)	3,56	3,38	3,57
3. Management Contract	11 (%9)	3,29	3,11	3,57
ANOVA (Sign. Value)		,004*	,005*	,015*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison		G2>G3>G1	G2>G1	G2&G3>G1
Number of Rooms				
1. 60-124 Rooms	38 (%34)	3,57	3,71	3,64
2. 125-208 Rooms	38 (%33)	3,38	3,31	3,64
3. Above 209 Rooms	38 (%33)	2,87	2,60	3,24
ANOVA (Sign. Value)		,003*	,000*	,018*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison		G1>G3	G1>G2>G3	G1&G2>G3
Grading				
1. 4-Star	60 (%53)	3,55	3,63	3,63
2. 5-Star	54 (%47)	2,97	2,74	3,37
T-Test (Sign. Value)		,001*	,000*	,048*
ISO 14001				
1. Have ISO 14001	29 (%25)	1,82	1,77	2,64
2. Have not ISO 14001	85 (%75)	3,76	3,70	3,80
T-Test (Sign. Value)		,000*	,000*	,000*
Intention to get ISO 14001				
1. Yes	50 (%59)	3,64	3,26	3,69
2. No	35 (%41)	3,94	4,32	3,97
T-Test (Sign. Value)		,002*	,000*	,007*

Significance at the 0,05 level is shown in italics.

As can be seen in Table 3, the independent samples t-test a ANOVA analysis were used to understand whether barrier scores differed significantly by category of hotel type, ownership, size, class, etc. When factor 1 and the hotels' types were compared, it was found that there are no statistically meaningful differences between them. Apart from that, between all factors and hotels' characteristics have determined statistically meaningful differences.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Tourism and hospitality businesses have intense ties with environment and environmental sources. But, there have been few studies on the barriers to EMS in the hotel industry (Chan, 2008; 2011). In this study, the answer is tried to reveal about the main question: "what are the barriers to EMS in hotel industry?". The findings of this study have revealed to understand the barriers to EMS in the hotel industry in Istanbul.

The findings of this study have shown that there are three main barriers to EMS in the hotel industry differently from Chan's study (2008) in Hong Kong. When ranking in order, from the highest mean score barrier factor to the least, we have: (1) lack of resources and costs; (2) lack of knowledge, skills and professional advice; (3) uncertainty of outcomes. These barriers indicate that hotels are normally hindered by both internal and external barriers (Hillary, 2004; Chan, 2008). The internal barriers such as knowledge, skills, resources, and costs, etc. have the most significant role for the hotels according to the findings. Nevertheless, types, ownership, classes etc. of the hotels have influence on adopting and implementing of EMS. In fact, these findings have parallels with other studies in the literature (Chan, 2011; Erdogan & Baris, 2007; Kasim, 2009; Mensah, 2006). We found that national and international chains, franchise, large, upper class hotels have less barrier in comparison with independent, direct investment, small and lower class hotels. In addition, if hotels have EMS or intention to get EMS, they meet barriers lightly.

On the other hand, even though the hotels are aware of the high costs with EMS, their outcome expectations on EMS are also high. It shown that the hotels are disposed to adopt and implement by reducing the barriers. The findings in this study can be used as a reference for the hotel industry in Istanbul. The hotels will have the opportunity of better understanding the barriers for EMS adoption so that they can formulate a suitable implementation strategy. It is sure that implementing EMS will bring some costs to the hotel businesses, but in a long period of time, benefits of implicating EMS will exceed the costs. Thus, hotel managers and business owners should start to adopt environmental policies. And start to eliminate barriers such as; lack of

resources and costs, lack of knowledge and uncertainty of outcomes. These barriers are in an internal manner. So there are also some tasks for public bodies encouraging hotels to implement EMS.

Notwithstanding, there are some limitations of the study and the findings cannot be generalized for all hotels in any market. Firstly, since all respondents were four and five stars hotels, the identified barriers in the study might not be applicable to the smaller sized hotels. Thus, in the future researches, the researchers can focus hotels with small sizes. Our study focus hotels operated in Istanbul and 12 months' open city hotels. So there would be some differences in resorts or seasonally operated hotels in different regions of Turkey.

REFERENCES

- Ayuso, S. (2006). Adoption of voluntary environmental tools for sustainable tourism, analysing the experience of Spanish hotels. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 13: 207-220.
- Bohdanowicz, P. (2005). European hoteliers' environmental attitudes greening the business. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 46(2), 188-204.
- Bohdanowicz, P. (2006). Environmental awareness and initiatives in the Swedish and Polish hotel industries- survey results. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25: 662-682.
- Cespedes-Lorente, J., de Burgos-Jimenez, J. & Alvarez-Gil, M. J. (2003). Stakeholders' environmental influence. An empirical analysis in the Spanish hotel industry. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 19(3), 333-358.
- Chan, E. S. W. & Hawkins, R. (2010). Attitude towards EMSs in an international hotel: An exploratory case study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29: 641-651.
- Chan, E. S. W. & Wong, S. C. K. (2006). Motivations for ISO 14001 in the hotel industry. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 481-492.
- Chan, E. S. W. (2008). Barriers to EMS in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 187-196.
- Chan, E. S. W. (2011). Implementing Environmental Management Systems in small-and medium-sized hotels: obstacles. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(1): 3-23.
- Chan, W. W. & Ho, K. (2006). Hotels' environmental management systems (ISO 14001): creative financing strategy. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(4), 302- 316.
- Chan, W. W. (2009). Environmental measures for hotels' environmental management systems: ISO 14001. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(5), 542-560.
- Chandrashekar, A., Dougless, T. & Avery, G. C. (1999). The environment is free: the quality analogy. *Journal of Quality Management*, 4(1), 123-143.

- Chavan, M. (2005). An appraisal of environment management systems: A competitive advantage for small businesses. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, 16(5), 444-463.
- Chin, K. S., Chiu, S. & Rao Tummala, V. M. (1999). An evaluation of success factors using the AHP to implement ISO 14001-based EMS. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 16(4), 341-361.
- CrespLCladera, R. & Orfila-Sintes, F. (2005). Environmental innovation in the hotel industry of the Balearic Islands. In Sharma, S. & Aragon-Correa, J. A. (Ed.) *Corporate environmental strategy and competitive advantage*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Cummings, L. E. (1997). Waste minimization supporting urban tourism sustainability: A mega-resort case study. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5(2), 93-108.
- Daily, B. F. & Huang, S. (2001). Achieving sustainability through attention to human resource factors in *environmental management*. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 21(12), 1539-1552.
- Darnall, N., Gallagher, D. R., Andrews, R. N. & Amaral, D. (2000). Environmental management systems: Opportunities for improved environmental and business strategy. *Environmental Quality Management*, 9(3), 1-9.
- Elkington, J. (1994). Towards the sustainable corporation: Win-win-win business strategies for sustainable development. *California Management Review*, 36(2), 90-100.
- Enz, C. & Siguaw, J. A. (1999). Best hotel environment practices. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 40(5), 72-77.
- Erdogan, N. & Baris, E. (2007). Environmental protection programs and conservation practices of hotels in Ankara, Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 28: 604-614.
- Erickson, S. L. & King, B. J. (1999). *Fundamentals of Environmental Management*. New York: John Wiley.
- Foster, S. T., Sampson, S. E. & Dunn, S. C. (2000). The impact of customer contact on environmental initiatives for service firms. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 20(2), 187-203.
- Galan, M. B., Peschard, D. & Boizard, H. (2007). ISO 14001 at the farm level: analysis of five methods for evaluating the environmental impact of agricultural practices. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 82(3), 341-352.
- Gil, M. J., Jimenez, J. B. & Lorente, J. J. C. (2001). An analysis of environmental management, organisational context and performance of Spanish hotels. *The International Journal of Management Science*, 29 (6), 457-471.
- Gilley, K. M., Worrell, D. L., Davidson, W. N. & El-Jelly, A. (2000). Corporate environmental initiatives and anticipated firm performance: The differential effects of process-driven versus product-driven greening initiatives. *Journal of Management*, 26(6), 1199-1216.
- Gonzalez-Benito, J. & Gonzalez-Benito, O. (2005). An analysis of the relationship between environmental motivations and ISO 14001 certification. *British Journal of Management*, 16: 133-148.

- Goodall, B. (1995). Environmental auditing: a tool for assessing the environmental performance of tourism firms. *The Geographical Journal*, 161(1), 29-37.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J. & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. New Jersey: Pearson.
- Hanna, M. D., Rocky N. W. & Johnson, P. (2000). Linking operational and environmental improvement through employee involvement. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 20(2), 148-165.
- Hemenway, C. G. & Hale, G. J. (1995). Are you ready for ISO 14000. *Quality*, 34(11), 26-28.
- Hillary, R. (1999). Evaluation of study reports on the barriers, opportunities and drivers for small and medium sized enterprises in the adoption of environmental management systems. *London: Network for Environmental Management and Auditing*.
- Hillary, R. (2004). Environmental management systems and the smaller enterprise. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 12(6): 561-569.
- Holden, A. (2000). *Environment and tourism*. New York: Routledge.
- Hutchinson, C. (1996). Integrating environmental policy with business strategy. *Long Range Planning*, 29(1), 11-23.
- ISO (2016). http://www.iso.org/iso/theiso14000family_2009.pdf (Accessed: 10.12.2016).
- Kasim, A. (2007). Corporate environmentalism in the hotel sector: Evidence of drivers and barriers in Penang, Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(6), 680-699.
- Kasim, A. (2009). Managerial attitudes towards environmental management among small and medium hotels in Kuala Lumpur. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), 709-725.
- Kirk, D. (1995). Environmental management in hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 7(6), 3-8.
- Kirk, D. (1998). Attitudes to environmental management held by a group of hotel managers in Edinburgh. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 17(1), 33-47.
- Krut, R. & Gleckman, H. (1998). *ISO 14001: A missed opportunity for sustainable global industrial development*. London: Earthscan Publications.
- Le, Y., Hollenhorst, S., Harris, C., McLaughlin, W. & Shook, S. (2006). Environmental management: a study of Vietnamese hotels. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(2), 545-567.
- Lee-Mortimer, A. L. (2000). Waste not, want not. *Works Management*, 53(5), 42- 44.
- Leonidou, C. N. & Leonidou, L. C. (2010). Research into environmental marketing/ management: A bibliographic review. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45(1/2), 68-103.
- Lozano, M. & Valles, J. (2007). An analysis of the implementation of an environmental management system in a local public administration. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 82(4), 495-511.
- Maxwell, J., Rothenberg, S., Briscoe, F. & Marcus, A. (1997). Green schemes: corporate environmental strategies and their implementation. *California Management Review*, 39 (3), 118-134.
- McIntosh, R. W. & Goeldner, C. R. (1990). *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies*. New York: John Wiley.
- Mensah, I. (2006). Environmental management practices among hotels in the greater Accra

- region. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 414-431.
- Middleton, V. T. C. & Hawkins, R. (1998). Sustainable tourism: A marketing perspective. Oxford: Butterworth- Heinemann.
- Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2016). <http://yigm.kulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,9859/tesis-istatistikleri.html> (Accessed: 10.11.2016).
- Molina-Azorin, J. F., Claver-Cortes, E., Pereira-Moliner, J. & Tan, J. J. (2009). Environmental practices and firm performance: an empirical analysis in the Spanish hotel industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 17(5), 516-524.
- Morrow, D. & Rondinelli D. (2002). Adopting corporate environmental management systems: Motivations and results of ISO 14001 and EMAS certification. *European Management Journal*, 20(2), 159-171.
- Natrass, B. & Altmore, M. (1999). The natural step for business: Wealth, ecology and the evolutionary corporation. British Columbia: New Society Publishers.
- Peiro-Signes, A., Verma, R., Mondejar-Jimenez, J. & Vargas-Vargas, M. (2014). The impact of environmental certification on hotel guest ratings. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 55(1), 40-51.
- Pereira-Moliner, J., Claver-Cortes, E., Molina-Azorin, J. F. & Tan, J. J. (2012). Quality management, environmental management and firm performance: Direct and mediating effects in the hotel industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 37, 82-92.
- Psomas, E. L., Fotopoulos, C. V. & Kafetzopoulos, D. P. (2011). Motives, difficulties and benefits in implementing the ISO 14001 environmental management system. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, 22(4), 502-521.
- Pun, K. F., Hui, I. K., Lau, C. W., Law, H. W. & Lewis, W. G. (2002). Development of an EMS planning framework for environmental management practices. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 19(6), 688-709.
- Quazi, H. A., Khoo, Y. K., Tan, C. M. & Wong, P. S. (2001). Motivation for ISO 14000 certification: Development of a predictive model. *The International Journal of Management Science*, 29(6), 525-542.
- Robinet, E. & Giannelloni, J. L. (2010). Do hotels' "green" attributes contribute to consumer satisfaction? *Journal of Service Marketing*, 24(2), 157-169.
- Sambasivan, M. & Fei, Y. (2008). Evaluation of critical success factors of implementation of ISO 14001 using analytic hierarchy process (AHP): A case study from Malaysia. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 16(13), 1424-1433.
- Sayre, D. (1996). Inside ISO 14001: The competitive advantage of environmental management. Florida: CRC Press.
- Schaarsmith, J. H. (2000). ISO 14001 lowers environmental risks. *Business Insurance*, 34(28), 12-16.
- Segarra Ona, M. D. V., Peiro Signes, A., Pastor, M., Gaspar, L. & Verma, R. (2012). Does ISO environmental certification help the economic performance of hotels? Evidence from the Spanish hotel industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 53(2), 5-15.
- Sena da Silva, G. C. & Dumke de Medeiros, D. (2004). Environmental management in Brazilian companies. *Management of Environmental Quality: An International Journal*, 15(4), 380-

- Shrivastava, P. (1995). Environmental technologies and competitive advantage. *Strategic Management Journal*, 16(1), 183-200.
- Stipanuk, D. M. (1996). The US lodging industry and the environment: An historical view. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37(5), 39-45.
- Trung, D. N. & Kumar, S. (2005). Resource use and waste management in Vietnam hotel industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 13(2), 109-116.
- Tzschentke, N., Kirk, D. & Lynch, P. A. (2004). Reasons for going green in serviced accommodation establishments. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(2), 116-124.
- Ustad, B. H. M. (2010). The adoption and implementation of environmental management systems in New Zealand hotels: The managers' perspective (Doctoral dissertation, Auckland University of Technology).
- Ustad, B. H. M., Liu, C. & Goodsir, W. (2010). The Manager's perspectives on the implementation of environmental management systems (EMS) in New Zealand hotels. New Zealand Tourism and Hospitality Research Conference, 24 - 26 November 2010, Auckland.
- West, G. A. & Manta, J. G. (1996). ISO 14001: An executive report: A concise summary and analysis of the new standard for environmental management. *Maryland: Government Institutes*.
- Zingale, R. & Himes, T. (1999). Environmental management systems: Making better business sense. *Industrial Heating*, 66(8), 18-34.
- Zutshi, A. & Sohal, A. (2004). Environmental management system adoption by Australasian organisations: Part 1: Reasons, benefits and impediments. *Technovation*, 24(4), 335-357.

CLIMATE CHANGE AND TOURISM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE NEWSPAPER PUBLICATIONS

[Andrei Kirilenko](#) University of Florida Gainesville, FL, USA

[David \(Shihan\) Ma](#) University of Florida Gainesville, FL, USA

ABSTRACT

Tourism is vulnerable to climate change due to its dependence on natural amenities and is a major climate change driver, but climate change is also generating new opportunities for tourism industry. Some of the connections between tourism and climate are well researched, however the scientific knowledge has not yet percolated into ability to act. The authors studied mass media framing of climate change a tourism by analyzing English newspaper publications worldwide. The paper presents the results of the content analysis of collected articles, geographical pattern, and the temporal changes of newspapers' framing of climate change and tourism.

Key Words: Climate change, Tourism, Machine learning, Content analysis, Mass media

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is believed to be highly vulnerable to climate change (UNWTO, 2011). The decision to travel is based on factors, which are climate related such air and water temperature, sun, and snow cover; these factors are highly variable in changing climate. The impacts from climate change on tourism includes direct, indirect, and induced impacts (Simpson et al., 2008). Direct impacts include the factors of climate tourism industry depends upon (De Freitas, 2001): air temperature, sunshine, humidity, extreme weather events etc. Temperature change is the most frequently discussed (and the most predictable) between these factors; while global temperature change for the nearest future (2020s) is believed to be limited to 0.7 °C relative to the 1986-2005 baseline, and to 2.6 °C in the mid-term (2050s) (Pachauri, Meyer, Plattner, Stocker, & others, 2015), this change is projected to be spatially heterogeneous with much higher temperature changes in northern latitudes (Pachauri et al., 2015). Between the positive impacts, temperature change is projected to shift climate conditions favorable for tourism poleward, potentially bringing more visitors to north-west Europe and mid-

latitudes North America, while exercising little effect on tropical destinations (Wilbanks et al., 2007). An iconic example of new tourism destination opened with recent “Arctic temperature amplification” phenomenon (Screen & Simmonds, 2010), which opened possibilities for Arctic cruise travel, even though some authors expressed skepticism due to substantially increasing risks of ship damage from floating multi-year sea ice (Stewart, Howell, Draper, Yackel, & Tivy, 2007).

Another high-impact high-confidence direct impact is the sea level rise, projected to range between 0.17 - 0.38 m by the 2050s, additionally to the 0.19m sea level rise during the 20th century. Again, current rates of sea level rise hint at spatial heterogeneity of this process with some tourist destinations experiencing very high rates of sea level rise (e.g., Haer, Kalnay, Kearney, & Moll, 2013). The sea level change increase storm surge, affecting hurricane inundation risks in the coastal zone (Haer et al., 2013) with high concentration of the tourist related businesses and exercising direct impact on the tourism sector.

Climate change also impacts tourism indirectly by transforming natural amenities tourist destinations depend upon. The most researched effects in this area is reduced snow cover and length of season in ski destinations; another high impact, yet lesser understood scientifically is coral reef bleaching. Multiple other examples of indirect impacts include loss of biodiversity, increasing risks of wildfires, beach erosion, etc. A substantial scientific literature on indirect impacts is reviewed in the second and third working group’s contribution to the 2014th Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report and summarized by Scott et al. (2016). Counterintuitively, destructive transformation of natural landscapes is able to bring tourism demand from travelers who want to see the disappearing natural attractions before it is too late, known as “last chance tourism” (Lemelin, Dawson, Stewart, Maher, & Lueck, 2010).

Finally, climate change related changes in other sectors exercise induced impacts on the tourism sectors, e.g., from energy sector, agriculture, and water availability. For example, in energy sector higher air temperatures increase summer demand for space conditioning, in turn elevating peak energy demand. On the other hand, reduced summer river water flow affects supply of hydro energy. An additional factor is increasing water demand for irrigation. Higher water temperatures also increase water demand for cooling at the nuclear plants, which was exhibited during the 2003 heat wave in Europe (Poumadere, Mays, Le Mer, & Blong, 2005).

Tourism sector is a major contributor to climate change, contributing ~5% of the total greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in CO₂ equivalent (eCO₂), as estimated by the UNWTO et al. (2008). Approximately % of these GHG emissions are generated in the transportation, with the minority of tourists arriving by air contributing disproportionately high amount of GHGs (Gossling, Ceron, Dubois, & Hall, 2009; Simpson et al., 2008). The emissions from tourism sector are expected to grow by 130% in the near future (2005 to 2035) under the Business- as-usual scenario (Fischelick et al., 2014). Due to the high role played by tourism in accelerated GHG emissions, an active area of research is investigation of climate change mitigation options in tourism (Gossling, 2010).

Despite existence of substantial scientific literature related to climate change and tourism, few climate change mitigation and adaptation practices have been implemented by the tourism industry, with exception of ski tourism (Scott & McBoyle, 2007). For example Saaren and Tervo (2006) found that while the nature-based tourism entrepreneurs in Finland are aware of the climate change issues, they express skepticism regarding possibility of climate change affecting tourism of the region, and attributed that to the lack of knowledge and previous experience with exercising climate change(Saarininen & Tervo, 2006) adaptation strategies. This paper explores the hypothesis that significant research fields are indeed hidden from the public as they are not reported my mass media.

This paper investigates the patterns of mass media framing climate change and tourism in English language newspapers and compares mass media reporting on the issues with existing topics of scientific research. First, a sample of relevant newspaper articles was collected through a systematic newspaper database search. Next, main topics of newspaper publications were extracted through content analysis. Finally, the collected data was georeferenced to (1) find geographical patterns of climate change discussion and (2) find the perceived global “hot spots” of climate change impacts on tourism.

DATA

The data on mass media framing of climate change and tourism was collected with a systematic English language newspaper article search in the Lexis-Nexis Academic database. The search for following subjects: ((climate change) or (global warming)) and ((tourism) or (destination)) was performed for a 30-year publication period, starting from January 1987 until October 2016, which yielded 10,307 articles published worldwide. Removal of duplicates and near-duplicates (e.g., the

articles published in two different editions of a newspaper) reduced the database size to 9,732 articles.

Manual analysis of a sample of publications showed that many of the acquired articles however were centered on only one topic of interest (that is, on climate change or on tourism), while mentioning the other one only cursory.

Due to the large database size, manual retrieval of relevant publications proved impractical. Because of that, a machine learning algorithm was used to select those publications that were highly likely to be relevant. First, a random sample of 323 collected articles was carefully examined for its relevancy to both climate change and tourism discussion and classified into the "relevant" and "not relevant" classes. Then, the Subject field of the sample articles was used to train an SVM (support vector machine) classifier. Finally, the trained SVM classifier was applied to the original collected sample to select only those newspaper publications classified as "relevant" with probability at least 50%. This resulted in 1,334 articles published in 240 newspapers worldwide, starting from 1987 and ending 2016. Over 80% of all articles in the database was published in 2006 or later (Figure 1). The number of articles was very small prior to 1999 (only 4% of the sample) and spiked in 2007 (200 articles constituting 15% of the sample) when the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Climate Change Assessment was published and consequently awarded with a Nobel Peace Prize shared with Al Gore. The spike of 2006 - 2008 was followed by a decreased interest to the topic with the mean of 80 articles (6% of the sample) published annually.

Figure 1. Distribution of collected articles over time.

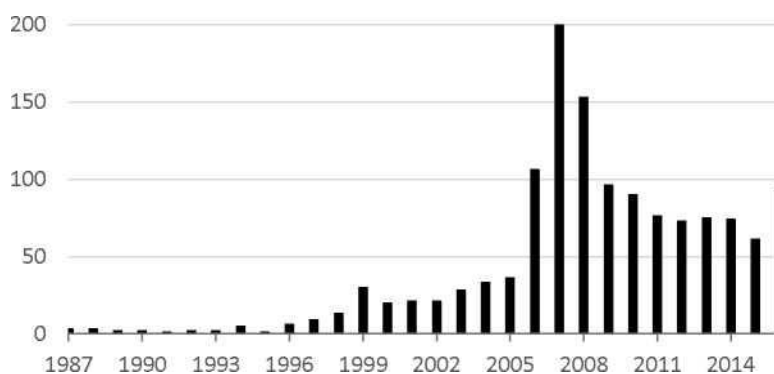


Table 1 shows distribution of the collected data for the top countries present in the database. The table represents 82% of the total number of collected articles. Due to varying number of venues collected by Lexis-Nexis in different countries and varying number of articles per venue, it is impossible to attribute the difference in the total number of collected articles in a specific country to variations in interest to the topic. To adjust the number of collected articles, we performed a separate Lexis-Nexis search for a neutral word (“off”, which is the 205-th most frequent word in English language) and computed relative number of publications on climate change in tourism (the last column of Table 1). The UK, Australian, and Canadian press published the most, starting with The Guardian (UK, 40 publications), The Independent (UK, 32 publications), and The Courier Mail (Australia, 31 publications). The most publishing US newspaper, The New York Times, shared the 10th - 12th place with 19 publications.

Table 1.

Distribution of collected data over the countries. The last column of the table presents the frequency of articles on climate change and tourism adjusted for variations in the number of articles published in each country in Lexis- Nexis newspaper database.

Country	Venues	Articles	Percentage	Adj. frequency
United Kingdom	77	374	28	0.93
Australia	59	320	24	1.99
United States	54	140	10	0.41
Canada	22	100	7	1.29
India	22	62	5	1.08
South Africa	16	55	4	2.73
New Zealand	9	43	3	0.71

METHODS

Content analysis of collected articles was completed using exploratory factor analysis. Following the methodology described in (A. P. Kirilenko & Stepchenkova, 2012), the data was processed in the following way:

1. A list of all words was extracted (24,446 words in total);

2. Synonyms were replaced (e.g., the words “US”, “U.S.”, “USA”, and “United States” were replaced with the same word);
3. Infrequent words defined as those in the lowest 10th percentile of frequency distribution were removed, resulting in a list of 1,525 words;
4. Stop words (“a”, “the”, “at”, etc.) and generic words (“day”, “people”, “good”, etc.) were removed, resulting in a list of 209 words (further named variables);
5. Each article was transformed into a vector in a 209-dimensional binary vector space with each of the vector’s component k taking the value of 0 or 1 according to presence of absence of the k -th word of the word list in the article.

Multiple iterations of principal component analysis (PCA) with quartimax rotation were performed with the goal of obtaining high validity components. Since each iteration produced four type of variable clusters: meaningful components (the goal of analysis), stable word combinations (e.g., “scientist” and “research”), components with only one variable, and variables not strongly loaded on any specific factor; the latter were removed with each iteration. The following guidelines were used for obtaining the final solution (for detail see A. Kirilenko & Stepchenkova, 2012):

1. The majority of components should contain at least three variables (Kline 1994);
2. The cross-loadings should be meaningful;
3. The solution should be stable (a solution with smaller of a larger number of variables should not change the main factors).

The final 15-factor EFA solution had the following characteristics: the KMO statistic value for the matrix was .83, which exceeds the minimal recommended value of .6 (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2003); Bartlett’s test of sphericity: significance .001; total variance explained 46.11 %; the range of loadings .35 to .84. Among the fifteen extracted components, the Cronbach’s alfa was above 0.6 for twelve first components, indicating acceptable reliability of test scores, and 0.5 to 0.6 for the remaining components indicating only poor reliability.

RESULTS

The following main themes of discussion on climate change and tourism were extracted from collected data:

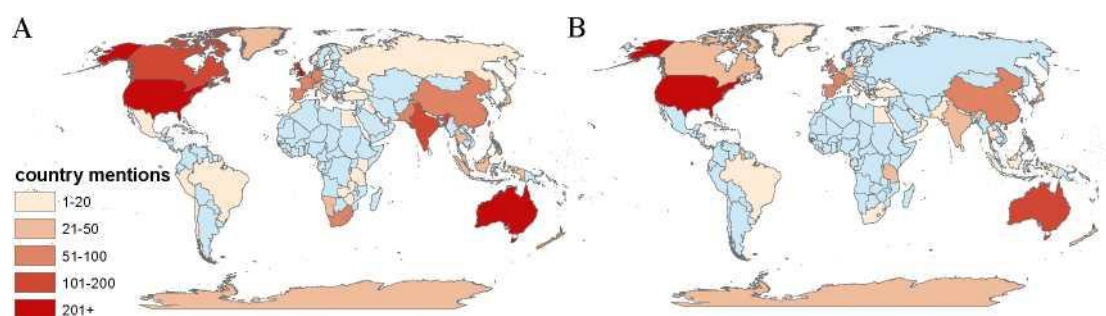
1. **Coral reef bleaching.** Warmer and more acidic ocean waters induce corals to expel symbiotic algae, resulting in corals' discoloration. Aside from bleak appearance, the coral reefs lose their importance as a food source for tropical fish, resulting in marine biodiversity loss;
2. **Ski and Winter Tourism.** Climate change contributes to warmer winters, shortening snow seasons, which in turn impacts ski tourism;
3. **Glaciers Melting.** Climate change accelerates discharge of some glaciers, creating opportunities for last chance tourism. Additionally, melting ice caps opens previously inaccessible locations into tourist hot spots;
4. **Ecosystem and Biodiversity.** A frequently discussed topic is climate change impact on species' habitat; consecutive reductions in biodiversity impacts attractiveness of affected region for nature based tourism;
5. **Coastal Erosion.** Sea level rise increase storm water surge, accelerating coastal erosion and hence impacting beach tourist destinations;
6. **Coral Reef Tourism.** Directly related to factor (1), reduction in climate change driven aesthetic services and biodiversity of coral reefs affect attractiveness of a tourist destination;
7. **Summer Heatwave.** Summer time nature tourist destination depends on climate amenities; more frequent heat waves such as the 2003 Europe heat wave make traditional sunshine and beach holiday destinations less attractive;
8. **Seasonal Changes in Weather Pattern.** The changes in weather patterns affect tourism businesses and also impact natural amenities.
9. **Clean Energy.** Sustainable tourism may contribute to mitigation of climate through adoption of alternative energy sources.

10. **Greenhouse Gas Emission Reduction.** Tourism industry is estimated to contribute ~5% of greenhouse gas emissions to the atmosphere (in CO₂ equivalent units - see Scott et al., 2016).
11. **Polar Cruises.** Melting Arctic sea ice allows polar cruises to reach the latitudes previously inaccessible, creating a new mass tourism market and at the same time accelerating greenhouse gas atmospheric emissions and affecting the Arctic environment.
12. **Air Travel.** Air travel is estimated to be responsible for 54-75% of tourism related radiative forcing (UNWTO et al., 2008). Projected increase in future air travel will further accelerate tourism related climate forcing
13. **Island Destination.** Direct impacts of sea level rise on beach tourism is an important climate change related concern in small island nations.
14. **Trekking Tourism.** Mountain hiking and trekking are indirectly influenced by climate change through modification of landscapes, increasing risks of forest fires, etc.
15. **Scientific Research.** The final factor related to climate change and tourism relates to scientific research in respective field.

Global distribution of climate change and tourism discussion in mass media is spatially heterogeneous. Between the countries for which a substantial number of publications were collected (over 40 articles), the most prevalent ones, after adjustment for sample size (see section “Data”), are South Africa, Australia, and Canada. On the other hand, climate change and tourism discussion in this group of countries is the least prevalent in the United States. The topics of publications are also country-specific. In the countries specializing in nature tourism the main topic of discussion seems related to climate change impact on their nature resources. For example, South Africa is a popular destination for nature tourism and the most popular topic of the articles is sustainable tourism. In Australia, the most discussed topic is environmental change driven by global warming, with 43% of the articles mentioning impacts on coral reefs. In Russia, the most prominent topic is polar cruises, in Nepal - trekking, in Maldives - disappearing island destinations, and in Tanzania - coastal erosion. Newspapers in other countries, such as Canada and the United States, do not have a single prominent topic and publish generic reports on climate change impact on tourism globally.

The distribution of countries and regions mentioned in publications is similar to distribution of the publication origins (Figure 2A): the countries that publish more articles on climate change in tourism are also likely to be more frequently mentioned in these publications. The most frequent mentioned country is Australia, followed by Great Britain and the United States. Aside from the English language countries from which the sample was mainly composed, the most discussed countries were European countries impacted by hot waves (France, Spain, and Switzerland), China, Maldives, and also two regions, Arctic and Caribbean islands. Figure 2B shows distribution of the countries mentioned in newspaper articles on climate change and tourism when the country of publication's origin is excluded from the analysis. Comparison of two plates of Figure 2 demonstrates that some of the regions (such as Australia) are frequently mentioned in the international mass media, while in others (such as Southern Africa) climate change is mostly discussed in local press.

Figure 2. The countries mentioned in newspaper articles on climate change and tourism. The color corresponds to the number of mentions in the sample. A: All countries; B: excluding the publication origin country



CONCLUSION

We found that all topics of scientific research related to direct and indirect impacts of climate change on tourism have been reported to public in mainstream mass media. The mass media adequately reported on direct impacts from warmer mean seasonal temperatures and increasing risks of summer hot waves on winter snow and summer beach tourist destinations. It also reported on indirect impacts of climate change such as reduced biodiversity. However, the induced impacts such as increased energy demand combined with shrinking supply are largely left unreported by the press. The mass

media reported both the negative and positive effects of climate change on tourism; the latter included new destinations and opportunities for the last chance tourism. It also correctly reported the role of tourism in climate change mitigation. The overall conclusion is that the tourism industry inaction on climate change risks is unlikely to be attributed to the lack of information in mass media.

REFERENCES

- Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006). SPSS for Psychologists: A Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows. *Palgrave Macmillan*.
- De Freitas, C. R. (2001). Theory, concepts and methods in tourism climate research. *Proceedings of the First International Workshop on Climate, Tourism and Recreation* (pp. 3-20). Eds. A. Matzarakis and CR de Freitas.
- Fischedick, M., Roy, J., Abdel-Aziz A., Acquaye A., Allwood J., Ceron J.-P., Geng Y., Kheshgi H., et al. (2014). Chapter 10 - Industry. *Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. IPCC Working Group III Contribution to AR5*. Cambridge, UK and New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Gossling S., J.-P. Ceron, G. Dubois, and M. C. Hall (2009). Hypermobile travellers. *Climate change and aviation. Issues, Challenges and solutions*. Eds. Upham, P. and Gossling, S. Earthscan, London, pp. 131-151. ISBN: 9781844076208.
- Gossling, S. (2010). Carbon Management in Tourism: Mitigating the Impacts on Climate Change. *Routledge*.
- Haer, T., Kalnay, E., Kearney, M., & Moll, H. (2013). Relative sea-level rise and the conterminous United States: Consequences of potential land inundation in terms of population at risk and GDP loss. *Global environmental change*, 23(6), 1627-1636.
- Kirilenko, A. P., & Stepchenkova, S. O. (2012). Climate change discourse in mass media: application of computer- assisted content analysis. *Journal of Environmental Studies and Sciences*, 2(2), 178-191.
- Kline, P. (2014). *An easy guide to factor analysis*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Lemelin, H., Dawson, J., Stewart, E. J., Maher, P., & Lueck, M. (2010). Last-chance tourism: The boom, doom, and gloom of visiting vanishing destinations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 13(5), 477-493.
- Pachauri, R. K., Meyer, L., Plattner, G.-K., Stocker, T., & others. (2015). IPCC, 2014: Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. *Cambridge, UK and New York, NY: Cambridge University Press*.
- Poumadere, M., Mays, C., Le Mer, S., & Blong, R. (2005). The 2003 heat wave in France: dangerous climate change here and now. *Risk analysis*, 25(6), 1483-1494.

- Saarinen, J., & Tervo, K. (2006). Perceptions and adaptation strategies of the tourism industry to climate change: the case of Finnish nature-based tourism entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Innovation and Sustainable Development*, 1(3), 214-228.
- Scott, D., Hall, C. M., & Gossling, S. (2016). A review of the IPCC Fifth Assessment and implications for tourism sector climate resilience and decarbonization. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(1), 8-30.
- Scott, D., & McBoyle, G. (2007). Climate change adaptation in the ski industry. *Mitigation and adaptation strategies for global change*, 12(8), 1411-1431.
- Screen, J. A., & Simmonds, I. (2010). The central role of diminishing sea ice in recent Arctic temperature amplification. *Nature*, 464(7293), 1334-1337.
- Simpson, M. C., Gossling, S., Scott, D., Hall, C. M., Gladin, E., & others. (2008). Climate change adaptation and mitigation in the tourism sector: frameworks, tools and practices. *Climate change adaptation and mitigation in the tourism sector: frameworks, tools and practices*. University of Oxford: UNEP.
- Stewart, E. J., Howell, S. E., Draper, D., Yackel, J., & Tivy, A. (2007). Sea ice in Canada's Arctic: Implications for cruise tourism. *Arctic*, 370-380.
- UNWTO (2011). Annual report 2010: A year of recovery. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- UNWTO, UNEP, and WMO (2008). Climate Change and Tourism: Responding to Global Challenges. London, UK: UNEP/Earthprint.
- Wilbanks, T. J., Lankao, P.R., Bao, M., Berkhout, F., Cairncross, S., Ceron, J.-P., Kapshe, M., et al. (2007). Industry, settlement and society. *Climate Change 2007. Working Group II: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability*, 357-390. Cambridge, UK and New York, NY: Cambridge University Press

COMPONENTS OF PACKAGE TOUR QUALITY

Gürel Çetin

Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Dept., Istanbul, Turkey

Orhan Akova

Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Dept., Istanbul, Turkey

Ozan Atsiz

Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Dept., Istanbul, Turkey

Mehtap Balık

Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Dept., Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Although package tours make a significant part of travel industry, dimensions of their quality and their impact on tourist satisfaction is overlooked in the literature. This study designed as a preliminary study aimed to determine relative importance of package tour quality items and their relationship with tourist satisfaction. A total of 73 surveys were collected from tourists who have recently experienced a package tour. Analysis of data revealed that all suggested package tour quality dimensions had a positive and significant relationship with satisfaction. Particularly *fair treatment*, *physical appearance of service staff*, *ability to solve problems* and *availability of service staff* had higher loadings. The findings of the study would lead to a better design of travel services and positive customer behaviors.

Key Words: package tours, tour operators, service quality, customer loyalty

INTRODUCTION

The package tour is an assembly of different products and services arranged by a tour organizer (e.g. tour operator) which includes services such as transportation, sight-seeing, guiding, food and lodging services. Tour organizers usually charge these services at an inclusive price. A package tour is also a reasonable and effective way for tourists to travel in a relatively safe way to other destinations, to visit various places on a trip in a short period, and to have reliable and convenient services. Package tours are a significant part of commercial tourism industry and they offer a more standardized

experience. These commercial tourism products particularly have become popular for specific tourism market segments such as cultural and heritage tourism as well as other active special interest tours (Cetin & Yarkan, 2017).

Although they make a significant part of travel trade, the quality of organized package tours has been subject to limited research. Individual services that make up the package tour determine whether tourists feel satisfied or dissatisfied at the end of their trip. And depending on the level of satisfaction they might develop positive customer behaviors such as recommendation and loyalty (Cetin & Dincer, 2014). This paper intends to determine the factors affecting the quality of package tours and their impact on positive customer behaviors. To do so a survey is designed based on extant literature from prior studies on package tours and service quality.

The quality of package tours at the destination and customer perceptions about these quality dimensions are important inputs for travel trade. If tour operators would understand how different elements and features of package tours affect quality perceptions, loyalty and recommendation, they would better design travel services. Thus the main objective of the study is to identify components in a package tour those would lead tourist satisfaction. This study is planned a preliminary test study of a more comprehensive research that will involve a larger sample. The next section presents literature on package tour quality and tourist satisfaction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The package tour involves tangible as well as intangible service components (Westwood, Morgan, Pritchard, & Ineson, 1999) and consist of highly labor intensive services (Bowie & Chang, 2005). The package tour as an intangible product and a bundle of various services supplied by different providers, makes the package tour purchase a risky decision (Cetin & Yarkan, 2017). Since there are limited measurable standards for intangible services compared to physical products, customers do not know what they are getting until they actually experience these services (Levitt, 1981). Therefore, there is a higher level of risk involved in tourism consumption. In order to minimize the risk and costs associated with time during the process of searching, reserving and payment of different services, some travelers prefer to rely on tour operators' packages because of the convenience they offer. Hence tour operators and travel agencies are highly dependent upon the companies' image and word of mouth for generating repeat and recommended sales (Bowie & Chang, 2005). In order to minimize the risk and costs associated with time during the process of searching, reserving and

payment of different services, some travelers prefer to rely on tour operators' packages.

Tourists naturally expect to see as much as possible in a convenient and comfortable manner during package tours (Duke & Persia, 1993) and are highly likely to join in package tours that are put together by tour organizers (Xu & Chan, 2010). Majority of leisure tourism volume is dominated by package tours. A package tour is a reasonable and effective way for tourists to travel in a relatively safe way to other destinations, to visit various places on a trip in a short period, to have reliable and convenient services (e.g. prompt transportation and clean physical facilities). Besides, organized tours are usually cheaper than individual organization of the same trip (Enoch, 1996).

Tourists buy package tours for different reasons such as convenient planning, rational pricing, recommendations from peers, and the desire for a smooth flow of specialized activities and experiences offered in the tour (Middleton, 1991; Hsieh, O'Leary, & Morrison, 1994; 1992). Also package tourists expect their vacation to be memorable and offered in a comfortable, stress-free atmosphere escorted mostly by professional tour guides (Duke & Persia, 1993; Quiroga, 1990). The augmented product of group package tour involves sub-sectors that include the pre-tour briefing, the airport and flight, hotels, restaurants, coaches, visits to natural and cultural attractions, guiding, shopping and optional tours among others (Wang, Hsieh, & Huan, 2000).

Heung and Chu (2000) stated that tourists choose specific package tours by paying in bulk in advance and expect a quality experience during their consumption and interaction with service providers. Individual services that make up the package tour determine whether tourists feel satisfied or dissatisfied at the end of their trip (Xu & Chan, 2010). Poor service experiences such as late transfers, small rooms, limited food services and other below par touristic services could bring about an overall negative experience from the trip.

There is a close relationship between quality and satisfaction as well. Service quality is defined as meeting expectations and satisfying the needs of customers (Neal & Gursoy, 2008). Satisfaction and quality are both individual assessments, based on comparison between perceived performance and some standard reference point (Orsingher & Marzocchi, 2003). Numerous studies have explored the relationship between tourist satisfaction and services quality in tourism and quality has been widely recognized as a source of competitive advantage (Fayos-Sola, 1996; Laws, 2000; Poon, 1993). Satisfaction has also been thought as the balance between expectation and experience and considered as an important antecedent of future patronage and recommendation behaviors (Pearce, 2005).

The study used an extended version of the SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985) dimensions adopted to a package tour environment. Besides RATER (Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness), package tour specific items such as information provision, timing, fairness and so on were included based on previous studies (e.g. Ciftci et al. 2015; Hudson & Shephard, 1998; Raikkonen & Honkanen, 2013; Wang et al., 2007). Some SERVQUAL dimensions were also customized to fit into the package tour environment. For example tangibles were divided under physical features of hotels, transportation vehicles and general service environment. Satisfaction was also measured by a three item scale including overall satisfaction from the package tour; receiving what was promised during the tour and extent to which package tour met expectations.

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study is to present the relationships between quality attributes of package tours and tourist satisfaction. Therefore, the study tries to explore the answers of two main questions. First, what are the relative importance of different package tour quality dimensions and second, how strongly these factors affect tourist satisfaction. In order to determine the factors affecting package tour satisfaction this study used a quantitative approach. A questionnaire was developed based on a review of prior studies on package tour quality discussed above. The field research was conducted based on intercept survey procedures. Collection of data took two weeks between November and December, 2016 in old city (Sultanahmet) district of Istanbul. The first part of the questionnaire comprised package tour quality dimensions, the second part consisted of satisfaction ratings and third section included demographic and tripographic information. Data was collected through a self-administrated questionnaire and administered on 73 respondents.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

73 valid questionnaires were used during data analysis. First descriptive statistics were obtained and frequencies were extracted. 56 percent of the respondents were male. The majority of the respondents (63%) were between 20 and 30 years of age. 25 percent had a household income between 20.000 and 50.000 USD per year and 78 percent were university graduates. They were mainly from Europe (45%), Fareast (24%), and North America (17%).

Table 1

Relationship Between Package Tour Quality And Satisfaction

Package Tour Quality Items	Mean	Satisfaction
Information supplied by tour operator was accurate.	3,90	0,49**
Tour itinerary was satisfactory.	3,97	0,59**
Allocation of time was satisfactory.	3,84	0,58**
Service staff (guide, reception, waiter, driver etc.) were	3,95	0,55**
Service attitude of staff was satisfactory.	3,96	0,64**
Tour was performed as promised.	4,04	0,59**
Service staff were willing to help.	3,94	0,59**
Service staff were prompt.	4,00	0,57**
Service staff were flexible.	3,88	0,54**
Service staff were able to customize the itinerary.	3,84	0,59**
Services were provided in a timely manner.	3,92	0,67**
Service staff were caring.	3,96	0,68**
Service staff was attentive.	4,04	0,70**
Service staff were willing to solve problems.	3,99	0,71**
Service staff were able to solve problems.	3,97	0,72**
I was treated as an equal member of the tour group.	4,03	0,74**
Service staff were competent.	4,00	0,66**
Information available regarding the tour was satisfactory.	4,04	0,64**
Service staff were trustworthy.	4,03	0,68**
Service staff were knowledgeable.	3,93	0,63**
Service staff were available.	4,04	0,72**
Service staff were neat and tidy.	4,04	0,73**
The physical features of hotels were satisfactory.	4,21	0,48**
The physical features of transportation vehicles was satisfactory.	4,14	0,51**
The physical features of service environment were satisfactory.	4,16	0,50**

*Correlation is significant at $p < 0.05$ level (two tailed); **correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$ level (two tailed).

In order to measure reliability Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the variables measuring package tour quality (independent variable) and satisfaction (dependent variable) dimensions. Both package tour quality ($\alpha=0.97$) and satisfaction ($\alpha=0.94$) items reliability coefficients were above acceptable level. Then Pearson's Correlation was used to explore the relationship between package tour quality and satisfaction. Table 1 reflects the relationship between package tour quality items and satisfaction. Considering satisfaction the most important package tour quality items are as follows: "I was treated as an equal member of the tour group" ($r=0.74$), "Service staff were neat and tidy" ($r=0.73$), "Service staff were able to solve problems" ($r=0.72$) and "Service staff were available ($r=0.72$). All other items reflecting package tour quality despite with lower loadings were also found to be significantly

related to satisfaction.

CONCLUSIONS

The quality of package tours at the destination and customer perceptions about these quality dimensions are important inputs for travel trade. The results of the study are expected to reveal how different elements and features of package tours affect quality perceptions and satisfaction. Analysis revealed that all suggested package tour quality dimensions had a positive and significant relationship with satisfaction. Particularly *fair treatment, physical appearance of service staff, ability to solve problems* and *availability of service staff* had higher loadings.

The findings of the study would lead to a better design of travel services and understanding components in a package tour those would lead to a better quality and positive customer behaviors. Yet, in order to identify the performance of different service suppliers tour operators need efficient data collection procedures in place.

Customer feedback to be collected at the end of each tour is a significant tool to monitor and improve quality (Cetin & Kizilirmak, 2012). This study is a preliminary test study of a comprehensive research that will involve a larger sample. The second stage of the study because it will involve a larger sample is planned to utilize multivariate analysis that would better define the importance of factors that affect package tour satisfaction.

There are some limitations to the study; the package tour satisfaction is also affected by external stimuli outside the control of the tour operator such as the weather. Some authors also discuss experiences as a more important antecedent of positive customer behaviors in tourism (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2016) than quality and performance measures. A comparative study measuring the impact of both quality and experience ratings on positive customer behaviors and analyzing their exploratory power separately is also suggested.

REFERENCES

- Bowie, D., & Chang, J. J. (2005). Tourist satisfaction: A view from a mixed international guided package tour. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 4(H), 303-322.
- Cetin, G., & Bilgihan, A. (2016). Components of cultural tourists' experiences in destinations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(2), 137-154.
- Cetin, G., & Dincer, F. I. (2014). Influence of customer experience on loyalty and word-of-mouth in hospitality operations. *Anatolia*, 25(2), 181-194.

- Cetin, G., & Kizilirmak, i. (2012). Turk turizminde kokartli turist rehberlerin mevcut durumunun analizi. *Journal of Economics & Administrative Sciences*. 14(2), 307-318.
- Cetin, G., & Yarkan, S. (2017). The professional relationship between tour guides and tour operators. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, (In print).
- Cifci, I., Kaya, F., & Akova, O. (2015). Travel motivations and satisfaction levels of excursionists visiting: A case study of Haji Bektash Veli Museum. *Journal of Tourismology*, 1(1), 31-41.
- Duke, C. R., & Persia, M. A. (1993). Effects of distribution channel level on tour purchasing attributes and information sources. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2/3(2), 37-55.
- Enoch, Y. (1996). Contents of tour packages: A cross-cultural comparison. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 3(22), 599-616.
- Heung, V. C., & Chu, R. (2000). Important factors affecting Hong Kong consumers' choice of a travel agency for all-inclusive package tours. *Journal of Travel Research*, 1(39), 52-59.
- Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T., & Morrison, A. M. (1994). A comparison of package and non-package travelers from the United Kingdom. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 3/4(6), 79-97.
- Hudson, S., & Shephard, G. W. (1998). Measuring service quality at tourist destinations: An application of importance-performance analysis to an alpine ski resort. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 7(3), 61-77.
- Levitt, T. (1981). Marketing Intangible Products and Product Intangibles. *Harvard Business*, 3(59), 94-102. Middleton, V. T. (1991). Whither the package tour? *Tourism Management*, 3(12), 185-192.
- Neal, J. D., & Gursoy, D. (2008). A multifaceted analysis of tourism satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(1), 53-62.
- Orsingher, C., & Marzocchi, G. (2003). Hierarchical representation of satisfactory consumer service experience. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 2(14), 200-216.
- Quiroga, I. (1990). Characteristics of package tours in Europe. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 2(17), 185-207.
- Pearce, P. (2005). *Tourist Behaviour: Themes and Conceptual Schemes*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Raikkonen, J., & Honkanen, A. (2013). Does satisfaction with package tours lead to successful vacation experiences?. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 2(2), 108-117.
- Xu, J., & Chan, A. (2010). Service Experience and Package Tours. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Researches*, 2(15), 177-194.
- Wang, K. C., Hsieh, A. T., & Huan, T. C. (2000). Critical service features in group package tour: An exploratory research. *Tourism Management*, 21(2), 177-189.
- Westwood, S. H., Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Ineson, E. M. (1999). Branding the Package Holiday "The Role and Significance of Brands for UK Air Tour Operators". *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(5), 238-252.

THE LINK BETWEEN PERCEIVED CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, COMMITMENT TO THE TOURISM INDUSTRY AND WILLINGNESS TO RECOMMEND THE ORGANIZATION

Erhan Boğan

Sakarya University/Tourism Faculty/Tourism Management

Bekir Bora Dedeoğlu

Nevsehir Hacı Bektaş Veli University/Tourism Faculty/Tourism Management

ABSTRACT

The term of corporate social responsibility (CSR) which is defined as “the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life”, has been frequently examined for last decade in the tourism sector. However, considering the need in the tourism sector for qualified employees, it is seen that the students’ perceptions regarding the social responsibility performances of the hotel businesses where they work in has not been examined in detail. At this point, the existing shortcomings were attempted to be eliminated in the present study. In this regard, the research data were collected from 220 tourism students studying in an undergraduate program in Turkey, and the research model was tested via the model of partial least squares of the structural equation modeling. Accordingly, it is observed that the perceptions regarding the customer and employee-oriented corporate social responsibility activities have a positive impact on the intentions of commitment to the tourism industry and willingness to recommend the organization whereas any finding about the significant effect of the perceptions regarding the community-oriented corporate social responsibility activities on the factors mentioned above has not been found.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility; commitment; willingness to recommend; Turkey

1. INTRODUCTION

Corporate social responsibility has been widely used in the tourism sector for the last decade. Considering that natural and socio-cultural environment are promoted as touristic products in the

sector, it is not so surprising that the environment protection practices come first among the social responsibility practices in tourism industry (Ayuso, 2006; Bohdanowicz, 2006; Carlsen et al., 2001; Chung & Parker, 2010; Erdogan & Bariş, 2007; Kasim, 2007). Nevertheless, the environment comprises a significant but only one dimension of the social responsibility. Considering the impact of tourism on the social and cultural environment, the organizations need to carry out the community-oriented social responsibility activities. Nevertheless, since the tourism industry is a labor-intensive sector and the employees play a critical role for the service delivery, employee-oriented social responsibility activities should be taken into notice, as well. Lastly, considering the importance of customers who are the main subject of the tourism sector, customer-oriented social responsibility activities should also be carried out. Therefore, the environment, community, employees and customers can be claimed as the most important stakeholders for whom the tourism businesses are responsible.

Many studies were carried out on the customers and employees' feedback on the corporate social responsibility practices of the tourism businesses (Lee et al., 2013; Lee & Heo, 2009; Othman & Hemdi, 2015; Park & Levy, 2014; Zientara et al., 2015). These studies reveal the strategic importance of CSR for businesses. However, except these stakeholders, considering especially the insufficient number of the qualified employees in the sector, it has been observed that there exists a shortcoming related to the extent of the impact of CSR practices on tourism students' attitudes and behaviors. When the curriculums of undergraduate programs on tourism are examined, it is seen that such courses as ethics and social responsibility, tourism and environment, eco-tourism, strategic management are included. Thus, it is assumed that these courses raise the awareness of students on the social responsibility.

In addition, the factors influential on the tourism students' decisions on working in the sector are examined by different researchers (Aksu & Koksall, 2005; Koyuncu et al., 2008; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). Nevertheless, it is mainly focused in these studies on the factors related to the work structure, and the social and environmental practices are neglected (except Yilmazdogan et al., 2015). Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is to research the effect of the tourism students' social responsibility perceptions regarding the hotel they work in on their commitment to the tourism industry and willingness to recommend the organization.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The term of corporate social responsibility is defined by WBCSD (1999) as “the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life” (p. 3). Even though the term of corporate social responsibility reminds at first view the corporate charity activities, namely, the idealist or moral motives, it is considered now as the strategic motives obtained as a result of the positive feedbacks of different stakeholders (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Therefore, both practitioners and researchers emphasize especially the strategic importance of the social responsibility. Within the scope of the studies revealing the strategic importance of CSR practices in tourism sector, such points as the relationship between financial performance and CSR (Inoue & Lee, 2011; Kang, Lee, & Huh, 2010; Lee & Park, 2009); the relationship between CSR and employee outcomes (Avci & Akdemir, 2014; Calışkan & Unusan, 2011; Fu, Ye, & Law, 2014; Lee et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013; Park & Levy, 2014; Zientara et al., 2015); the relationship between CSR and customer responses (Lee & Heo, 2009; Othman & Hemdi, 2015) are examined. As a result, these studies put forward that social responsibility activities can be regarded as a competitive power for businesses in the competition-intense tourism sector.

There exists no widely-accepted measurement model which explains how to measure the social responsibility performances of the businesses (Bogan et al., 2016a ; Morimoto et al., 2005). On the one hand, particular researchers group the businesses’ social responsibilities in a pyramid, as done by Carroll (1979), and measure the term under four main groups (Bogan et al., 2016b; Fu et al., 2014; Calışkan & Unusan, 2011; Lee et al., 2012; Wang, 2014), and the others examine the term within the scope of shareholders; on the other hand, some measures it within the framework of economic, social and environmental dimensions which comprise the main dimensions of the sustainable development (Cowper-Smith & De Grosbois, 2011; Martinez et al., 2013).

QUALIFIED EMPLOYEES OUTCOMES

In tourism, to recruit and retain qualified tourism and hospitality management graduates is highly important. This is because, qualified employees know how to behave tourists and aware of their critical role in service delivering. Providing quality services means high customer satisfaction and loyalty for enterprises. Thus, the businesses operating in tourism sector can gain the competitive

power with the help of their qualified personnel (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Koyuncu et al., 2008).

Different variables such as high stress level, difficulties for the family life by the nature of the job, long working hours, seasonal employments, the perception of low social status resulting from working in the tourism sector, low wage, the attitudes and behaviors of the unqualified people towards the employees, poor working conditions for the employees, demographic characteristics of the personnel (sex, year of study in one's tourism program) (Aksu & Koksak, 2005; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Koyuncu et al., 2008) would be effective on the decisions of tourism graduates to work in the sector. Besides these factors, Koyuncu et al. (2008) discussed three predictors of comment to a career in hospitality and tourism such as work values, engagement levels of students, and the burnout levels of students. Their findings indicated that students' reporting higher levels of engagement, and those reporting lower levels of burnout were more committed to careers in tourism. Work values were unrelated to the commitment to a career in tourism.

Moreover, students' perceptions towards the corporate social responsibility in the hotels they work can affect their commitment to tourism industry and willingness to recommend the organization because such courses in tourism faculties' curriculums as ethics and social responsibility, sustainable tourism, eco-tourism raise their awareness. Especially in the strategic management course, the students learn the positive outcomes of social responsibility activities for the businesses, and they are expected to take these points into consideration for their decision-making processes when they become a manager in the organization in the future (Bogan et al., 2016b). In addition, according to Yeung (2004) the universities because of the increasing number of ethical problems in the professional life are not only responsible for providing the technical information to the students, but also help students have higher levels of awareness. Thus the environmental and social activities/incentives of the hotel businesses make sense for students who work in the organization during internship or holiday periods, and their satisfaction levels increase when they experience the reflection on the sector of the courses they take in the university. Therefore, it is considered that this could be affective on students' commitment to the tourism industry and willingness to recommend the organization to other qualified employees. Based on these explanations, the hypotheses are developed as following:

H1: Students' perceptions of corporate social responsibility in the hotels they work in are positively related to their commitment to the tourism industry.

H2: Students' perceptions of corporate social responsibility in the hotels they work in are positively related to their willingness to recommend the organization.

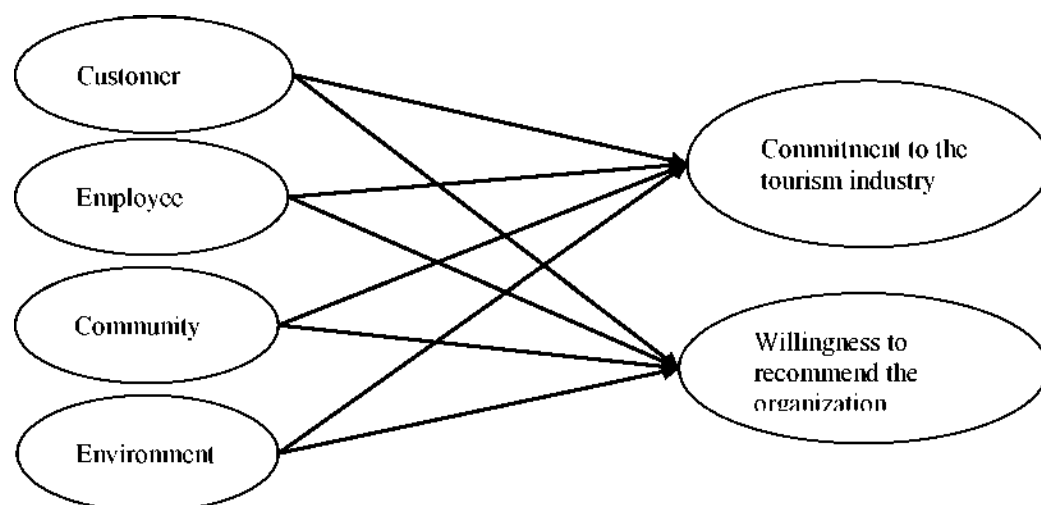


Figure 1. Research Model

METHODOLOGY

INSTRUMENT

As a data collection tool, the questionnaire was used in the present research. In the first part of the questionnaire, the items related to corporate social responsibility, willingness to recommend organization and commitment to the tourism industry are included whereas the demographical items are included in the second part. It is benefitted from the study of Park and Levy (2014) for the scale of corporate social responsibility, from the study of Cable and Judge (1996) for the scale of willingness to recommend organization and from the study of Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) for the scale of commitment to the tourism industry. The corporate social responsibility is measured via 22 items in total under four dimensions as the employees, the community, the customers and the environment whereas the willingness to recommend organization is measured via 2 items. On the other hand, the scale of commitment to the tourism industry is composed of 15 items. The scales are in the form of 5-point Likert scale.

SAMPLING

The research population is composed of the undergraduate students studying tourism in the higher education institutions in Turkey. A sample was selected considering the financial and time-related restrictions that could occur in the project. In this regard, the students studying tourism management

from Qanakkale 18 Mart University, Sakarya University, Istanbul University, Gazi University, Nevsehir Haci Bektas Veli University were asked to participate in the research on the voluntarily basis. Personal interview method was utilized for conducting the questionnaires, and the convenience sampling method was utilized for selecting the sample. In this scope, 239 students in total were interviewed. Since 19 out of 239 questionnaires were not convenient for the analysis, they were removed, and the analysis was re-performed on the data collected from 220 participants.

DATA ANALYSIS

The method of partial least squares of structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used for testing the hypotheses developed within the scope of the project. PLS-SEM is a convenient analysis technique for especially testing the models with relatively smaller sample sizes (Hair et al., 2011). In addition, PLS-SEM is a repetitious technique which does not impose distributional assumption on the data (Fornell et al. 1996). Therefore, PLS-SEM was preferred in the present study, and the analysis was carried out via SmartPLS package program (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015).

FINDINGS

DEMOGRAPHIC FINDINGS

54% of the respondents is male and 80% is composed of third and fourth grade students. %17 of the respondents does not have any sibling whereas %70 of them has at least 2 and more siblings. The highest participation was observed with 43 students at 22 ages. On the other hand, 38 respondents at 23 ages and 37 respondents at 21 ages participated in the research. Grade point average of 75% of the respondents is above 2.00. The majority of the respondents (57%) worked in a five-star hotel. As a result of the examination of the answers by the respondents to the question regarding the number of courses which are considered to raise the consciousness of the social responsibility, it was found that 77 of the respondents took only one course, 33 of them took two courses and 34 of them took three courses, and the number of students who took all of 6 courses was only six.

STRUCTURAL MODEL

PLS-SEM is composed of two structures as the measurement model and the structural model (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, at first the measurement model, and then the structural model were examined. Within the scope of the measurement model, construct validity and reliability were tested. As a result of the data obtained from the first analysis of the measurement model, the items related to the

commitment to the tourism sector (9 statements) whose factors loadings were below .50 were removed from the analysis one by one, and the measurement model was reperformed after each step. The results of the final analysis are provided in Table 1.

As shown in Table 1, any data violating the composite construct reliability does not exist (see Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As the average variance extracted (AVE) value and the standard factor loadings exceed the recommended value .50, it can be indicated that the convergent validity is verified (Hair et al., 2009). In addition, since the square root of the AVE value of each structure in the measurement model does exceed the correlations, the discriminant validity is also verified (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In line with the figures in the measurement model, it can be indicated that the construct validity and reliability are verified. Therefore, as a second step, the structural model was examined.

Table 1. Results of Measurement Model

Dimensions	Statements	Std. Factor Loadings	<i>t</i>	CCR	AVE
Community	My hotel helps improve the quality of life in the local community	.778	24.532	.91	.624
	My hotel respects the cultural values of local community	.824	28.496		
	My hotel financially supports local charities through financial donations, sponsoring events, and/or providing goods and services	.791	25.000		
	My hotel incorporates the interests of community in business decisions	.852	43.825		
	My hotel encourages employees to be actively engaged in local community organizations	.797	23.924		
	My hotel financially supports education in community	.686	12.595		

Employee	My hotel provides a safe and healthy working environment to all employees	.835	33.573	.93	.701	
	My hotel treats our employees fairly and respectfully	.878	57.642			
	My hotel provides employees with fair and reasonable salaries	.849	41.012			
	My hotel's policies encourage a good work and life balance for employees	.794	22.133			
	My hotel incorporates the interests of employees in business decisions	.839	39.484			
	My hotel encourages employees to develop their skills and careers	.825	36.840			
Environment	My hotel incorporates environmental concerns in business decisions	.887	54.599	.94	.768	
	My hotel reports on the hotel's environmental performance	.881	42.883			
	My hotel encourages guests to reduce their environmental impact through programs and initiatives	.860	38.105			
	My hotel actively attempts to minimize the environmental impact of the hotel's activities	.898	58.656			
	My hotel actively attempts to purchase products and services which minimize environmental impacts	.854	42.108			
Customer	Customer satisfaction is highly important for my hotel	.773	22.246	.89	.612	
	One of the main principles of my hotel is to provide high-quality services and products to our customers	.851	40.804			
	My hotel is responsive to the complaints of our customers	.785	24.170			
	My hotel incorporates the interests of customers in business decisions	.786	24.147			
	My hotel respects consumer rights beyond legal requirements	.711	14.488			
CTI	I am very happy to have chosen tourism as a vocation path.	.867	41.202	.89	.579	
	I would like to work in the tourism industry after graduation.	.839	29.052			
	I would do any jobs in the tourism industry after graduation.	.636	8.188			
	I recommend a job in the tourism industry to my friends and relatives because it is very nice to be part of this industry.	.736	14.773			
	I do not plan to work in another industry other than the tourism industry.	.629	9.798			
	I see my vocational (professional) future in the tourism industry.	.824	21.849			
WRO	I recommend my hotel to friends as a good place to work.	.935	88.827	.85	.742	
	I tell my friends not to work for this hotel	.780	14.059			
Discriminant Validity	Community	Employee	Environment	Customer	CTI	WRO
Community	.790					
Employee	.592	.837				
Environment	.664	.392	.876			
Customer	.401	.565	.323	.782		
CTI	.178	.315	.147	.286	.761	

Pre-loading sampling method was used in order to determine the t values of path coefficients in the structural model, and as recommended (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009), the sub-sampling value was fixed at 5000. The essential criterion in PLS path models for the assessment of the structural model is the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the endogenous latent variables (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics 2009). Chin (1998) describes R^2 values of .67, .33, and .19 in PLS path models as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively. Accordingly, it can be indicated that the students' intention to recommend the organization is explained by the antecedent factors at the rate of 44%, and the commitment to the tourism industry is explained at the rate of 10%. Also, it is observed that

the perceptions of both employee-oriented ($\beta=.244$, $t=2.156$, $p=.012$) ($\beta=.453$, $t=6.743$, $p=.000$) and customer-oriented corporate social activities affect CTI and WRO ($\beta=.157$, $t=2.005$, $p=.045$) ($\beta=.207$, $t=3.423$, $p=.001$) in a positive and significant way. Besides, it was observed that the perceptions of the environment-oriented corporate social activities had a positive and significant effect on WRO only ($\beta=.272$, $t=3.028$, $p=.002$).

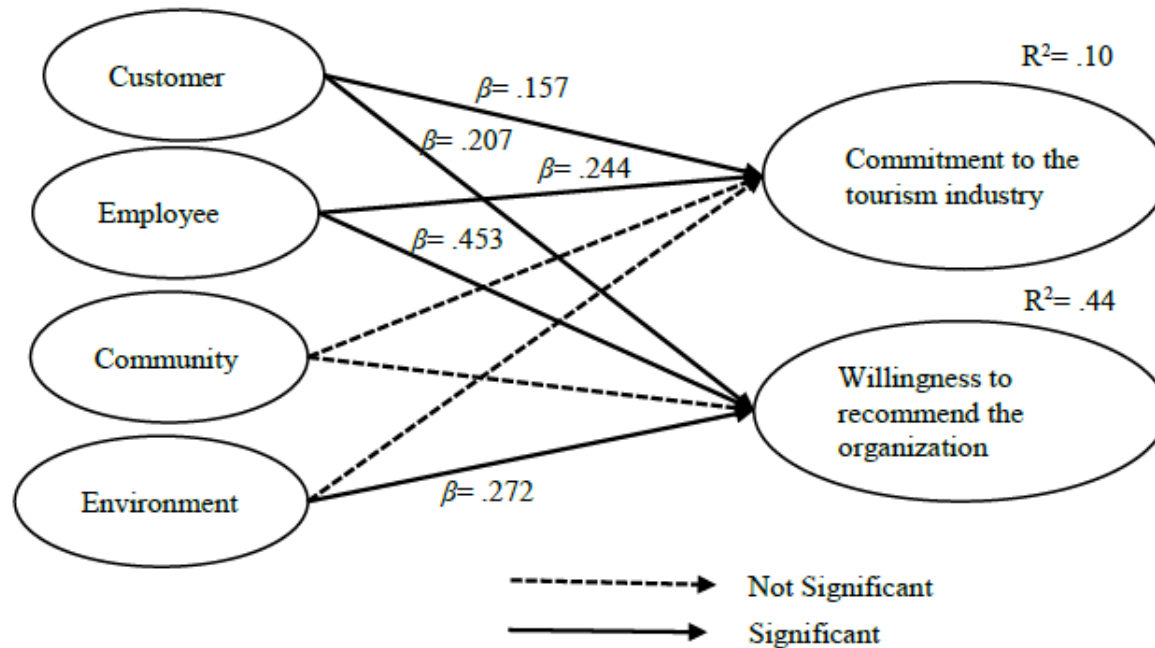


Figure 2. Result of Structural Model

According to f^2 value (Cohen, 1988), the perceptions of employee-oriented corporate social activities had a medium effect (.195) on willingness to recommend the organization intention. In addition, Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value was taken into consideration for the assessment of the predictive relevance.

For the examination of Q^2 , cross-validated redundancy value recommended by Hair et al. (2011) was utilized. The Q^2 value was obtained by using blindfolding procedure (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). As the Q^2 value is larger than zero for both CTI (SSO= 1320; SSE= 1249,557; $Q^2= .053$) and WRO (SSO= 440; SSE= 308,333; $Q^2= .299$), its explanatory latent construct exhibit predictive relevance (Henseler et al., 2009).

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the study is to examine the effect of undergraduate students' corporate social responsibility perceptions related to the hotel they work in on their willingness to recommend the organization to their friends and their commitment to the tourism industry. As a result of the literature review, it has been observed that there exists only one study on the possible outcomes of the social responsibility practices for the students specified as the qualified employees (Yılmazdoğan et al., 2015). However, it can be indicated that especially the undergraduate students are knowledgeable with these topics because the curriculums in the tourism faculties contain such courses as tourism and environment, eco-tourism, sustainable tourism. Therefore, the impacts of the social responsibility perceptions of students on the organizations and the sector were researched, and it was attempted that the findings would contribute to both the practitioners and the researchers.

As a result of PLS-SEM utilized for testing the hypotheses, it was observed that the social responsibility perception regarding the employees and customers had a positive impact on the willingness to recommend organization and commitment to the tourism industry whereas it was found out that the social responsibility perception regarding the environment had a positive impact on willingness to the recommend organization only. On the contrary, it was realized that the social responsibility perception regarding the society had an impact neither on the willingness to recommend organization nor commitment to the tourism industry. The findings of Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) and Roney and Oztin's (2007) studies revealing the impact of low-wage employment, the lack of occupational safety and irregular working hours on the students' commitment to the tourism industry and the findings of the present study show parallelism at certain points. So much so that, the employee-oriented social responsibility perceptions of students are more effective on their commitment to the tourism industry rather than other social responsibility areas (customers, environment, society). Therefore, organizations' being/not being responsible to the students who are also an employee in the organization (for instance; providing employees with fair and reasonable salaries; incorporating the interests of employees in business decisions) is considered as the most effective factor for their willingness to stay in the sector. Another factor effective on the students' commitment to the tourism industry is their perceptions on whether the hotel fulfils its social responsibilities to the customers. Hotels' not fulfilling their responsibilities to their customers decreases the students' commitment to the sector because they are aware of the fact that the industry cannot survive without tourists. Therefore, in terms of commitment to the tourism industry, employees and customers are the prior stakeholders for whom the hotel businesses should fulfil the social responsibilities. Considering the lack of qualified employee in the tourism industry, the hotel

businesses could meet the need of qualified personnel through social responsibility practices. As a matter of fact, students studying at tourism faculties can be regarded as qualified employees (Okumuş & Yagci, 2005). On the condition that the businesses pay attention to their social responsibilities for their employees, the employees would have positive opinions about the business and the industry. Nevertheless, various factors such as the wage, working hours, the perception of justice to the manager, cynical attitudes against the business should be taken into consideration. In addition, it can be expected that these factors would have a moderating effect on the causative relationship found out in the present study. For instance, in the event that the qualified employee would find the amount of wage insufficient, the determinative role of the corporate social responsibility activities targeted at the qualified employees might decrease or disappear. Therefore, the present study not only pioneers but also provides beneficial findings for the future studies to be carried out in this field.

The research findings are considered important in terms of students' willingness to recommend the hotel businesses with CSR. It was observed that the social responsibility practices targeted at the employees, the environment and the customers had a significant effect on willingness to recommend the organization whereas the social responsibility practices targeted at the community did not have any impact. This could result from that those practices could not be effectively communicated to the employees, namely, it could be the indicator of the insufficient internal communication.

The strategic importance of the corporate social responsibility practices has been increasing in the tourism sector recently. Thanks to positive feedbacks of the stakeholders regarding these practices, the businesses can gain competitive advantage over their rivals. This research is of critical importance for the hotel businesses suffering from the lack of qualified employees. The managers in the hotel businesses should not avoid of communicating their social responsibility practices to their employees. On the contrary, they should inform employees about social responsibility activities and make the employees be proud of the organization. Thus, such kind of activities will strengthen the emotional ties between the employees and the organization and ensure the positive feedbacks both for the organization and the sector.

This study has brought along new research topics thanks to its findings. At first, the reason why the social responsibility practices are important on the students' commitment to the tourism industry should be examined in detail. Moreover, the reason why community-oriented social responsibility practices do not have any impact on the commitment to the tourism industry should be researched via deep interview and focus group methods. As another research topic, the topic of the present study

can be tested in the countries with different cultural background.

Besides the significant findings, the present study has particular limitations. First, although the low effect size which would possibly occur in the present research because of the small sample size was attempted to be tolerated via PLS, the research findings should be generalized through the data to be obtained from a larger sample. On the other hand, only the effect of employees' perceptions of corporate social responsibility activities on their willingness to recommend the organization and commitment to the tourism industry was examined in the present study within the scope of the causality relationship. However, in addition to the corporate social responsibility activities, such antecedent variables as organizational cynicism (Balikcioglu & Altay, 2014), trust in management (Bogan & Dedeoglu, 2015; Bogan & Dedeoglu, 2017), ethical perceptions of employees about their managers (Celik, Dedeoglu & Inanir, 2015) and the employees' organizational silence (Tayfun, Işin, & Kugukergin, 2016) might be effective on the employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels. At this point, as the organizational commitment and job satisfaction levels are the determinative factors for willingness to recommend organization and commitment to the tourism industry (Cable & Judge, 1996), more detailed researches can be carried out by including these factors into the research model used in the present study. Not examining these factors in the present study could be regarded as a limitation in terms of explaining the factors determining the willingness to recommend organization and commitment to the tourism industry.

REFERENCES

- Aksu, A., & Koksall, C. (2005). Perceptions and attitudes of tourism students in Turkey. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(5), 436-447.
- Avci, N., & Akdemir, I. (2014). The impact of corporate social responsibility on job satisfaction in hotels. *Ege Academic Review*, 14(1), 125.
- Ayuso, S. (2006). Adoption of voluntary environmental tools for sustainable tourism: analysing the experience of Spanish hotels. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 13(4), 207-220.
- Balikcioglu, S., & Altay, H. (2014). Determining the relationship between the attitudes of organizational cynicism and commitment of the employees in hospitality businesses. *AIBU Journal of Social Sciences*, 14 (4), 133-157.
- Bhattacharya, C.B. & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, 47(1), 9-24.
- Bogan, E., & Dedeoglu, B.B. (2015). Otel işletmelerinde davranışsal duruştuk ve iş tatmini arasındaki ilişkide yonetime guvenin aracılık rolu, 16. Ulusal Turizm Kongresi (s.473-488) 12-15 Kasım 2015, Canakkale.
- Bogan, E., & Dedeoglu, B.B. (2017). The effects of perceived behavioral integrity of supervisors on employee outcomes: Moderating effects of tenure, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing &*

Management, doi: 10.1080/19368623.2017.1269711.

- Bogan, E., Kavacık, S. Z., Sanişik, M. (2016b). Potansiyel yönetici adaylarının kurumsal sosyal sorumluluğa ilişkin görüş ve algılamalarının belirlenmesi üzerine bir araştırma. *International Conference on Eurasian Economies*, Kaposvar, Hungary.
- Bogan, E., Ulama, Ş., Sanişik, M. (2016a). Zincir ve grup otel işletmelerinin kurumsal sosyal sorumluluk faaliyetlerini duyurmada web sitelerinin etkinliği üzerine bir araştırma: Türkiye örneği, *International Conference on Eurasian Economies*, Kaposvar, Hungary.
- Bohdanowicz, P. (2006). Environmental awareness and initiatives in the Swedish and Polish hotel industries— survey results. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(4), 662-682.
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person-organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 67(3), 294-311.
- Carlsen, J., Getz, D., & Ali-Knight, J. (2001). The environmental attitudes and practices of family businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(4), 281-297.
- Carroll, A. B. (1979). A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 4(4), 497-505.
- Chin, W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. In G. A. Marcoulides (Ed.) *Modern Methods for Business Research* (pp. 295-336). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Chung, L. H., & Parker, L. D. (2010, March). Managing social and environmental action and accountability in the hospitality industry: A Singapore perspective. In *Accounting Forum* (Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 46-53). Elsevier.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (Second Edition). Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cowper-Smith, A., & de Grosbois, D. (2011). The adoption of corporate social responsibility practices in the airline industry. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(1), 59-77.
- Caliskan, O., & Unusan, C. (2011). Hotel employee perceptions of corporate social responsibility and its effects on job satisfaction and intention to stay. *Anatolia: Turizm Arastirmalari Dergisi*, 22(2), 154-166.
- Celik, S., Dedeoglu, B. B., & Inanir, A. (2015). Relationship between ethical leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction at hotel organizations. *Ege Academic Review*, 15(1), 53-63.
- Erdogan, N., & Baris, E. (2007). Environmental protection programs and conservation practices of hotels in Ankara, Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 604-614.
- Farooq, O., Payaud, M., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2014). The impact of corporate social responsibility on organizational commitment: Exploring multiple mediation mechanisms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 125(4), 563-580.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J., & Bryant, B. E. (1996). The American customer satisfaction index. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(4), 7-18.

- Fu, H., Ye, B. H., & Law, R. (2014). You do well and I do well? The behavioral consequences of corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 40, 62-70.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009# *Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.)*. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139-152.
- Hair, Joseph, F., Hult, G. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The Use of Partial Least Squares Path Modeling in International Marketing. In R. R. Sinkovics, & P. N. Ghauri (Eds.), *New Challenges to International Marketing Advances in International Marketing* (s. 277-319). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.
- Inoue, Y., & Lee, S. (2011). Effects of different dimensions of corporate social responsibility on corporate financial performance in tourism-related industries. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 790-804.
- Kang, K. H., Lee, S., & Huh, C. (2010). Impacts of positive and negative corporate social responsibility activities on company performance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(1), 72-82.
- Kasim, A. (2007). Towards a wider adoption of environmental responsibility in the hotel sector. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 8(2), 25-49.
- Koyuncu, M., Fiksenbaum, L., Burke, R. J., & Demirer, H. (2008). Predictors of commitment to careers in the tourism industry. *Anatolia*, 19(2), 225-236.
- Kusluvan, S., & Kusluvan, Z. (2000). Perceptions and attitudes of undergraduate tourism students towards working in the tourism industry in Turkey. *Tourism management*, 21(3), 251-269.
- Lee, C. K., Song, H. J., Lee, H. M., Lee, S., & Bernhard, B. J. (2013). The impact of CSR on casino employees' organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation: An empirical examination of responsible gambling strategies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33, 406-415.
- Lee, S., & Heo, C. Y. (2009). Corporate social responsibility and customer satisfaction among US publicly traded hotels and restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 635-637.
- Lee, S., & Park, S. Y. (2009). Do socially responsible activities help hotels and casinos achieve their financial goals?. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 105-112.
- Lee, Y. K., Lee, K. H., & Li, D. X. (2012). The impact of CSR on relationship quality and relationship outcomes: A perspective of service employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 745-756.
- Martinez, P., Perez, A., & Rodriguez del Bosque, I. (2013). Measuring corporate social responsibility in tourism: Development and validation of an efficient measurement scale in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(4), 365-385.
- Morimoto, R., Ash, J., & Hope, C. (2005). Corporate social responsibility audit: From theory to practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 62(4), 315-325.
- Okumus, F., & Yagci, O. (2006). Tourism higher education in Turkey. *Journal of teaching in travel*

& tourism, 5(1- 2), 89-116.

- Othman, N. Z. & Hemdi, M. A. (2015). Predictors of guest retention: Investigating the role of hotel's corporate social responsibility activities and brand image. In Radzi, S. M., Sumarjan, N., Chik, C. T., Zahari, M. S. M., Mohi, Z., Bakhtiar, M. F. S. & Anuar, F. I. (Eds.) *Theory and Practice in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, (p. 139- 144), Taylor-Francis Group, London.
- Park, S. Y., & E. Levy, S. (2014). Corporate social responsibility: perspectives of hotel frontline employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(3), 332-348.
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., Becker, J.-M. (2015). SmartPLS 3. Boenningstedt: SmartPLS GmbH, Retrieved from <http://www.smartpls.com>.
- Roney, S. A., & Oztin, P. (2007). Career perceptions of undergraduate tourism students: A case study in Turkey. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 6(1), 4-17.
- Tayfun, A., Alper, I. ş. I. N., & Kugukergin, K. G. (2016). Orgutsel sessizligin iş tatmini ve orgutsel baglilik üzerindeki belirleyici rolü. *Gazi Universitesi Turizm Fakultesi Dergisi*, 35-49.
- Tenenhaus, M., Vinzi, V. E., Chatelin, Y. M., & Lauro, C. (2005). PLS path modeling. *Computational statistics & data analysis*, 48(1), 159-205.
- Wang, C. J. (2014). Do ethical and sustainable practices matter? Effects of corporate citizenship on business performance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(6), 930-947.
- Yeung, S. (2004). Hospitality ethics curriculum: an industry perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(4), 253-262.
- Yilmazdogan, O. C., Secilmis, C., & Cicek, D. (2015). The effect of corporate social responsibility (CSR) perception on tourism students' intention to work in sector. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, 1340-1346.
- Zientara, P., Kujawski, L., & Bohdanowicz-Godfrey, P. (2015). Corporate social responsibility and employee attitudes: evidence from a study of Polish hotel employees. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(6), 859-880.

MANAGING CRISES IN SMHEs: THE CASE OF TURKEY

Ismail Kizilirmak

Gurel Cetin

Pelin Nasöz

Sema Kucukali

Mehtap Balik

Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management Dept., Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Hospitality is one of the fastest growing industries but it is also very sensitive to crises. Because of their limited finances, inventory, know-how and higher variable costs SMHEs (Small and Medium Sized Hospitality Enterprises) are more vulnerable to crises. This study aims to explore crises perceptions of SMHEs, their thoughts about types and characteristics of crises, and their responses as possible recovery measures in Turkey. Analysing crises in Turkey from the perspectives of SMHEs are important as they make a significant part of the industry and the country has been encountering various serious crises with different origins. In-depth interviews with eight SMHE executives were conducted and based on analysis of transcribed data their respondents were categorized under; *crises perceptions*, *challenges with crises*, *counter crises measures*, *positive effects of crises*, and *recovery indicators from crises* themes.

Key Words: SMHEs, small hotels, boutique hotels, crises, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

A crisis is defined as an unexpected, disruptive situation that threatens the existing business assumptions (Avci et al., 2011). Hospitality industry because of large fixed costs is easily influenced by crises and fluctuations in demand. Particularly SMHEs with limited inventory, know-how and finances are more vulnerable to crises. Terrorism, natural disasters, economic downturns and political conflicts are major types of crises in the tourism industry. Despite the importance of tourism in her economy, Turkey is one of the countries faced continuous crises (Yarcan, 2007). The country recently has been subject to various terrorist attacks, exchange rate fluctuations and experienced political problems with Russia, Syria, Iran and EU besides internal social unrest. Eventually, all these

consecutive incidents have significantly weakened the tourism industry.

Although Turkish tourism industry went through several environmental, political, economic crises and terrorist attacks in its brief tourism history, it succeeded to become one of the major receiving countries. Turkey ranked as the 6th in the World, considering international arrivals (UNWTO, 2016). Despite tourism industry has survived various external crises in the past, recent bundle of crises in Turkey is considered to be the most serious in the history of the country. Particularly from 2015 onwards, frequent acts of terror committed by various different terror organizations, refugee crises, international political tensions with Russia, Syria and European Union (Cankurtaran & Cetin, 2016) and most importantly the attempted coup in July, 2016, resulted in sharp decreases in international tourism arrivals.

These incidents have once again proved that crisis management practices in the industry are crucial. For example, in Turkey the international tourism demand suffered decreases up-to 31% in volume and a significant decline in receipts (TurkStat, 2016). Effects of these crises hit also small hotels since these suppliers lack the facilities (e.g. meeting rooms) to serve corporate clients and groups business and are dependent on foreign individual leisure travellers. Hence, the impacts were severe on SMHEs which make up a significant part of Turkish accommodation capacity. Many of these establishments could not cope with continuous crises and went out of business within the past two years.

In order to determine the antecedents, components and impacts of recent crises, its comparison with past crises, to identify strategies used to deal with the crises, possible solutions, and the duration of crises, this study is based on in-depth interviews with SMHE executives. If executives know the signs of the crises, their severity and possible alternative actions, they would be better prepared for the consequences, develop crises plans and recover in a shorter time with minimum damage. Thus the paper would offer valuable findings to detect and minimize the impacts of crises and its management in hospitality industry particularly on SMHEs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

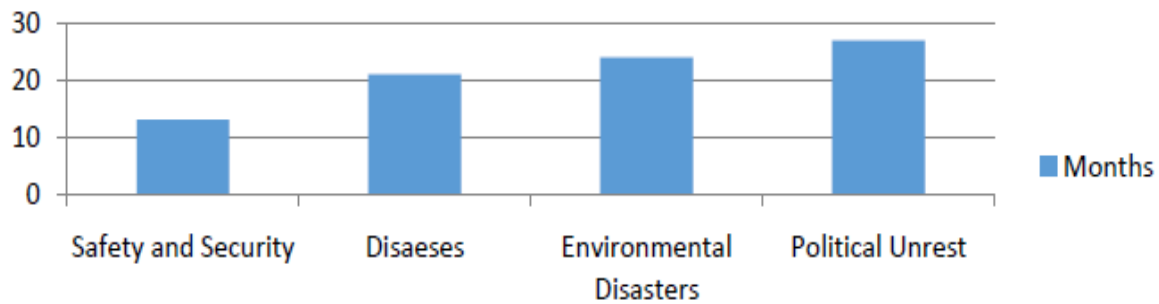
Crises can be defined as an unexpected event that has the potential to interfere with the long term operations of an organization (Campo et al., 2014). In recent years, increasing number of terrorist attacks, political unrest, natural disasters, epidemics and other events affect tourism movements (Dogru et al., 2017; Kozak et al., 2007; Paraskevas et al., 2013). And because the impacts of these

events on demand are to a large extent unpredictable; risk and crises management has become an important issue for all stakeholders in tourism industry. With globalization and growth of international tourism, these events also tend to affect a broader area rather than the specific region that the crises originated.

Risk and crises management strategies are offered as solutions to minimize the effects of the crises. In tourism contexts these strategies refer to the implementation of processes directed towards predicting and managing the adverse effects of crises and disasters, addressing importance of improvements in systems and culture of an organization. Tourism is highly vulnerable to internal and external shocks, economic downturns, natural disasters, epidemic diseases and international conflicts. Particularly after 9/11 the physical safety has become a major concern for travellers. Dwyer and Kim (2003) also discuss safety and security as a critical qualifying determinant of destination competitiveness. Political unrest, social instability, civil riots, probability of terrorism, crime rates, record of transportation safety, corruption of administrative services, quality of sanitation, prevalence of disease outbreak, availability and reliability of medical services and so on are also listed as critical elements of destination safety (Aksu et al., 2017; Crofts, 1996; Issa et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2016).

The impact of these events therefore might be immediate and long-lasting depending on type of crises, its intensity, whether tourists were targeted or affected, which locations are involved, the extend of infra-structural damage, time of the year, the scale and extend of media coverage, travel warnings issued and so on. Contrary to major belief acts of terror has a relatively short term impact whereas political unrest has a much more gradual impact and often lasts for a longer time. Safety and political stability become prerequisites for tourism (ITB, 2015). Figure 1 displays recovery duration for various types of crises.

Figure 1. Time to recover from crises in tourism.



Source: ITB, 2015.

Depending of the severity of the crises destinations might experience sharp declines in arrivals and receipts. Egypt for instance lost %8 of international tourism receipts after Sharm el Sheikh (2005) and Dahab (2006) attacks in 2006. After Arab Spring during 2011 the arrivals dropped from 14 million to 9 million. Yet, although Egypt recovered to 11,5 million arrivals in 2012, because of political unrest the volume of international arrivals once more dropped to 9,5 million in 2013. During Lebanon and Israeli war, arrivals to Lebanon also dropped by 17%. In Ukraine because of the political conflicts with Russia in 2008, the country experienced a 18% decrease in arrivals (WTTC, 2015). Usually competition is positively affected by the crises; Turkey, Greece and Cyprus as substitute destinations benefited from crises in Egypt, Israel, Lebanon and Jordan in the 90s. Yet there are some instances where countries are perceived as complimentary. For example, because of the political unrest in Sri Lanka its ad on destination Maldives were also negatively affected. Forest fires in Indonesia in 2015 also affected arrivals to Malaysia.

Thus because the impacts of crises are international and unpredictable, countries should incorporate crises management structures into their planning especially considering image building, assurance, safety and recovery incentives for the industry. A crises management plan and a task force to deal with potential crises are required at NTO and DMO levels. Minimizing losses, ensuring safety and a convenient return home and limiting negative media presence, effective search and rescue efforts, provision of safe shelter for tourists, tightening security in touristic areas are other immediate actions to be considered. In the long term image recovery efforts are also required and PR and media activities gain importance at the destination level (Cetin, 2014). Yet, there are other stakeholders affected by crises other than tourists; locals and tourism industry should also be supplied with recovery options.

One of the major stakeholders in tourist destinations is the hospitality industry. There are various studies that look into different crisis and their impact on hotels. Kimes (2009) found that hospitality industry is faced with drops in occupancy, ADR and RevPAR during and after crises. Reduced occupancy, rates, higher costs and less profits, fewer employees and postponing renovation and investments are usual impacts of crises in hospitality (Okumus & Karamustafa, 2005). Yet there are also studies that report contrary findings. For example, del mar Alonso-Almeida and Bremser (2013) explored the impact of 2008 financial crisis on hotels in Madrid and found increasing quality, marketing and branding efforts, and guest loyalty might be more suitable strategies than retrenchment measures. The impacts of crises might also change depending on its characteristics. For example, Enz et al. (2011) found the impact of 2008 financial crises had a more gradual and long-term impact than the 9/11 on hospitality industry in USA. Turkey's hospitality industry might be considered to be dependent on incoming tourism more than local demand (Sengel et al., 2015). Therefore, a larger impact would be expected.

Branded and larger hotels are considered more likely to maintain their positions during crises (Barsky & Nash, 2008). Hence, crises bring about more serious challenges particularly for SMHEs. SMHEs are defined as “*small independent hotels usually run by local small entrepreneurs with limited investment capabilities*” (Cetin et. al. 2016). Most independent hotels are SMHEs and different than their branded and larger contestants; they lack various skills, finances and organizational structure to cope with the impacts of crisis. They are more vulnerable to unpredictable and long term decreases in demand. SMHEs have much less staff and room number compared to large hotels (Buhalis & Main, 1998) and thus a higher variable cost. They also have different organizational structures, financial resources, management strategies, HR skills, service culture (Seilov, 2015) and physical facilities. Their strength however stems from customized services in a warm service environment. SMHEs also make destination development more sustainable. Thus for the survival of these hotels, their crises management skills, abilities and resources are critical.

METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this study is to explore how SHMEs perceive and are affected from various crises, identify activities performed to manage risks and crises management strategies as well as measures to reduce negative impacts of crises. General information about the impacts of crises (e.g. types of crises, comparison about their impact, length) will also be sought. In order to reach this aim a qualitative approach was adopted. So far, eight interviews with SMHE executives were conducted

between Jan-Feb, 2017. Further interviews are also planned until data saturates and additional interviews provide no new insight.

The interviews consisted of three main sections. In the first section participants were asked about their personal profile and positions. Then characteristics of the hotels they represent, years in operation, number of rooms, number of employees and OTA usage were enquired. Finally, on the third section respondents were asked more specific questions concerning crises and crises management and survival strategies. Definition, characteristics, classification and components of crises; their positive and negative impacts, management of crises, crises recovery strategies; and duration of crises were also explored.

Respondents were recruited based on a list of members of Small Hotel Association in Istanbul, Turkey. A selection criteria was also set for SMHEs, they required to have less than 50 rooms, only one executive from each SMHE was consulted. A snowball technique was also adopted to identify key informants who are recognized as experienced and knowledgeable about the past crises and how to cope with them. Appointments were made with SMHE executives based on their availability. Interviews were conducted in their offices and hotel lobbies. Interviews lasted 94 minutes on the average, were digitally recorded with the consent of participants and transcribed verbatim after each interview.

Studying hotels in Turkey and their crises management strategies is important as the country has experienced various serious and different types of crises in the past which had significant impacts on tourism industry. All hotels were located in urban settings mainly the old city (Sultanahmet) of Istanbul. Since this area is protected with building permits there are only a few hotels that do not fit into SMHE description criteria of less than 50 rooms. Hence a more homogenous response set could be achieved.

FINDINGS

Six of the executives were male, they had an average tourism experience of 12 years, they all had a university degree. The SMHEs they work for had 21 rooms on the average and the hotels were 11 years old on the average. After content analysis of the transcriptions, the responses of SMHE executives were divided under five categories as crises perceptions, challenges with crises, counter crises measures, positive effects of crises, *and* recovery indicators from crises.

Crises Perceptions

Respondents were likely to refer to crises in terms of time periods rather than specific events, as a variety of different crises happened at the same time in Turkey. For example, during 2015 internal and external political events, exchange rate fluctuations, and a number of terrorist attacks happened at the same time and it is hard to identify which event had an impact on demand to what extent. They refer to last crises as the 2015 crises, which extended into 2016. Therefore, executives perceive crises as time lapses between when demand falls and recovers. They also refer to 2007 economic downturn as 2009 crisis as the industry felt the domino effect two years later rather than its beginning.

Because of their frequency; terror attacks of various terror organizations, serious international political issues (e.g. shoot down of Russian aircraft) that had a potential to turn into an armed conflict; the security and safety related crises are perceived as the most damaging to the industry. Some executives remarked crises as a part of their daily operation. R2 remarked:

“We are in continuous crises for the past three years and even for our loyal clients the safety perceptions have changed. The official travel warnings are also very influential.”

The Gulf crisis was considered as the most serious crises until 2015 crisis. Yet even that was perceived as much easier to recover. An owner of five hotels R7 mentioned “I am in this business for the past 50 years, we have seen nothing like this. It is very hard to stay in business under these conditions. There is a limit that we can stand to this.”

A crisis is also observed to have immediate effect that first reflects itself in occupancies than price reductions. R3 referred to the current crisis as a heart attack. “Our customers travel to relax, we do not serve business travellers. If there is not safety perception, relaxing is not possible. ...If this is not treated well, we will die.”

“In the past the impact of a terror event (e.g. synagogue bombings) were temporary, demand was used to recover in 20 days. But now every month there is an issue, and this created a sticky image as to the safety. Other countries have also suffered from terror events, but these were one time events, here it is pretty much turned out to be continuous. There have been 10 bombings in 11 months (R5).”

Besides the regional issues more domestic events such as power surges were also mentions as crises. Thus every unexpected event affecting daily operations and that can not be easily removed were perceived as crises. Some respondents also made a distinction between crises and stated economic

and political crises as more predictable.

Challenges with Crises

In order to accelerate recovery and mitigate the impacts of crises, governments' role was perceived to be crucial. Respondents felt helpless as most crises recovery measures needed government and NTO involvement. Yet the NTO and its representative offices in each province were perceived to be inefficient, unskilled and underperforming.

One of the major threats mentioned by executives on crises is the price wars, because of competition on price, to utilize excess inventory, the prices drop more than the demand. Which create customer surplus. Some customers trade down to a lower price although they would reserve at a higher rate. Decreasing prices is also very contagious (Cetin et al., 2016). Competition also matches the price reductions immediately and the whole market end up with lower price and none actually benefit from incremental demand because there is none.

Financial struggles were also mentioned "the rents increased parallel to increased demand until 2015. Now the demand fall by 50% but the rents are the same. We are not able to pay the current amount with this level of business. Another issue is that the rents are paid in Euro and USD, both of these currencies are increased their value by at least 50% against TL within the last year (R1)."

Respondents were also asked about the impact of last crises on occupancy and revenues. Average decrease in revenues (65%) was reported to be harsher than occupancy (40%). This was supported by R4 "... looking at occupancy is not realistic, we are selling for ¹/_A of the regular rate." Yet most of the participants are optimistic about the future believing that the business already hit the bottom and cannot get worse. "It will only recover in the future (R3)."

Positive Effects of Crises

Respondents were also asked about whether there was any positive impact of crises. More efficient operations, elimination of unprofessional hotels and sharing economy inventory in the destination were perceived as positive impacts. For example R1 stated:

"The only good thing is that unprofessional hotels have been eliminated. Everyone with money used to open hotels, without the necessary expertise."

R3 also referred to the impact on sharing economy: "...the unregistered beds (sharing economy) are perceived as more risky, and they are also pretty much eliminated. Another good think is that we learned our inefficiencies now we are more productive."

Counter Crises Measures

SMHEs take various measures to cope with crises usually in the form of cost cutting. Decreasing the number of employees is one of the immediate responses. Hotels laid off 25-60 % of their employees during the crises. Consequently, they also closed down some of their services (e.g. restaurants, live music) as well. Offering unpaid leave for the staff, increasing overtime, outsourcing some services (e.g. bakery in cafeteria) were also mentioned as solutions.

Some services (e.g. live flowers in rooms) have been completely eliminated. Closing sections of the building to save energy, cutting costs by using lower quality material (e.g. toilet paper), restructuring bank loans, postponing investments and renovation expenses were mentioned as other crises management strategies. Yet, managers mentioned it is important to refrain from measures that would affect quality perceptions as much as possible.

Contrary to what is supported in literature (e.g., Kimes, 2009; Okumus et al., 2005) some managers (R1, R2 and R6) also eliminated some marketing activities including attending to major travel trade fairs such as ITB and WTM. Less costly marketing activities such as sales calls to local travel trade, diversifying online distribution channels and reputation management in social media were however more frequent marketing activities. Various innovative product development strategies were also applied to generate more revenue for example although majority of hotels sell on BB in the region, R2 for example started to offer *Room Only* prices, rather than decreasing room rates. R6 also started catering business to utilize hotels access F&B production capacity.

"... we started delivery service from our restaurant and customized the menu to attract local people. We are also starting lunch catering service for surrounding business."

Recovery Indicators from Crises

Respondents believed the image of the destination should change in order to start recovering from the current crises. Safety perceptions were considered as significant for the recovery in demand, particularly ISIS targeting tourist areas were considered as still a major threat. R4 surmised as follows;

“We did not expect the impacts to be this intense and continuous. We were used to recover very quickly in months usually but this crisis began at the end of 2015 and still here with full effect, because whenever the effects of the previous incident get weaker another event happens.”

Extending lead times for reservations, a more diversified market from different originating countries, increasing visitor numbers in nearby landmark attractions (e.g. Hagia Sophia) and improving room rates were mentioned as clues that might signal the diminishing effect of crises. Talking about the importance of expansion in reservation lead time R7 mentioned:

“When we start receiving reservations for six months from now instead of next week, that might be an important indicator that we are recovering.”

Yet the minimum recovery period is perceived to be three months (R2) some perceive the earliest recovery to be in a years time (R4, R6).

“I cannot really think of a short term recovery; our target market make their plans months in advance, tour operators also plan their operations years in advance. To be included in their collateral again we need to wait for at least six more months without any incident. They do not want to take risks (R6).”

A more effective international policy, less conflicts and a peaceful environment was also considered as prerequisites for recovery.

CONCLUSION

SMHEs which make up an important part of hospitality industry lack various resources, finances, and know-how to cope with various crises. Larger branded hotels because they have a more diversified market, various services and facilities to generate extra revenue (e.g. SPA), ability to financially survive for a longer time and a loyal customer base are able to cope with fluctuations in demand better. In Turkey particularly in recent years the increasing number and severity of crises affected SMHEs and many SMHEs were closed down because of lack of demand and decrease in revenues. This paper aimed to explore crises perceptions of SMHEs, their survival measures and their expectations about a possible timing of recovery.

SMHEs recognized the important role of the government in both survival and image recovery of the destination. Decreasing prices, occupancy and revenues, inability to pay rents and loans to banks were major outcomes of the crises. Solutions to crises emerge in the form of cost cutting measures,

various cost effective marketing activities and product development strategies. Elimination of unprofessional businesses and a more efficient operation were perceived as positive outcomes of crises. And a long term recovery in the form of extending reservation lead times, and numbers is expected. A loyal customer base seems to be crucial; older hotels with better quality ratings seems to maintain their position better than new hotels or hotels with lower quality ratings.

There are also some spatial limitations to this study. Every small hotel is unique and they might have different needs. For example, it is hard to generalize this study to SMHEs located in sun-lust destinations. SMHEs in Istanbul cater for cultural tourists, who plan well in advance and are less likely to substitute destinations. Sunlust destination would be more vulnerable to crises because it is easier to substitute them. Exploring SMHEs located in various other international destinations, would also be objectives of future studies. A comparison among different sizes and brands of hospitality facilities might also reveal interesting results about perception of and strategies to cope with crises.

REFERENCES

- Aksu, A., Ugar, O., & Kiliçarslan, D. (2017). Golf Tourism: A Research Profile and Security Perceptions in Belek, Antalya, Turkey. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 6(12), 01-12.
- Avci, U., Madanoglu, M., & Okumus, F. (2011). Strategic orientation and performance of tourism firms: Evidence from a developing country. *Tourism Management*, 32(1), 147-157.
- Barsky, J., & Nash, L. (2008). Are luxury hotels recession proof? *Hotel & Motel Management* (June 2008), p. 14
- Buhalis, D., & Main, H. (1998). Information technology in peripheral small and medium hospitality enterprises: strategic analysis and critical factors. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 10(5), 198-202.
- Campo, S., M. D[^]az, A., & J. Yague, M. (2014). Hotel innovation and performance in times of crisis. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(8), 1292-1311.
- Cankurtaran, B. S., & Cetin, G. (2016). Ideology, foreign policy and tourism: The case of Turkey-Middle East relations. *Journal of Turcologia*, 7, 45-64.
- Cetin, G. (2014). Sustaining Tourism Development Through City Tax: The case of Istanbul. *E-review of Tourism Research*, 11, 26-41.
- Cetin, G., Demirgüç, T., & Bilgihan, A. (2016). Meeting revenue management challenges: Knowledge, skills and abilities. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 57, 132-142.
- Crotts, J. C. (1996). Theoretical perspectives on tourist criminal victimisation. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 7(1), 2-9.
- del Mar Alonso-Almeida, M., & Bremser, K. (2013). Strategic responses of the Spanish hospitality sector to the financial crisis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 141-148.

- Dogru, T., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Crouch, G. I. (2017). Remodeling international tourism demand: Old theory and new evidence. *Tourism Management*, 60, 47-55.
- Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination competitiveness: determinants and indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(5), 369-414.
- Enz, C.A., Kosova, R., & Lomanno, M. (2011). The impact of terrorism and economic shocks on U.S. hotels. Cornell Hospitality Report, February, pp. 4-17.
- Issa, I. A., & Altinay, L. (2006). Impacts of political instability on tourism planning and development: the case of Lebanon. *Tourism Economics*, 12(3), 361-381.
- ITB. (2015). ITB World Travel Trends Report. Berlin: Messe Berlin.
- Kim, H., Schroeder, A., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2016). Does Culture Influence Risk Perceptions?. *Tourism Review International*, 20(1), 11-28.
- Kimes, S.E., 2009. Hotel Revenue Management in an Economic Downturn: Results of an International Study (No. 12). Cornell University, School of Hotel Administration, Ithaca, NY.
- Kozak, M., Crotts, J. C., & Law, R. (2007). The impact of the perception of risk on international travellers. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9(4), 233-242.
- Okumus, F., Altinay, M., & Arasli, H. (2005). The impact of Turkey's economic crisis of February 2001 on the tourism industry in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 95-104.
- Okumus, F., & Karamustafa, K. (2005). Impact of an economic crisis evidence from Turkey. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 942-961.
- Paraskevas, A., Altinay, L., McLean, J., & Cooper, C. (2013). Crisis knowledge in tourism: Types, flows and governance. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, 130-152.
- Seilov, G. A. (2015). Does the adoption of customer and competitor orientations make small hospitality businesses more entrepreneurial? Evidence from Kazakhstan. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(1), 71-86.
- Sengel, T., Karagoz, A., Cetin, G., Dincer, F. I., Ertugral, S. M., & Balik, M. (2015). Tourists' approach to local food. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 195, 429-437.
- TurkStat. (2016). Statistics. Online: <http://www.tuik.gov.tr/UstMenu.do?metod=temelist>. Accessed on 06. Feb. 2017.
- WTTC. (2015). Economic Impact Analysis. Online: <http://www.wttc.org/research/economic-research/economic-impact-analysis/>. Accessed on 02 Feb. 2017.
- Yarcan, S. (2007). Coping with continuous crises: The case of Turkish inbound tourism. *Middle Eastern Studies*, 43(5), 779-794.

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES AT FIVE-STAR HOTELS IN KYRENIA, CYPRUS: A DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS APPROACH

Mahmoud Golabi
Gokhan Izbirak

Eastern Mediterranean University/Department of Industrial Engineering, Famagusta, Via Mersin
10, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Since human resources play a salient role in enhancing the competitive advantage and organizations' achievement, employee's performance evaluation is considered as a mandatory task in any organization. In this study, data envelopment analysis (DEA) is used to evaluate the employee's performance at five-star hotels in Kyrenia. DEA provides a theoretical framework for performance appraisal and efficiency measurement by using linear programming models. The inputs of proposed DEA model are physical work condition, salary, education, job security, and workload. The outputs are considered as organizational commitment, turnover, motivation, and job satisfaction. The proposed mathematical model is solved by GAMS software.

Key Words: Performance evaluation, Human resource, Data envelopment analysis, GAMS

1 . INTRODUCTION

As a multiple-criteria technique for decision making and performance evaluation, data envelopment analysis (DEA) is one of the novel approaches which is widely utilized in analyzing the efficiency and performance of human resources. In this method, based on available data and by means of multiple-input and multiple-output variables, the efficiency of employees or organizational units is calculated. In addition to recognizing the efficient and inefficient units, DEA is able to determine the reasons for the inefficiency by using the sensitivity analysis. DEA is a non-parametric method on the basis of mathematical programming. This method evaluates the analogous decision making units by using multiple inputs and multiple outputs. It is incontrovertible that the concept of performance is too extensive to be studied just based on productivity, efficiency, and effectiveness criteria (Cooke, 2001). In recent years, the social scientists have made several attempts to find a relationship between the human resource management and the performance of an organization. Therefore, it is not exaggerating to consider

the analysis of human resource management's effect on the organizational performance as a serious challenge for managers. One of the rampant methods to analyze the performance is the application of statistical models such as structural equation models, regression models, and correlation models (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Bacon, 2003; Chu, 2002; Crompton & Duray, 1985; Eskildsen & Kristensen, 2006; Hanson, 1992; Matzler, Sauerwein, & Heischmidt, 2003). There are a myriad number of human resource management factors which influence the performance of an organization such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, motivation, turnover, etc. Enhancing the job satisfaction, motivation, organizational commitment (Wall & Wood, 2005; Walton, 1985), and alleviating the turnover rate may result in improving the performance of an organization (Zacharatos, Sandy Hershcovis, Turner, & Barling, 2007).

On the premise that one with higher performance is better than others, human resource management scientists have determined the high level of performance. Adverse to this assumption, in data envelopment analysis approach the high performance does not necessarily indicate the high efficiency. As a result, DEA has become an approach that is used in a wide variety of areas to determine the technically efficient units (Monika & Mariana, 2015).

In this paper, based on the DEA approach the efficiency of human resources' performance of five-star hotels in Kyrenia is investigated. The inputs of this study are physical work condition, salary, education, job security, and workload. The outputs are considered as the organizational commitment, turnover, motivation, and job satisfaction. Since turnover negatively affects the employees' performance, it is considered as an input factor

1 . 1 . 1 . JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction reflects one's attitude toward his/her job . Here the job could be interpreted as a general concept or its specific aspects like the colleagues, pay or working conditions (Lu, While, & Louise Barriball, 2005). Job satisfaction depends on a myriad number of organizational factors ranging from leadership to job design (Spector, 1 997). It has been proved that job satisfaction is directly related to organizational commitment and turnover (Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, & Andy Wood, 2007; Brown & Peterson, 1994; Netemeyer, Johnston, & Burton, 1990).

1 . 1 . 2 . ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organizational commitment is another factor of paramount importance in organizational behavior. This factor could be defined as the power of the feeling responsibility that one has towards the

mission of the organization (Guleryuz, Guney, Aydin, & Aşan, 2008). In other words, organizational commitment could be interpreted as the positive and negative beliefs of employees about the organization and their desire to continue involvement in it (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Generally, organizational commitment is comprised of three main factors: belief to organizational values, the desire to make more attempts for the organization, and the severe desire to continue involvement in the organization.

TURNOVER

Turnover is the decision or the attempt made by an employee to abandon the organization. Turnover includes a wide spectrum of cases. Compulsory leave refers to the cases that are not under the control of the organization such as retirement, leave due to marriage, education, changing the residency and etc. Voluntary leave refers to the controllable cases that traditionally occur as the result of existing situations of an organization (Maertz & Campion, 1998). Turnover will cause huge costs for the organization. Since the costs of hiring, retention, and training are increased, the productivity of the organization will be alleviated as the result of the turnover. Also, turnover increases the schisms among the employees (Chye Koh & Boo, 2004).

MOTIVATION

Motivation is a dynamic power that directs the behavior of a person toward the pre-defined goals. In human resource management, motivation is a process which energizes an employee to achieve certain purposes. The motivations are goal-oriented and change an employee's desire to do the best possible job or to exert the maximum effort to perform the assigned tasks (Randhawa, 2006). The discernment, detection and implementation of motivation are incumbent on organizations, managers, and supervisors. The significance of motivation arises from its key role in employees' performance and the success or failure of the organization (Kim, 2006).

DATA ENVELOPMENT ANALYSIS (DEA)

Data envelopment analysis is a mathematical approach that is widely used to evaluate the efficiency of decision making units (DMUs) by considering multiple inputs and multiple outputs. Due to possessing a prominent role in performance evaluation, measuring the efficiency has been taken into consideration by a plethora of researchers. In 1957, Farrell applied a method that is commonly used in engineering science to measure the efficiency of a manufacturing unit. The applied model

was single-input and single-output (Forsund & Sarafoglou, 2002). Charnes, Cooper, and Rhodes expanded the model of Farrell and presented a pattern which could measure the efficiency by considering multiple inputs and multiple outputs. This model was called the data envelopment analysis and for the first time, it was used in the Ph.D. thesis of Edward Rhodes under the supervision of Cooper (Cooper, Seiford, & Zhu, 2011). The epithet of this model was CCR which is the abbreviation of the names of designers. The main purpose of CCR model is to measure the relative efficiency of organizational units like the schools, hospitals, bank branches, hotels, and etc.

METHODOLOGY

The human resource researchers have tried to prove the existence of a basic relationship between the appropriate human resource policies and the performance of an organization. Also, they have scrutinized the concordance of these policies and the organizational strategies. This concordance is supposed to lead to the enhancement of the organization's performance. Based on the results of previous studies, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, motivation, and turnover are the most prominent human resource factors that influence the performance of an organization. Thus, it is realistic to utilize these factors in evaluating the organization's performance. In this paper, a data envelopment approach is applied to evaluate the performance of the employees working in five-star hotels of Kyrenia. The inputs of proposed DEA model are physical work condition, salary, education, job security, and workload. The outputs are considered as organizational commitment, turnover, motivation, and job satisfaction. Since turnover negatively affects the employees' performance, it is considered as an input factor. Figure 1 depicts the proposed model schematically.

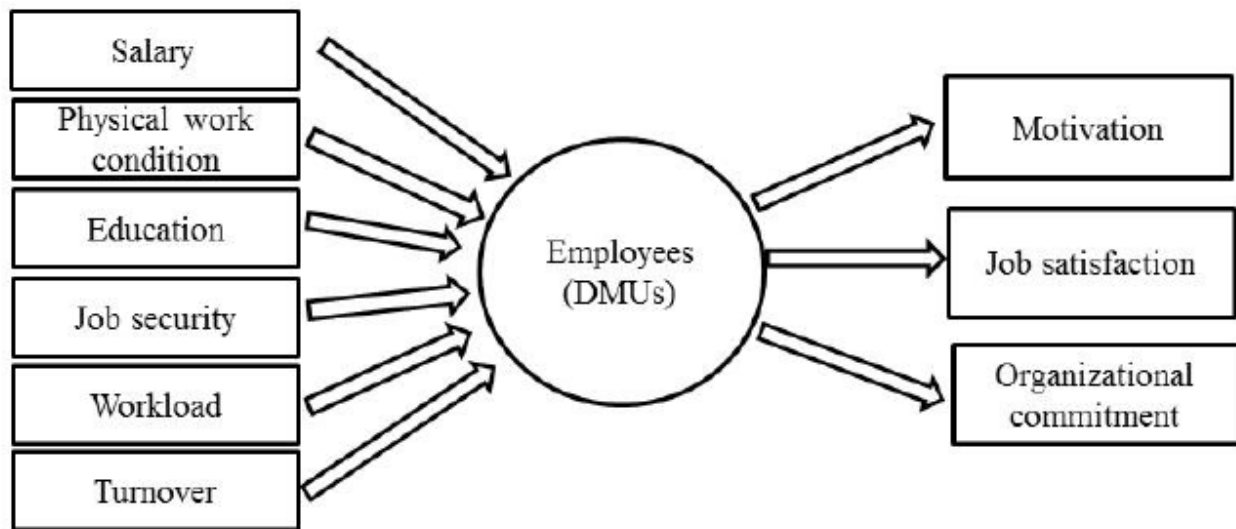


Figure 1: The inputs and outputs of applied DEA model

In this study, the Hackman and Oldham job characteristics model is utilized to measure the motivation. According to this model, the motivating potential score (MPS) of employees could be measured through measuring the task identity, feedback, job prominence, autonomy, and skill variety (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The applied model is according to Eq. (1).

$$MPS = \frac{\text{Task identity} + \text{Skill variety} + \text{Job prominence}}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback} \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

In order to measure the job satisfaction, the study of Dr. Paul E. Spector which has been done at the University of Florida to evaluate the employees' attitude toward their job, is applied (Spector, 1985). According to this study, nine subsidiary criteria including the salary, promotion, supervision, non-pecuniary remunerations, operational procedures, colleagues, job nature, incentive remunerations, and communication are considered. The job satisfaction score is calculated based on a five-point Likert scale.

The job commitment is measured by proposing questions about the desire of staff to exert their attempts in the organization, their beliefs about the organization goals and missions and their willing to continue their involvement in the organization. As one of the essential factors affecting the performance of employees, turnover is measured by asking questions about the desire of staff to abandon the organization.

In this research, 40 employees of five-star hotels located in Kyrenia, including the Cratos hotel, Merit Crystal Cove hotel, and Merit Royal hotel have been taken into consideration. The considered staff could be categorized as managers, supervisors, and normal staff. Each employee is supposed to be a

decision-making unit.

MODEL FORMULATION

The parameters, sets and variables of the proposed DEA model are:

- D : The set of inputs
- R : The set of outputs
- J : The set of decision-making units
- ε : A very small number
- θ_o : The efficiency measure of the employee which is under consideration
- λ_j : The reference weight pertinent to employee j ($j \in J$)
- s_i : The slack variables of input i ($i \in D$)
- t_r : The surplus variables of output r ($r \in R$)
- x_{ij} : The parameter showing the i th input value pertinent to j th employee ($i \in D$, $j \in J$)
- y_{rj} : The parameter showing the r th output value pertinent to j th employee ($r \in R$, $j \in J$)
- x_{io} : The parameter showing the i th input value pertinent to the employee which is under consideration ($i \in D$)
- y_{ro} : The parameter showing the r th output value pertinent to the employee which is under consideration ($r \in R$)

Considering the mentioned symbols, the proposed mathematical model is:

$$\text{Min } \theta_o - \varepsilon(\sum_D s_i + \sum_R t_r) \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

Subject to:

$$\theta x_{io} = \sum_D x_{ij} \lambda_j + s_i \quad \forall i \in D \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

$$y_{ro} = \sum_D y_{rj} \lambda_j - t_r \quad \forall r \in R \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

$$s_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i \in D \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

$$t_r \geq 0 \quad \forall r \in R \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

$$\lambda_j \geq 0 \quad \forall j \in J \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

$$\theta \text{ free in sign} \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

In order to solve the developed DEA model, the general algebraic modeling system (GAMS) which is an optimization compiler to solve the linear and non-linear mathematical models is used.

NUMERICAL RESULTS

In this study, by means of DEA, the efficiency of employees' performance is measured and the results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

The results of proposed DEA model

DMU No.	Efficiency	DMU No.	Efficiency	DMU No.	Efficiency	DMU No.	Efficiency
1	0.738	11	0.876	21	0.789	31	0.887
2	0.943	12	0.945	22	1.000	32	1.000
3	0.864	13	1.000	23	0.934	33	0.643
4	0.642	14	0.975	24	0.877	34	0.645
5	1.000	15	0.803	25	0.678	35	0.821
6	0.679	16	1.000	26	0.682	36	0.848
7	0.834	17	0.822	27	0.728	37	1.000
8	0.949	18	0.891	28	0.676	38	0.991
9	0.867	19	1.000	29	0.709	39	0.646
10	0.788	20	0.749	30	0.789	40	0.877

According to Table 1, seven employees are efficient. It is determined that the efficient units do not have better inputs and outputs necessarily. According to obtained results, the main factor for being efficient was the job security and it was determined that not necessarily the employees with higher salaries have greater efficiency ratios.

CONCLUSION

Since the human resource is one of the most prominent factors in success or failure of any organization and due to this fact that having employees with high levels of performance will enhance the competitive advantage of organizations, identifying and evaluating the factors that affect the performance of employees lead to enhancing the performance of an organization. The main result of this study was to evaluate the efficiency of employees' performance. Thus, by using a data envelopment analysis procedure, the efficiency of each employee was calculated. The reasons for applying DEA revert to the complex nature of relationships between the inputs and outputs and the advantages of linear programming optimization. In this paper, each employee is considered as a decision-making unit. The input factors are physical work condition, salary, education, job security, and workload. The organizational commitment, turnover, motivation, and job satisfaction are considered as the output factors for the proposed DEA model. Since turnover negatively affects the employees' performance, it is considered as an input factor. The developed model was implemented to the employees of five-star hotels of Kyrenia including the Cratos hotel, Merit Crystal Cove hotel, and Merit Royal hotel. The obtained results showed that the most prominent factor affecting the efficiency of employees was the job security. Also, it was determined that not necessarily the employees with higher salaries have high performance efficiency rate.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, E. W., & Mittal, V. (2000). Strengthening the Satisfaction-Profit Chain. *Journal of Service Research*, 3(2), 107-120. Sage PublicationsSage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA. Retrieved from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/109467050032001>
- Bacon, D. R. (2003). A comparison of approaches to Importance-Performance Analysis. *International*

Journal of Market Research, 45(1), 55-72.

- Boles, J., Madupalli, R., Rutherford, B., & Andy Wood, J. (2007). The relationship of facets of salesperson job satisfaction with affective organizational commitment. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 22(5), 311-321. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/10.1108/08858620710773440>
- Brown, S. P., & Peterson, R. A. (1994). The Effect of Effort on Sales Performance and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(2), 70. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1252270?origin=crossref>
- Chu, R. (2002). Stated-importance versus derived-importance customer satisfaction measurement. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 1 (5(4), 285-301. MCB UP Ltd. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/10.1108/08876040210433202>
- Chye Koh, H., & Boo, E. H. Y. (2004). Organisational ethics and employee satisfaction and commitment. *Management Decision*, 42(5), 677-693. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/10.1108/00251740410538514>
- Cooke, F. L. (2001). Human resource strategy to improve organizational performance: a route for firms in Britain? *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3(4), 321-339. Blackwell Publishers Ltd. Retrieved February 3, 2017, from <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/1468-2370.00071>
- Cooper, W. W., Seiford, L. M., & Zhu, J. (2011). Data Envelopment Analysis: History, Models, and Interpretations (pp. 1-39). Springer US. Retrieved from http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-1-4419-6151-8_1
- Crompton, J. L., & Duray, N. A. (1985). An investigation of the relative efficacy of four alternative approaches to importance-performance analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 13(4), 69-80. Springer-Verlag. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/BF02737200>
- Eskildsen, J. K., & Kristensen, K. (2006). Enhancing importance-performance analysis. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 55(1), 40-60. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/10.1108/17410400610635499>
- Forsund, F. R., & Sarafoglou, N. (2002). On the Origins of Data Envelopment Analysis. *Journal of Productivity Analysis*, 17(1/2), 23-40. Kluwer Academic Publishers. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/10.1023/A:1013519902012>
- Guleryuz, G., Guney, S., Aydin, E. M., & Aşan, O. (2008). The mediating effect of job satisfaction between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 45(11), 1625-1635.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, (2), 250-
- Hanson, R. (1992). Determining attribute performance. *Quirk's Marketing Research Review*, 5, 16-18. Retrieved from <https://www.quirks.com/articles/determining-attribute-importance>
- Kim, D. (2006). Employee Motivation: "Just Ask Your Employees" *Seoul Journal of Business*, 12(1), 19-35. College of Business Administration. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10371/1819>
- Lu, H., While, A. E., & Louise Barriball, K. (2005). Job satisfaction among nurses: a literature review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 42(2), 211-227. Retrieved from

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15680619>

- Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (1998). 25 years of voluntary turnover research: A review and critique. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 13, 49-81.
- Matzler, K., Sauerwein, E., & Heischmidt, K. (2003). Importance-performance analysis revisited: the role of the factor structure of customer satisfaction. *The Service Industries Journal*, 23(2), 112-129. Frank Cass. Retrieved from <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02642060412331300912>
- Monika, D., & Mariana, S. (2015). The Using of Data Envelopment Analysis in Human Resource Controlling. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 25, 468-475. Retrieved from <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2212567115008758>
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), 224-247. Retrieved from <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/0001879179900721>
- Netemeyer, R. G., Johnston, M. W., & Burton, S. (1990). Analysis of role conflict and role ambiguity in a structural equations framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(2), 148-157. Retrieved from <https://www.iser.essex.ac.uk/research/publications/497751>
- Randhawa, G. (2006). *Human Resource Management Ugc Jrf-slet Net*. APH Publishing Corporation. Retrieved from <https://books.google.com.cy/books?id=t4n6Ffm4nxoC>
- Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American journal of community psychology*, 13(6), 693-713. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4083275>
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction : application, assessment, cause, and consequences*. Sage Publications.
- Wall, T. D., & Wood, S. J. (2005). The romance of human resource management and business performance, and the case for big science. *Human Relations*, 4(4), 429-462. Sage PublicationsSage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA. Retrieved from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0018726705055032>
- Walton, R. E. (1985). From Control to Commitment in the Workplace. *Harvard Business Review*, 77-84. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/1985/03/from-control-to-commitment-in-the-workplace>
- Zacharatos, A., Sandy Herscovis, M., Turner, N., & Barling, J. (2007). Human resource management in the North American automotive industry. *Personnel Review*, 35(2), 231-254. Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/10.1108/00483480710726127>

UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURIST SOUVENIR IN TERMS OF CULTURAL CONTEXT

Yi Fu and Xiaoming Liu

Faculty of Business Administration, University of Macau, Macau, China

ABSTRACT

In tourism settings, souvenirs can play the role of mediator to help visitors to understand the host culture.

As material items, souvenirs could be considered as a kind of culture brokers. However, there is little literature to investigate the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. This paper aims to develop a conceptual model for the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. Based on the paradigm of culture broker in tourism, a conceptual model on the characteristics of “Representing- Responding-Mediating” (R-R-M) of souvenirs will provide a solution for souvenir providers to create a unique souvenir within local context.

Key words: souvenir, culture broker, Chinese culture INTRODUCTION

The diversity of Chinese souvenirs is based on the long history, environmental and cultural diversity (Miao, 2004). A number of cultural products such as porcelain (fine china), Chinese Qipao (Chinese traditional dress), silk, Chinese tea, tea set, antiques, handicrafts, jades, paintings and calligraphies, wines and spirits, and traditional Chinese medicine are the popular choices as souvenirs during the journey in China.

However, for more cities and regions in the world, the ability to create “uniqueness” arguably diminishes in tourism, often assumed to lead towards the “serial reproduction” of culture, “placelessness”, non-places or McDonaldisation (Richards & Wilson, 2006). Ironically, in souvenir market, the similar phenomena has occurred in China, a country known for its culture. It is a key issue for tourism that how to develop souvenir in order to attract local and international tourists. Therefore, the characteristics of tourist souvenir need to be re-recognized in term of cultural context.

Existing literature shows the characteristics of tourist souvenir could take many forms because of

different perspectives of classification (e.g., Gordon (1986)'s souvenir as gift and sign, Hume (2014)'s souvenirs as sampled, crafted and representative). Cultural characteristics are very important factors for tourist souvenir to attract consumers. However, there is little literature to investigate the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. This paper aims to develop a conceptual model for the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. Based on Chinese cultural context, this conceptual model will provide a solution for souvenir providers to create a unique souvenir within local context.

THE ROLE OF TOURIST SOUVENIRS

Tourist souvenirs, in a broad sense, are “generally thought to be the material counterpart of travels, events, relationships and memories of all kinds” (Hitchcock & Teague, 2000, p. 1). They are the material items that have memorial functions, commonly linked with those tourists' travels. Therefore, souvenirs are objects usually “offered in areas of tourist flow and consumed by most tourists at any destination in the world, who are eager to purchase items as mementos of their experiences in a particular destination”(Horodyski & Gandara, 2016).

According to the various definitions by scholars (Gordon, 1986; Littrell, Anderson, & Brown, 1993; Paraskevaidis & Andriotis, 2015; Stewart, 1984; Torabian & Arai, 2016), souvenirs should take many forms. The souvenir is a means by which tourists recall and extend their experiences, therefore, they can function as an object through which memories can be revisited (Thompson, Hannam, & Petrie, 2012). They are evidence that a journey has been made and a way of sharing the experience with family and friends. They may represent the image of a destination, but they can be made from local origin or not. At the same time, many aboriginal communities have the potential to sell tangible representations of their culture, thereby gaining an income by satisfying the desire of visitors for mementos(Chang, Wall, & Hung, 2012). However, regardless of form, these items serve similar purposes to help tourists remember their tourism experiences. The present study, therefore, is concerned primarily with items that are purchased intentionally to be souvenirs, or markers of experience.

Scholars concurrently describe souvenirs in a positive light (more often when they are reminders) or criticism (usually when they are sellable commodities). The contrary nature of the views of souvenirs is further illustrated by the consideration of the souvenir as a commodity for sale to remember “locations and experiences that are not for sale”(Stewart, 1984). Therefore, from the view of nature of tourism, the contrasts between the ordinary/work and non-ordinary/leisure were described as

reasons for tourists possessing souvenirs (Swanson, 2014). Tourists need to capture a sacred experience which distinguishes the ordinary experience, a tangible souvenir served this need well (Setiyati & Indrayanto, 2011).

On the other hand, from local residents' perspective, some scholars (e.g. Matthews, 2004) believe that tourist trade is a part of the everyday lives of local people in destination and souvenirs should be regarded as a part of hosts' authentic culture. For example, either tourist night markets in Taiwan (Hsieh & Chang, 2006) or batik designers and producers in Malaysia (Hitchcock & Nuryanti, 2016) involved in everyday life of host culture. Not only are souvenirs material items for individual memory, but also souvenirs play a role on "how the objects of the tourist trade should be taken seriously as signs of cultural production" (Matthews, 2004, p. 88). Therefore, souvenirs could be a good choice for tourists who want to know more about culture of destination. These material items, which play the role of mediator, could help visitors to understand the host culture. Actually, in anthropology of tourism, the mediator between host-guest relationship in tourism settings are described as a "culture broker" (Yang, Ryan, & Lingyun, 2014).

THE CONCEPT OF CULTURE BROKER IN TOURISM

The relationship between host and guest lies at the heart of tourism (Selwyn, 2016). Smith (1989) treated host/guest relations as the primary issue in a book on anthropological studies of tourism, afterwards the revised edition (Smith & Brent, 2001) gives more space to the complex global and local political economies of tourism within which these relationships are embedded. Smith (2001) provided a paradigm on culture broker in tourism setting. In that paradigm, she visualized the nature of the interaction between parties called "hosts" and "guests". However, some critics may debate that the two parties (i.e. "hosts" and the "guests") in Smith's (2001) paradigm may also have same cultural backgrounds; if so, a culture broker may be not needed (Yang et al., 2014). Consequently, Yang et al. (2014) proposed a revised model by adding "representing" characteristics into Smith's (2001) "mediating" paradigm.

Culture brokers play a "controller" role in the cultural exchange of host-guest relationship in some situations. For example, tour guides are a kind of culture broker in tourism. They have great power to introduce the host culture to the tourists (Ap & Wong, 2001). Usually, culture brokers are "individuals straddling two (or more) cultures with attributes of membership in each" (Salazar, 2016, p. 214). At the present time, it is accepted that while investigating host-guest relationships many mediators active in tourism are considered (including agents, organizations, media, and even material objects). For

example, government officials (Smith, 2001), planners (Salazar, 2016), travel agents, tour guides (Salazar, 2012), and travel writers (Salazar, 2016), travel brochure (Leong, 1997).

For many travellers, it is the real purpose that they have the opportunity to experience "different cultures" and "off-site" for a short time. It can be said that the study of contemporary tourism is based on the quest for the other (Van den Berghe, 1994). In the traditional studies on host-guest relationship, "the other" usually refers to the local people in the tourist area, which is from the tourists' point of view. Correspondingly, from the perspective of the local people, tourists are regarded as "guests" or "outsiders". Therefore, from the perspective of the host, tourists can also be "the other." In a word, "the other" can be recognized from different perspectives in tourism activities.

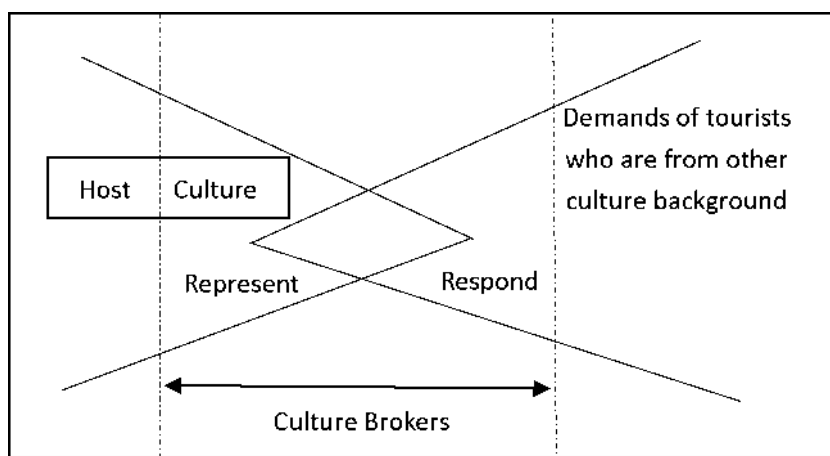


Figure 1

Culture Brokers in Tourism Setting (adapted from Yang et al., 2014, p. 512)

In other words, culture brokers need "represent" a host culture. At the same time, from the perspective of host, "responding to the other culture" is another critical characteristic of culture brokering. Therefore, this permits a further revision to Yang et al. (2014)'s diagram as is represented in Figure 1.

TOURIST SOUVENIRS AS CULTURE BROKERS

From the discussion above, it is known that the definition "culture broker" initially represents the persons as "mediator" between "hosts" and "guests". In tourism activities, culture broker becomes a very broad concept, which not only indicates persons, but also represents organizations, agents, signs and material items. Therefore, culture broker could be classified as brokers with different characteristics (Peng, 2004).

Symbolic broker: refer to those tourist sites with global icons (e.g. the Eiffel Tower or the Great

Wall) or iconic types (e.g. the global beach);

Heritage-related broker: refer to those places where natural and cultural heritages are concentrated (e.g. museum); or typical heritages with vernacular icons (e.g. Balinese dances);

Organizational broker: refer to those agents active in tourism settings (e.g. travel agency, tourism government and destination management);

Service-related broker: refer to those persons who serve as guides for introducing place and tourist sites (e.g. tour guide) to tourists;

Media-related broker: those reliable channels that help tourists to obtain information on place or host culture (e.g. mass-media or tourist information center);

Lifestyle-related broker: those material items, activities or persons that can respond to the lifestyle with fashionable trending in outsiders (e.g. stuff with current style from tourists' own culture background).

As material items, souvenirs could be considered as a kind of culture brokers. Regarding souvenir as a broker might be justifiable from an etymological point of view because the term broker¹ may be connected through its Anglo-Norman source “brocour”, “abrocour”, with Spanish “alboroque”, which means “ceremony or ceremonial gift after the conclusion of a business deal.”

In contemporary time, tourism refers to many forms of mobility including traditional temporary movement and other social practices and behaviors related to human mobility, e.g. second homes, sojourning, gap years and working holidays (Cooper & Hall, 2008). However, tourism as a form of temporary mobility is indeed different from migration (permanent movement). Regardless of these forms, most tourists have no sufficient time and energy to totally understand a host culture, and under such circumstances, souvenirs as a culture broker are necessary.

Based on the revised paradigm of culture broker in this paper, souvenirs have three main characteristics in term of cultural context: representing, responding, and mediating, which are important attributes of souvenirs acting as culture broker. (1) Representing indicates that souvenirs should represent the host culture. From the perspective of representing characteristic, souvenirs can

¹ According to American Heritage Dictionary, the word broker is from Anglo-Norman brocour, abrocour ; akin to possibly akin to Spanish alboroque [ceremonial gift at conclusion of business deal].

be considered as symbolic broker or heritage-related broker. (2) Responding indicates that souvenirs should respond to the trending of lifestyle within the visitors' cultural background in order to meet the demands of tourists who have the other cultural background. From the perspective of responding characteristic, souvenirs can be regarded as lifestyle-related broker. (3) Mediating indicates that interaction between hosts and tourists in host-guest relationship through souvenirs. Souvenirs are mediators through that tourist experience can be activated.

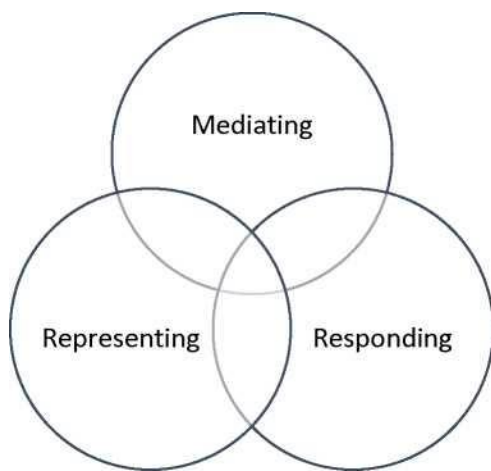


Figure 2

Souvenirs as Culture Brokers: Representing, Responding and Mediating

Therefore, souvenirs as culture brokers may be characterized as mediating between host culture and the demand of tourists who are from other culture communities, and representing host cultural information in various ways to those tourists, and responding to the trending of lifestyle of guest culture in various ways.

A conceptual model based on characteristics of Representing-Responding-Mediating (R-R-M) in term of cultural context can be established as Figure 2.

DISCUSSION

Souvenir acts as a cultural broker that eases the tourists' understanding to host culture, offering solutions to the interaction between hosts and guests in tourism settings. Based on the prior literature and paradigm of culture broker in tourism, the conceptual model Representing-Responding-Mediating (R-R-M) describes the main characteristics of souvenir in term of cultural context.

First, the characteristic "representing" is consistent with Smith (2001)'s opinion on culture broker, which is responsible for cultural trait selection and imaging of host culture. Souvenirs could represent

not only traditional culture, but also other past phenomena, such as political events (suffragettes), colonial history (India), former artistic pre-eminence (Awaji Ningyo puppetry) or former ways of life (South American ceramic archaisms) (Hitchcock & Teague, 2000).

Second, the characteristic “Responding” call for a response to expressive of recent time in visitors’ culture through souvenirs. Culture brokers should be acceptable to both hosts and guests (Press, 1969). Souvenirs acting as culture brokers should react positively to up-to-date trends of a modern lifestyle or a modern way of thinking. For local people who design and produce souvenirs, they can understand role of their products in the globalization of local cultures, which is confirmed in Matthews (2004)’s conclusion on contemporary perspective on souvenirs. This opinion also is supported by Hitchcock and Nuryanti (2016)’s studies on souvenirs. Based on the work of batik designers and producers, they found that “the producers of this traditional craft are integrated into its increasingly global production rather than excluded from it” (Hitchcock & Nuryanti, 2016, p. 1). Thereby, while investigating the basic characteristics of souvenirs, guaranteeing souvenirs to respond to other cultural trending is consistent with the emergence of a global craft consciousness (Hitchcock & Nuryanti, 2016).

Third, the mediating characteristic of souvenirs plays a critical role in enriching the visitors’ experience at a tourist site or place and their understanding of the place and its culture. As material items, souvenirs become a mediator to enhance interaction between hosts and guests. Therefore, souvenir trade could be an experiential consumption, which may consider these material items’ individual meanings for each tourist. Additionally, souvenir consumption could be directly related to tourist experiences and tourists’ opinion on the place they visited (Horodyski & Gandara, 2016).

Based on discussion above, considering the diversity of Chinese culture, a conceptual model from cultural perspectives could provide a new understanding of souvenirs. Chinese culture as one of the world’s oldest cultures can trace back to thousands of years ago. Nowadays, the area in which the culture is dominant covers a large geographical region in eastern Asia with customs and traditions varying greatly between provinces, cities, and even towns as well (Wikipedia). Therefore, even for domestic tourists, they may have different local cultural backgrounds. For international tourists, they can feel the great difference from their own culture. Moreover, Chinese culture has many various forms, in which the important components may include literature, cuisine, visual arts, ceramics, music, martial arts, architecture, philosophy and religion. For example, Chinese calligraphy could be a souvenir with a Chinese traditional cultural symbol in tourism setting (Zhou, Zhang, & Edelheim, 2013). For these souvenir vendors, the characteristics could be considered to create a unique souvenir

within local context. Finally, the conceptual model provides an approach of understanding the importance of souvenirs acting as culture broker to contemporary tourism, and how souvenirs are marketed to Chinese people and visitors.

REFERENCES

- Ap, J., & Wong, K. K. F. (2001). Case study on tour guiding: professionalism, issues and problems. *Tourism Management*, 22(5), 551-563. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(01\)00013-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(01)00013-9)
- Chang, J. N., Wall, G., & Hung, J. C. (2012). Tourists' Perceptions of Aboriginal Heritage Souvenirs. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(6), 684-700.
- Cooper, C., & Hall, C. M. (2008). Contemporary tourism: an international approach: *Routledge*.
- Gordon, B. (1986). The Souvenir: Messenger of the Extraordinary. *The Journal of Popular Culture*, 20(3), 135-146. doi: 10.1111/j.0022-3840.1986.2003_135.x
- Hitchcock, M., & Teague, K. (2000). *Souvenirs: The material culture of tourism*. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.
- Hitchcock, P. T. M., & Nuryanti, W. (2016). *Building on Batik: The Globalization of a Craft Community*: Taylor & Francis.
- Horodyski, G. S., & Gandara, J. M. G. (2016). Souvenir. In J. Jafari & H. Xiao (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Tourism* (pp. 884-886). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Hume, D. (2014). *Tourism Art and Souvenirs: The Material Culture of Tourism*: Routledge.
- Leong, L. W.-T. (1997). Commodifying ethnicity: State and ethnic tourism in Singapore. In M. Picard & R. E. Wood (Eds.), *Tourism, ethnicity and the state in Asian and Pacific societies* (pp. 71-98). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Littrell, M. A., Anderson, L. F., & Brown, P. J. (1993). What makes a craft souvenir authentic? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 197-215. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383\(93\)90118-M](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0160-7383(93)90118-M)
- Matthews, C. N. (2004). SOUVENIRS: The Material Culture of Tourism. *Material Culture*, 36(2), 87-89.
- Miao, X. (2004). Tourism Merchandise and Souvenirs: Discussion on the Conceptual Definitions and Local Features. *Tourism Tribune*, 19(1), 27-31.
- Paraskevaïdis, P., & Andriotis, K. (2015). Values of souvenirs as commodities. *Tourism Management*, 48, 110. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.10.014>
- Peng, Z. R. (2004). *Anthropology of Tourism*. Beijing: Publishing House of Minority Nationalities.
- Press, I. (1969). Ambiguity and innovation: Implications for the genesis of the culture broker. *American Anthropologist*, 71(2), 205-217.
- Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2006). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1209-1223. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.002>
- Salazar, N. B. (2012). Community-based cultural tourism: issues, threats and opportunities. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(1), 9-22. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2011.596279
- Salazar, N. B. (2016). Culture broker. In J. Jafari & H. Xiao (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Tourism* (pp. 214-215). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Selwyn, T. (2016). Host and guest. In J. Jafari & H. Xiao (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Tourism* (pp. 436-

- 439). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Setiyati, E. A., & Indrayanto, A. (2011). Outsourced souvenirs: An investigation towards authenticity anxiety and tourists purchase behavior. *International Journal on Social Science, Economics and Art*, 1(3), 196-201.
- Smith, V., & Brent, M. (2001). *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century*. New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- Smith, V. L. (1989). *Hosts and guests: The anthropology of tourism*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Smith, V. L. (2001). The culture brokers. In V. L. Smith & M. Brent (Eds.), *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century* (pp. 275-282). New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.
- Stewart, S. (1984). On longing: Narratives of the miniature, the gigantic, the souvenir, the collection: *Duke University Press*.
- Swanson, K. (2014). Souvenirs, Tourists, and Tourism *The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism* (pp. 179-188): John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Thompson, F., Hannam, K., & Petrie, K. (2012). Producing ceramic art works through tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 336-360. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.06.006>
- Torabian, P., & Arai, S. M. (2016). Tourist perceptions of souvenir authenticity: an exploration of selective tourist blogs. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(7), 697-712. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2013.820259
- Van den Berghe, P. L. (1994). The quest for the other: ethnic tourism in San Cristobal, Mexico: *University of Washington Press*. Wikipedia. Chinese culture. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese_culture
- Yang, J., Ryan, C., & Lingyun, Z. (2014). The "culture broker" as performer: Tuva and Kazakhs "home visits" in Kanas, China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 19(5), 493-516.
- Zhou, Q., Zhang, J., & Edelman, J. R. (2013). Rethinking traditional Chinese culture: A consumer-based model regarding the authenticity of Chinese calligraphic landscape. *Tourism Management*, 36, 991-1012. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.008>

IMPACT OF TOURISM ON SENIORS

Rudolf Rybansky

Renata Miklencicova

University of Ss Cyril and Methodius, Trnava, Faculty of Masmedia Communication, Department of Marketing Communication, Trnava, Slovakia

ABSTRACT

Ageing of population is a typical feature for world, European and even Slovak demography. The number of the elderly - seniors is bound to double in the first half of the 21st century while representing up to 30 per cent of the overall European population by the year 2060. Especially the highest age groups are supposed to report a considerable growth. We are facing a so-called phenomenon of „double (inner) population ageing“. However, the term „a senior“ is perceived differently by the experts. One group refers to people aged 50 and more while the others add another ten years, i.e. people over 60. The definition of the term differs and develops in course of time. By the European and Slovak statistics people aged 65 and more are considered seniors.

Seniors have recently become an interesting target group for various businesses which are trying to encourage their purchasing behaviour through various marketing communication tools or media. Cultural, social and mainly technological factors highly influence seniors' purchasing behaviour. People over 50 account for a third of the population, they are rather heterogeneous and therefore can not be seen as one mass market.

It is especially the group of seniors which is becoming target audience for tourism and travel-related businesses across Europe as well as worldwide. The trend of active seniors has gained popularity in Slovakia as well. There are more than 3 million of people over 50 in Slovakia. Seniors up to 65 represent the largest group. We can hereby assume that more and more seniors are getting interested not only in leisure activities but also in additional health and wellness services. There are plenty of possibilities how to spend free time in Slovakia - notably in the field of spa and wellness tourism.

Thanks to high-quality services, Slovakia ranges among the most developed „spa countries“ in Europe. There are more than 1,200 mineral and thermal springs which are being actively exploited.

These have provided ideal conditions for numerous spa resorts offering wellness and health services or organising various cultural and social events. Consequently, the Slovak wellness and spa industry has become popular with local as well as foreign visitors.

Generally speaking, tourism is a fast-growing industry representing great potential for seniors. According to the latest studies, it is obvious that seniors are mostly interested in wellness and relaxation stays. This customer segment also prefers holiday, study, cultural and sightseeing tours and trips. The market focusing on seniors can be seen as rather diversified. Seniors' attitude to the type of holiday they choose is considerably influenced by their age (50+ generation, 60+ generation and older ones), physical condition, income, marital status, travel experience and loyalty to particular spa resorts or localities. These requirements have to be reflected in the offer of spa resorts in Slovakia. Slovak spas have a long-lasting tradition. Seniors tend to visit them for their healing springs which can help to cure certain disease. Moreover, spa resorts offer other complementary activities, e.g. relaxation procedures, sightseeing tours, hiking, cycling or walking in spa parks. Visitors highly appreciate healing springs or mineral and thermal water - unique natural sources.

The exploitation of thermal water dates back to the period of the Austro-Hungarian Empire when spas represented a prosperous industry. At that time spas were mainly built for the aristocracy. In war times spas were used for a different purpose as they served mainly as rehabilitation centres for the wounded, having no money for further reconstruction. Nowadays resorts have been refurbished with modern hotel facilities providing high-quality services and travel-related products.

Our paper deals with the issue of spa industry of seniors in the Slovak Republic. Its main goal is to define the segment of seniors and particularities of their consumer behaviour, analyse the way seniors perceive the offer of spa resorts and specify marketing activities which are used for promotion. The research part focuses on 31 spa and wellness resorts operating in Slovakia.

Key Words: Senior, customer, communications, sales promotion, destination, spa tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays seniors are an inseparable part of our society. By being bearers of traditions and skills as well as creators of our history, present time, national and spiritual values they contribute to the whole society. Their number being on a constant growth, we might say that they make up the most numerous

part of inhabitants. Therefore it is highly important to use effectively their potential for development of the whole society.

Active ageing enables people to make use of their physical, social as well as mental potential in their whole life and be engaged in the social life while being ensured appropriate protection, safety and care when needed. A key to success of active ageing depends heavily on understanding of the level of ageing of the population, its pace and the socio-economic state of the society - all the conditions set forth by the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.

Both life and consumer expectancy is much longer these days. In the last decade a lot of people have reached senior age. Childhood and youth are much shorter and therefore businesses should pay more attention to this new consumer group. Today businesses should implement their knowledge and marketing skills to target this new senior audience in order to recognise their particularities and specificities.

We are talking about a customer aged 50+. A customer is a consumer who is purchasing goods or services while he/she doesn't need to be its user - the product or the service can be used by another family member, for instance. These days Slovak inhabitants are getting older - people aged 50+ account for a third of the population. Thus it is of high importance to focus on this customer segment as they are sensitive to changes, e.g. sale of goods, its range and mainly its price.

Tourism and seniors

The definition of tourism has developed over the years as it represents a multidisciplinary economic activity. Tourism is a crucial social phenomenon from the point of view of an individual as well as the whole society. It is an unseparable part of consumption and lifestyle of developed countries.

Tourism functions as a system with specific elements and relations. These can be described and defined as follows:

- subjects and objects (offer and demand),
- objects reciprocally (competition and cooperation),
- subjects reciprocally (relations between the participants).

The author Mrs Zauskova and coll., 2011, p. 12 states that tourism can be defined “as a set of activities

with the aim to satisfy wants and needs related to travelling and stays of visitors out of their permanent residence, mostly in their free time. Its main purpose is relaxation, sightseeing, health, fun, amusement, cultural and sports events, business trips, i.e. acquiring a complete experience. This type of consumption satisfies specific wants and needs through travelling or a stay out of permanent residence so it can be simply defined as a free time activity (excluding business trips). This definition includes all forms and types of tourism, i.e. “typology of tourism”.

Forms of tourism refer to various causes and their consequences related to travelling and stays in a foreign place. There are several forms of tourism to be split into different categories. These are as follows:

- geographic aspect (domestic, national, foreign, international, regional),
- number of participants (individual, group, mass, ecological),
- age of visitors (adolescent, family, senior),
- place of stay (city, suburban, village, mountain, sea),
- season (in-season, out-of-season, all-year),
- organisation (individual, organised),
- a means of transport (railway, boat, airplane, vehicle),
- dynamicity (stay, sightseeing tour),
- a sociological aspect (visiting family friends and relatives, social, ethnic) et al.

The above mentioned division is of high importance as it enables us to prepare a particular set of products and services of tourism and offer them to suitable target audience on the market. (Zauskova & Coll., 2011, p. 12).

Based upon the country specificity, tourism statistics as well as economy we distinguish three basic forms of tourism:

domestic tourism - represents those activities of citizens with permanent residence in a given country who travel to places only within this (their) home country but out of their usual place of stay

(permanent residence);

active tourism - represents those activities of citizens who do not have their permanent residence in a given country but they travel to places within that country and out of their usual place of stay, e.g. foreign visitors or tourists coming to Slovakia;

passive tourism - represents those activities of citizens with permanent residence in a given country who travel to and stay in places out of this (their) country and out of their usual environment, i.e. Slovak citizens spending their holiday abroad. (Zauskova & Coll., 2011, p. 13).

There are specific relations within tourism or its sub-categories and other systems making up its external environment - mainly the economic, political, social, technological and ecological factors influencing its development as well as its end.

Nowadays spa tourism belongs to the most popular forms of tourism. Traditional spa stays were replaced by short-term relaxation stays including wellness and beauty packages. As specialists assume, much more clients will visit Slovak spa resorts in the year 2017 than ever before.

Spa tourism

Rich thermal water springs rank Slovakia amongst the most popular tourist destinations even for those visitors whose home countries provide high-level spa care. Slovak spa resorts provide professional spa care services.

Rise and fall of spa towns has always been linked to opportunities provided by a given region as well as the history itself. As any other field of economy, dynamicity of tourism is influenced by other spheres of life. In addition to that, tourism is rather sensitive to changes of thinking of those who travel and reflects social trends and fashions influencing consumer behaviour. While „all inclusive mega-hotels“ used to be popular a few years ago, nowadays people are getting back to traditional values promoting sustainability and environmental responsibility.

Spa is a part of health care providing mainly services. It exploits thermal resources from the earth, the sea or the climate. It fulfils a medical, an economic and a social function:

- medical - satisfying people's wish to be healthy,
- economic - providing spa services on the market,

- social - partially covered by health insurance.
- Spa services can be divided into basic and complementary ones. The basic services include:
 - medical examinations,
 - therapeutic procedures,
 - accommodation, catering and cultural/social events.
- Complementary services include:
 - medical cosmetics,
 - commercial and exchange services.

ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF SPA PRODUCTS IN SLOVAKIA

Slovakia has always offered high-quality spa services thus being ranked amongst the top spa destinations in Europe. Spa resorts offer mainly wellness packages including all the above mentioned services. By the Slovak Spa Association data there are 25 spa towns in the Slovak republic including 31 spa resorts. These are:

- ☐ Bardejovské Spa, a.s.
- ☐ Bardejovské Spa, a.s. - Družba
- ☐ Spa Bojnice, a.s.
- ☐ SpaKúpele Brusno, a.s.
- ☐ Spa Červený Kláštor - Smerdžonka
- ☐ Spa Dudince, a.s.
- ☐ Spa Horný Smokovec, s.r.o.
- ☐ Spa Kováčová, s.r.o.
- ☐ Spa Kúpele Lučivná, a. s.

- ☐ Spa Lúčky a. s.
- ☐ Spa Nimnica, a. s.
- ☐ Spa Sliač, a. s.
- ☐ Spa Štós, a. s.
- ☐ Spa Trenčianske Teplice, a. s.
- ☐ Spa Vyšné Ružbachy, a. s.
- ☐ ARCO Spa and Medical Centre Trenčianske Teplice
- ☐ Spa and Medical Centre Družba Bardejov
- ☐ Spa and Medical Centre Bystrá
- ☐ Thermal Water Spa , a. s. Sklené Teplice
- ☐ Natural Iodine Spa Číž, a. s.
- ☐ Slovak Thermal Spa, a. s. Piešťany (Smrdáky)
- ☐ Slovak Thermal Spa, a.s. Rajecké Teplice
- ☐ Slovak Thermal Spa Turčianske Teplice, a. s.
- ☐ SLOVTHERMA, Spa Diamant Dudince, š.p.
- ☐ Specialised Medical Centre Marína š.p. Kováčová

All the above mentioned spa resorts offer products, procedures and stays for customers. Their main target audience includes children, adults, seniors, individuals, families or groups, seniors from the senior clubs. However, spa resorts mostly specialise in disabled and handicapped patients or people with specific health conditions. Medication depends on the type of spa, thermal waters or climate conditions.

A lot of spa resorts offer special products for the customers aged 50+. Their main target audience are those clients who want to have a rest, regenerate, get their energy back and cure their health problems.

Customers aged 50+ are offered various price discounts on procedures, e.g. for seniors, the disabled or bulk discounts.

In this industry, a customer has to use a product or a service directly and personally. Customers usually decide for a specific spa resort based upon the procedures offered as every procedure provides cure for a completely different health condition, either a locomotive or a muscular one. Therefore a customer chooses the most appropriate spa resort matching his/her wants and needs and providing all health benefits. The spa resort can be chosen individually or upon doctor's recommendation. Procedures are specifically selected for each medical condition.

Spa Piest'any and Spa Trenčianske Teplice mainly specialise in senior packages as they offer five specific senior programmes. The packages do not considerably differ by their content but they offer other complementary services (e.g. Trenčianske Teplice - a „*foreveryoung*“ package, dynamic waves and ultrasound, Trenčianske Teplice - a „*when we were young*“ package - Kneipper's hydrotherapy with some identical features such as massages, jacuzzi combined with turf procedures).

Spa Nový Smokovec and Čiz also offer two senior programmes. Other spa resorts (Bardejov, Brusno, Dudince, Lúčky, Námica, Račianske Teplice, Skalité Teplice, Sliač, Turčianske Teplice and Vysoké Ružbachy) offer only one senior programme as well as spa resorts Bardejov Družba, Dudince-Diamant, Horný Smokovec, Kováčova-Marina, Wellness Kováčova, Liptovský Jan.

Marketing communication of Slovak spa resorts

Services being offered by spa resorts represent the products with specific features such as intangibility, inability to be stocked etc. Due to an intangible character of the product (as customers cannot try it), marketing communication plays a key role in the field of services.

Spa industry uses all traditional tools of marketing mix - advertising, sale promotion, direct sale, public relations and direct marketing.

Marketing communication targets mainly the group of seniors with deteriorating health conditions who often visit the above mentioned spa resorts. Marketing communication focused on this target audience specialises in sale promotion - offering discounts for seniors.

The main goal of advertising, as the most favourite tool of communication mix, is to inform, to persuade, to remind or in other words to influence consumer's behavior in order to sell a product.

Advertising communication of spa resorts did not primarily target older seniors, but thanks to media coverage and various advertising forms, the message can get through to a senior customer as well.

There are two main categories of customers. One of these categories consists of so-called individual payers, i.e. consumers who cover medical care from their own budget. It is much more demanding to gain this customer segment as it is necessary to persuade them to use the services while offering them a benefit as an added value for their money.

The other type of customer consists of those visitors whose stays and services are covered by public health insurance. These consumers have their treatment prescribed by a doctor, i.e. they are not informed on services by spa resorts themselves but through an intermediary - a doctor.

Spa resorts can also make use of another tool of marketing communication and that is direct sale targeting specific customers, i.e. a senior segment.

Spa resorts can distribute their services by way of travel agencies offering consumers various wellness packages. Even in this case agencies can use a set of discounts, e.g. for families or seniors. The OLTA Travel Agency specialises in spa and wellness programmes for senior consumers while offering a wide selection of spa resorts within Slovakia.

For sale promotion spa resorts can also offer various gifts and souvenirs for their consumers.

Public relations are highly popular with spa resorts to target senior customers. Building positive and long-term relations with customers and communication represent two main fields within PR activities. Positive image can be created through press reports, public speeches, PR articles in magazines, brochures, annual reports, sponsorship and event marketing.

These services cannot be separated from a provider. Personal touch plays a crucial role in the field of health care and spa industry and therefore direct sale techniques are commonly supported.

In the field of direct marketing companies can use the Internet which represents a simple and an effective way of communication with a customer. As seniors are not used to this form of communication, it is recommended to use traditional mail services.

Research into specific spa resorts providing services for seniors

In our research we analysed in detail various spa resorts providing services for seniors. For the purpose

of the given paper we selected only partial results - the data from Bardejovske Spa.

Bardejovske Spa are set in the quiet environment in the middle of mainly coniferous woods. As they are located far away from noisy cities, factories and stressful modern life, they make a person forget about everyday problems, have a rest and live in peace. Bardejovske Spa represent a modern and well-managed spa resort including modern hotel facilities. The spa resort benefits from thermal springs. Natural mineral waters are classified as bicarbonate, sodium chloride, cold and hypotonic with an increased content of boratic acid. Its geographic location, climate, environment and mineral waters provide beneficial effects mainly for seniors, adults as well as children. The springs Klara, Napoleon, Anna and Kolonadny spring are the most popular ones.

The main purpose of Bardejovske Spa is to provide their guests with high-quality medical services along with wellness, accommodation, catering, company events, beauty packages and other complementary services.

As mentioned before the target audience of this resort is rather diversified. The spa are trying to appeal to every age category. They provide complete medical care for seniors, adults as well as children. They also offer medical care covered by all insurance companies. As the results show, Bardejovske Spa offer a wide variety of services. Seniors can benefit from a selection of medical programmes as well as weekend, relaxation and wellness packages. Bardejovske Spa welcome domestic and foreign visitors as well as individual payers.

For promotion Bardejovske Spa use a traditional marketing mix, i.e. a product, a price, distribution and marketing communication. Their main goal is to be the best spa resort providing spa and wellness services.

They offer complete medical care for both domestic and foreign patients. Complementary services include wellness services, beauty and cosmetics services, meeting rooms and wedding ceremonies.

Bardejovske Spa provide specific spa packages including medical care. This product is mainly designed for seniors, e.g. SENIOR SPECIAL - a stay with medical examination for the patients aged 60+ and the heavily disabled; SENIOR STAY - for the patients aged 60+ for min. 6 nights, three procedures per day and Wellness Spa; STANDARD STAY - a stay for min. 6 nights, three procedures per day and Wellness Spa; EXTRA STAY and KEEP FIT STAY. They also provide spa procedures, relaxation and weekend stays without medical care, cosmetics services and company events. Within

the Wellness Spa Programme, Bardejovske Spa offer a wide selection of packages for seniors, such as:

Wellness relax stay - a stay during a week, min. one night, including Wellness Spa package and selected procedures - the selection depends on duration of the stay

Wellness vital stay - a weekend stay from Thursday to Sunday or Friday to Sunday

Recovery stay - min. one night including accomodation and half/full board and selected procedures

Elizabeth Beauty stay - a relaxation stay including beauty and cosmetics services. The stay duration is from two to four nights from Wednesday to Sunday. Accomodation, half/full board and Wellness Spa package - a swimming pool and a sauna.

Wellness Vitality - a relaxation stay without medical care, with specific procedures. Including accomodation, half/full board, Wellness Spa package - a swimming pool and a sauna.

Bardejovske Spa provide medical care for seniors as well as other visitors in 16 spa facilities. Seniors can benefit from a wide choice of complementary services, e.g. sports activities (minigolf, biking, Nordic Walking, hiking, table tennis, snooker, bowling and tennis). They also organise various cultural events, e.g. International Music Summer or classical music concerts throughout the year mainly held in Astoria Hotel. There is *an open-air museum* of folk architecture, National Exposition of Saris museum, a cinema, a shopping centre and a post office.

The medical care is paid individually by a patient or a visitor or is partially/fully covered by health insurance. Bardejovske Spa have a fixed price list mainly for those patients whose medical stay is covered by health insurance. The prices depend on the hotel facility, the type of medical services and spa procedures.

Availability is one of the main criteria for distribution of medical services. Professional medical care is directly linked to the place, its culture and atmosphere, hygiene conditions and the overall environment of spa facilities. Marketing communication of Bardejovske Spa is done on a national and international level thanks to direct or indirect product distribution. Indirect distribution focuses on cooperation of Bardejovske Spa with health insurance companies, contractual doctors and Slovak as well as foreign travel agencies or intermediaries. Direct distribution is done through specific communication channels or via their own points of sale, on trade fairs and exhibitions.

Bardejovske Spa use various marketing tools in order to communicate with seniors as well as other potential visitors. Advertising represents one of the most effective tools. Other promotional activities include: newspapers,

TV, radio, magazines, direct mail, outdoor advertising and the Internet. The spa resort runs its own PR agency which is responsible for media monitoring and providing the media with news coverage. Within PR Bardejovske Spa use press reports, interviews, public speeches, annual reports and brochures, audio visual materials as well as sponsorship and organisation of various cultural, social and business events. Sale promotion techniques appealing to seniors include mainly promotional products and items, souvenirs, discounts, workshops and presentations designed for this target audience. Direct marketing, on the other hand, is trying to focus on seniors directly, e.g. direct mail - by post (various promotional letters, leaflets and CDs), invitations for senior exhibitions, health insurance promotion, travel agencies promotion and many others. The spa resort also uses general mailing - distribution of leaflets, brochures, advertisements, radio promotion, on-line sale - on-line communication and e-shopping, web pages as well as letters of thanks, motivation letters and fresh mailing.

There is tough competition in the spa industry and therefore it is difficult to keep a market position in this field. Bardejovske Spa are facing competition from all spa resorts in Slovakia as they offer almost identical services and similar medical treatment. As shown in the Chart 1 Bojnice, Piestany, Trencianske Teplice, Turcianske Teplice and Vysne Ruzbachy belong amongst their biggest rivals on the market.

Table 1 Comparison of senior stays in the selected spa resorts

	Senior stays	Traditional stays	Wellness	Beauty senior package
Spa Bardejov	Senior stay	Wellness and relaxation stay, wellness vital stay and	Wellness senior	Beauty package Elizabeth
Spa Bojnice		Stay Vital, Stay Vital+		
Piestany	Senior stay	Relaxation stay, Extra relaxation stay, Romantic stay for the couples, Weekend stay, Weekend relaxation stay,		Wellness and Beauty package for women

Trencianske	Dr. Senior, Dr. Osteofit	Thermal waters stay, Minirelax, Relax, Romantic	-	Beauty package
Turcianske		Wellness gold, Wellness mini, Ideal stay, Ideal stay mini		Beauty gold, Antiageing gold,
Vysne Ruzbachy	Healthy senior, Senior stay	Wellness stay, Wellness last- minute, Biznis spa stay	-	-

In the Chart 1 you can see the comparison of spa resorts offering services or packages for seniors. Our main criteria was to compare traditional stays as they fit all customer groups not only seniors. We tried to provide a complete overview of services offered by the selected spa resorts. We also analysed relaxation and beauty packages. The third criteria was to focus on those programmes specifically aimed at seniors. As the results show we can assume that only four spa resorts are currently offering senior programmes out of six - Bardejovske Spa, Piest'any, Turcianske Teplice and Vysne Ruzbachy. Relaxation senior programmes are being offered exclusively by Bardejovske Spa. Women highly appreciate beauty senior packages offered by Bardejovske Spa, Piest'any, Turcianske and Trencianske Teplice. Finally we can state that Bardejovske Spa have room for further improvement either in the field of services or senior programmes.

Conclusion

As stated by the Slovak Association of Tourism, 2.3 mil of people visited Slovakia in the first half of 2016, which accounts for an 18.9% annual growth. Slovakia is famous for its rich natural resources such as fresh mountain air and thermal waters which have given rise to numerous thermal and climate spa resorts.

When communicating with customers spa resorts make use of all traditional marketing communication tools - advertising, direct marketing, direct sale, sale promotion techniques and PR. When comparing communication techniques of the selected Slovak spa resorts, I have found out that sale promotion is one of the most popular marketing communication techniques as customers are highly sensitive to price policies. Almost all Slovak spa resorts offer either a special senior package at a low price or provide various senior discounts at the amount of 10 % or 20 % from the total price.

The paper was written as a part of the VEGA project 1/0640/15 named: „*Phygital Concept and Its Use in Sustainable Integrated Environmental Management of Businesses*“.

Literature and resources:

- Contribution to a Book:* Cerna, J. (2013). Nova identita produktov cestovneho ruchu. In E. Cabyova, A. Kusa (Eds.), *Marketing identity : dizajn, ktory predava : zbornik medzinarodnej vedeckej konferencie* (pp. 176-190). Trnava: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave.
- Book:* Prikrylova, J. & Jahodova, H. (2010). *Modern marketingova komunikace*. Praha: Grada Publishing.
- Book:* Reidl, A. (2012). *Senior zakazmk budoucnosti*. Praha: Albatros Media.
- Book:* Zauskova, A. et al. (2011). Networking a marketingova komunikacia v cestovnom ruchu. Trnava: Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave.
- Contribution to a Book:* Kollarova, D. (2009). *Moznosti podpory predaja pri zasielkovom predaji*. In M. Supm (Ed.), *Marketing a obchod 2009 = Marketing and trade 2009 : vplyv hospodarskej krizy na marketing a obchod : influence of the economic crisis on marketing and trade* (pp. 93-97). Zvolen: Bratia Sabovci s.r.o. Internal materials Asociacie slovenskych kupelov.

THE EFFECTS OF TERRORISM, CRIME AND CORRUPTION ON TOURISM

[Marfa Santana-Gallego](#) University of the Balearic Islands Palma de Mallorca, Illes Balears, Spain

[Jaume Rossello-Nadal](#) University of the Balearic Islands Palma de Mallorca, Illes Balears, Spain

[Johan Fourie](#) University of Stellenbosch Stellenbosch, South Africa

ABSTRACT

This article examines the effect of terrorism, crime and corruption on tourist arrivals for 171 countries for the period 1995-2013. Two types of analysis are analysed: an aggregated tourism demand model at country level and a disaggregation of tourism arrivals by origin. The findings from the aggregated one show that terrorism and crime have a negative effect on tourist arrivals but that corruption has no effect. The data on tourist arrivals disaggregated by origin are used to study the effects of instability in the destination and the origin country and to compare the instability measures of the two countries. Here the findings are that terrorism, crime and corruption in the destination country have a negative effect on inbound tourism but that instability in the origin country has no clear effect on tourist departures; and that tourists from stable countries prefer travelling to countries with the same stability but tourists from unstable countries are more tolerant of crime, terrorism and corruption in the destination country.

Key Words: terrorism, crime, corruption, international tourism, gravity model.

INTRODUCTION

On 26 June 2015, 38 people, mostly British tourists, were killed by a gunman at a tourist resort in Port El Kantaoui, just outside the city of Sousse in Tunisia. Not to mention the human tragedy, the immediate economic consequences were devastating for an economy that gets almost 15% of its GDP from tourism: several tour operators and air carriers adjusted or even cancelled tourist bookings in the months that followed the attack. Many potential visitors shifted their holiday trips to safer destinations such as Spain or Italy. The Sousse attack was not an isolated event. Four other attacks took place on the same day: in France (one death), Kuwait (27 deaths), Syria (20 deaths) and Somalia (70 deaths). Terror attacks are not limited to a particular month or country. In 2015, they occurred throughout the year and in countries where tourism constitutes a significant share of exports, such as Israel (7%), Ukraine (7%), France (8%), the Philippines (8%), the US (9%), Thailand (16%), Egypt (16%), Turkey

(17%) and Kenya (18%).

However, terrorism is not the only instability factor affecting tourism destination choices. Crime and corruption imposes a burden on society. While in most parts of the world, crime and corruption rates are lower today than those recorded some decades ago, many countries still experience high levels of crime and corruption every year that are perceived as risk factors for potential tourists. In this sense, it is found that many of countries characterized by high levels of crime and corruption are not able to develop the tourist sector despite their potential cultural and environmental attractiveness (Assaf & Josiassen, 2012).

For the tourism industry, terrorism, crime and corruption are expected to act as negative attractors of a destination. Terrorist attacks are a form of violent event that we would expect to have a large negative effect on the tourism sector. Tourists want to travel to safe places - clearly, if they see a risk of injury or death, or even just becoming involved in a stressful situation, they will avoid that destination. There have been cases where tourists have been used as a political tool to gain more media coverage. When violence becomes widespread and prolonged, governments in tourists' origin countries will advise against travelling to the destination. Tourist agencies will cancel tours because of insufficient bookings and fear of liability suits and promote other destinations instead (Neumayer, 2014). A further problem is that terrorist attacks can damage infrastructure relevant to the tourism industry (Llorca-Vivero, 2008) and terrorist attacks and political riots may damage or destroy national treasures (Yap & Saha, 2013). In the case of crime, two additional plausible explanations for the negative correlation between insecurity and tourist arrivals can be that a lack of security increases the perceived satisfaction of an experience and the costs of protection (for the domestic service provider) also raise the costs tourists have to incur.

In the empirical literature a large and expanding number of works have discussed the factors influencing tourists' choice of destination including economic (such as income or price), geographic (such as distance, temperatures or beaches), historical (such as colonial background) or cultural (such as language, religion or ethnicity) (Assaf & Josiassen, 2012; Papatheodorou, 2001;). But many of these factors are time-invariant, and those that do vary do so slowly; few of these factors can explain why tourism grows faster in some countries than in others. In this way, the question of how far political and institutional instability in a country reduces tourism demand has scarcely been explored in the literature and it is mainly concerned with individual countries or specific violent events.

In a cross-country study of the link between corruption and tourism, Das and DiRienzo (2010) find a

negative association between corruption and tourist arrivals, and they find the association is stronger in developing than developed countries. Using a fixed-effects and Dynamic GMM specifications and a panel dataset of over 100 countries over 16 years, Propawe (2015) finds that a 1-point increase in the Corruption Perception Index (CPI), i.e. a reduction in corruption results in a 2 to 7% increase in tourism, *ceteris paribus*. Saha and Yap (2015) find a negative but non-linear association between corruption and tourism. They find that while corruption generally has a negative association with tourism, it has a marginally positive association if corruption is minimal. Finally, Balli et al. (2015) also define a gravity model for bilateral tourism and find that the quality of institutions, measured in terms of perceived corruption, is important to tourists when selecting destinations.

Then, to the best of our knowledge, measures of insecurity such as crime, corruption and terrorism have not been analysed jointly to explore their effect on tourism flows. However the joint consideration of these three dimensions of instability should overcome the potential bias in the quantification of each one of the factors considered separately. Additionally we investigate differences in the effects of instability on tourism according to purpose of trip, attractiveness of countries to tourists and countries' level of development using a novel bilateral dataset of tourism flows that allows analysing the effects of political instability not only the destination but also the origin country and, consequently, identifying the effect of similar instability indices in these countries on tourism demand.

DATA AND METHODS

Two-dimensional analysis

We first investigate the effects of political and institutional instability on tourism flows. We use a panel dataset of 171 destination countries for the period 1995-2013. We estimate a standard tourism demand model using a conventional linear functional form as follows:

$$\text{LnTou}_{it} = P_0 + P' \text{Controls}_{it} + \gamma' \text{Instability}^i + X_t + u_{it} \quad (1)$$

The model investigates a straightforward association between tourism demand and political and institutional instability. The model is estimated by a panel fixed effect technique, and year fixed effects (γ_t) are included to capture year effects common to all countries.

The dependent variable for tourism demand is Tou_{it} , which measures the logarithm of tourist arrivals in country i at year t . This variable includes two types of tourism, classified according the main

purpose of the trip: *LnPersonalt* , which is the logarithm of tourist arrivals for personal reasons (holidays, leisure and recreation and other reasons such as visiting friends and relatives) and *LnBusinessst* , which is the logarithm of tourist arrivals for business and professional reasons. This classification by type of tourism is a novelty of our research. The data are from the Compendium of Tourism Statistics compiled by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2015) and comprise tourist arrivals to 171 countries for the period 1995-2013 with data missing for some years for some countries. As the classification by purpose of trip is not available for all countries in the dataset, we present total tourist arrivals for 171 countries but tourist arrivals for personal or business reasons for only 149 countries.

The model includes two sets of variables. The first is a set of control variables (*Controlst*). The logarithm of real GDP per capita (*LnGDPpcit*) is used as a proxy for income and the logarithm of population (*LnPopt*) is used to control for the size of the country (Lim, 2006; Yap & Saha, 2013). The ratio of the PPP conversion factor (GDP) to the market exchange (*LnPricet*) is used as a proxy for differences in price levels. The ratio is obtained by dividing the PPP conversion factor by the market exchange rate (Eilat & Eivav, 2004). This variable is defined as the ‘number of units of a country's currency required to buy the same amount of goods and services in the domestic market as a US dollar would buy in the US’. These three variables are obtained from the World Development Indicators (WDI, 2015) compiled by the World Bank.

Finally, as a proxy for the quality of the institutions in the destination country, the variable voice and accountability (*VAit*) is used. This variable captures ‘perceptions of the extent to which a country's citizens are able to participate in selecting their government, as well as freedom of expression, freedom of association, and a free media’. In our model, voice and accountability can be interpreted as the effect of human freedoms and rights, and the effect of a democratic government on international tourism. These variables were defined by Kaufman et al. (2007) and published in the World Governance Indicators (WGI) by the World Bank. This variable ranges from -2.5 (weak) to 2.5 (strong). Since our model is estimated by panel fixed effect technique, all country specific time-invariant characteristics, such as geographical features, are absorbed by the fixed effects.

The second is a set of political and institutional instability variables (*Instabilityit*): terrorism (*Terrorismit*), crime (*Crimeit*) and corruption (Corruptions). In the tourism literature, empirical researchers such as Neumayer (2004), Llorca-Vivero (2008) and Feridun (2011) use the number of terrorist incidents as a proxy for the effects of terrorism on tourism demand. To define terrorism, we

use the number of successful terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants. This variable is a proxy of terrorist attacks controlling for the population size of the country. Data are obtained from the Global Terrorism Database (GTD, 2015), which defines terrorism as ‘the threatened or actual use of illegal force and violence by a non-state actor to attain a political, economic, religious, or social goal through fear, coercion, or intimidation’.

To define crime we only consider one type of crime, homicide. We do this because violent crime is expected to have a larger effect on tourists’ decisions than other types of crime, such as theft, and because homicide is a convenient proxy for crime rates because of data availability. Other types of violent crime such as assault, rape and kidnapping, may of course also affect tourists’ decisions, but the data are less readily available. Homicide data, however, are highly correlated with other violent crime proxies. We use as our variable the number of homicides per inhabitants. The data are obtained from the WDI.

To define corruption we use the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) provided by Transparency International (2015). This index measures perceived (not actual) levels of public sector corruption, ranging from 0 (more corrupt) to 10 (less corrupt). It is a composite index based on surveys and professional assessments and reflects the views of observers from around the world, including experts living and working in the surveyed countries. This is an appropriate variable for our model since the decision on where to spend one’s holiday is usually based on perceived rather than actual corruption.

In addition, following the suggestions of Altindag (2014) and Propawe (2015), we explore the effect of lagged instability variables. We do this for two reasons. First, it may take some time for potential tourists to update their expectations after a terrorist attack or an increase in the risk of becoming a victim of crime or an increase in corruption. This lagged effect of instability is relevant for terrorist attacks because of the assumptions that tourists book their holiday in advance and that it takes time for the tourism sector to recover after an attack. Second, using the current instability rate could generate an endogeneity problem. A country’s crime rate can be affected by tourism activity: crime committed by residents of the destination country may increase because tourists are perceived to be wealthy, and similarly, tourists’ perceptions of corruption may increase when they visit the country. We thus estimate equation (2), where the instability variables are lagged one period:

$$\text{LnTou}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta' \text{Controls}_{it} + \gamma' \text{Instability}_{it-1} + \lambda_t + u_{it} \quad (2)$$

Three-dimensional analysis

The second part of the analysis explores the effects of terrorism, crime and corruption on international tourism flows by considering differences between tourists' origin and destination countries. For this three-dimensional analysis (origin, destination and year), we define a gravity model for international tourism flows. Gravity models are commonly used in the trade literature (e.g., Baier & Bergstrand, 2007; Head et al., 2010; Kimura & Lee, 2006; Rose & Spiegel, 2011), and increasingly in tourism research (De Vita, 2014; Eilat & Einav, 2004; Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2008; Neumayer, 2010). These models consider that international flows between two countries are directly proportional to their economic size and inversely proportional to the distance between both countries. Morley et al. (2014) have shown that gravity models for tourism can be derived from consumer choice theory to explain bilateral tourism. The estimated gravity model for tourism demand is defined in equation (3)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LnTou}_{ijt} = & \beta_0 + \beta'_1 \text{Controls}_{it} + \beta'_2 \text{Controls}_{jt} + \beta'_3 \text{Controls}_{ij} + \beta'_4 \text{Controls}_{ijt} \\ & + \gamma'_1 \text{Instability}_{it} + \gamma'_2 \text{Instability}_{jt} + \gamma'_3 \text{SimillInstability} + \lambda_i + \lambda_j + \lambda_t + \epsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where, sub-indices i, j and t refer to destination, origin and year, respectively. The model is estimated using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) by including destination (A), origin (Aj) and year (A) fixed effects. Since the variables of interest are time-varying and country specific, time-varying country fixed effects cannot be included in the regression. The dependent variable is tourist arrivals from 171 origin countries to 176 destination countries for the period 1995-2013. One limitation of this data for the purposes of our research is that it does not disaggregate tourists by purpose of trip.

The gravity model uses four sets of control variables. The first set consists of time-varying country-specific characteristics of the destination (*Controls_{it}*) and origin (*Controls_{jt}*) countries. In this set the logarithm of GDP per capita in the origin and the destination country (*LnGDPpcit* and *LnGDPpcjt*) and the logarithm and the population (*LnPopit* and *LnPopjt*) are included as measures of the economic size of the countries. And as in the two-dimension analysis, the variables voice and accountability in the destination and the origin country (*VAit* and *VAjt*) are included as controls for the quality of the institutions.

The second set consists of time-invariant country-pair characteristics (*Controls_{ij}*). The gravity model

predicts that tourism flows between two countries will depend on the cost of travelling between them. Distance is commonly used as a proxy for transport cost, so we include in the model the logarithm of the distance between the destination and the origin country ($LnDist_{ijt}$). We also include dummy variables to control for: sharing a common land border ($Border_{ijt}$), having ever had a colonial link ($Colony_{ijt}$), being currently in a colonial relationship ($Curcol_{ijt}$) and having been the same country ($Smctry_{ijt}$).

The third set consists of time-variant country-pair variables ($Controls_{ijt}$). To control for the intensity of the economic relationship between a pair of countries, it includes a dummy variable for being a signatory to the same regional trade agreement (RTA_{ijt}). These data are obtained from the Regional Trade Agreements Information System compiled by the World Trade Organization. We also include a religious similarity index variable ($Religion_{ijt}$) as defined by Fourie et al. (2015). This variable is generated as $Religion_{ijt} = \sum_i \sum_j r_i r_j$ where r_i and r_j are the percentages of the population affiliated to each of the five major religions in the destination and origin country, respectively: Christian, Muslim, Hindu, Buddhist and Jew. The religious similarity index represents the probability that two randomly chosen individuals in each country will share the same religion. According to this definition, a country pair can be considered religiously proximate if they have either a common religious majority or a common religious minority. The percentages of affiliation to each religion are obtained from the World Religion Database (WRD, 2015).

The fourth set consists of political and institutional instability variables in the destination and in the origin country, respectively $Instability_t$ and $Instability_{jt}$. These variables are defined as in Section 3.1. In the gravity model (3), we include $Terrorism_{it}$ and $Terrorism_{jt}$, which measure the number of terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants in the destination and the origin country, respectively; $Crimes_{it}$ and $Crimes_{jt}$, which measure the number of homicides per inhabitants in the destination and the origin country, respectively; and $Corruption_{it}$ and $Corruption_{jt}$, which measure the corruption perception index in the destination and the origin country, respectively.

We also capture similarities in the instability variables between the destination and origin country. One can argue that tourists from politically and institutionally stable countries prefer travelling to other stable countries, while tourists from countries with high levels of terrorism, crime or corruption are more tolerant of similar problems in a destination country. Following De Groot et al. (2003), to proxy for similarities in the terrorism, crime and corruption variables between the destination and origin country, we construct dummy variables $SimilInstab_{ijt}$ that take the value one/zero if the

absolute value of the differences in instability is below/above the median of the variable in the sample. Three instability variables are used as proxies for terrorism. The estimated effect of similar instability, measured in this way as a discrete effect, can be interpreted clearly and concisely. Specifically, a positive effect of these bilateral tourism variables would imply that tourists prefer to travel to countries similar to their home country in terms of terrorism, crime and corruption.

We also include an alternative proxy for similarities in the instability variable, which is measured as differences between instability in the destination and origin countries $s\ DiffInstab_{ijt} = Instability_{it} - Instability_{jt}$ [Since $DiffInstability_{ijt}$ is a linear combination of instability in the destination and origin country, equation (4) is estimated as follows

$$\begin{aligned} LnTou_{ijt} = & \beta_0 + \beta'_1 Controls_{it} + \beta'_2 Controls_{jt} + \beta'_3 Controls_{ij} + \beta'_4 Controls_{ijt} \\ & + \varphi' DiffInstability + \lambda_i + \lambda_j + \lambda_t + \epsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Again, differences in the instability variables are defined for terrorism and corruption. It is expected that, the two variable for terrorism and crime take negative values when the destination country has lower rates of terrorism attacks or homicides than the origin country, respectively; similarly, they take positive values when terrorism and crime rates are higher in the destination country, and they take a value of zero when these rates are the same in the destination and origin country. We therefore expect these variables to have a negative effect on inbound tourism. In contrast, since a higher CPI implies lower perceived corruption levels, the variable $DiffCorrup_{ijt}$ takes positive values when the destination country is perceived to be less corrupt than the origin country, negative values when the destination country is perceived be more corrupt than the origin country, and the value zero when corruption is perceived to be the same in both countries. We thus hypothesise that people from less corrupt countries prefer travelling to countries with a similar level of corruption, the expected sign of $DiffCorrup_{ijt}$ is positive.

RESULTS

The effect of instability on tourist arrivals (two-dimensional analysis)

Table 1 presents the results of estimating equations (1) and (2) for the total tourist arrivals, which includes arrivals for both personal and business purposes. Each column shows the estimate of the instability variable and its lag. Due to data availability, all the instability variables cannot be included

at the same time without considerably reducing the sample size. The variable terrorism has the most complete data, so it is included in all regressions, but crime and corruption are available for only 166 and 121 countries, respectively, with many missing values for some years.

In general, for all the estimates, the coefficient of GDP is significantly positive, implying that richer countries receive more tourists. Since the dependent variable is also expressed as a logarithm, the coefficient can be interpreted as an elasticity, implying that a 1% increase in real GDP per capita increases tourist arrivals by 0.84 to 1.35%. Similarly, the coefficient of population is significantly positive, implying that a 1% increase in the destination country population attracts from 0.8 to 1.07% more tourists to the country. The coefficient of VA, the variable that controls for the quality of the institutions, ranges from 0.13 to 0.36, implying that the presence of a democratic government significantly increases inbound tourism. We can take this to mean that a country that respects the essential human rights and freedoms attracts more tourists. Finally, the variable used as a proxy for relative prices is not significant (LnPrice), implying that price competitiveness is not relevant. However, this result is to be expected since the sample includes very similar countries.

Table 1. Effects of terrorism, crime and corruption on total tourist arrivals						
	<i>Terrorism</i>		<i>Crime</i>		<i>Corruption</i>	
	(1a)	(1b)	(2a)	(2b)	(3a)	(3b)
<i>LnGDPpc_{it}</i>	1.033***	0.957***	1.348***	1.318***	0.841***	0.885***
<i>LnPop_{it}</i>	1.069***	1.063***	0.858*	0.853*	0.901**	0.808**
<i>LnVA_{it}</i>	0.198**	0.189**	0.358**	0.318**	0.134*	0.155*
<i>LnPrice_{it}</i>	0.164	0.192	-0.0623	-0.0544	-0.0358	-0.0905
<i>Terrorism_{it}</i>	-2.321***		-1.822***		-2.584***	
<i>Terrorism_{it-1}</i>		-1.744***		-1.539**		-1.938*
<i>Crime_{it}</i>			-0.0657***			
<i>Crime_{it-1}</i>				-0.0619***		
<i>Corruption_{it}</i>					0.0129	
<i>Corruption_{it-1}</i>						0.00530
Observations	2,135	2,032	1,883	1,810	1,762	1,655
R-squared	0.593	0.586	0.525	0.497	0.557	0.555
Countries	171	171	166	164	121	121

For simplicity, year and country fixed effects and constant are not reported. Columns (1a), (2a) and (3b) present the immediately effect of instability on tourism, while columns (1b), (2b) and (3b) present the lagged impact. Robust standard errors in parentheses. Significance level: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

First, columns (1a) and (1b) in Table 1 show the results of estimating the tourism demand model with terrorism. The coefficient of the variable Terrorism is significantly negative, implying that a 1% increase in the ratio of terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants reduces tourist arrivals by 2.3%. This

is also true for the lagged variable $Terrorism^{t-1}$), implying that a 1% increase in that variable reduces inbound tourism by 1.74%. These results imply that terrorism negatively affects the tourism sector and this effect can still be seen one year afterwards, although it is smaller than the immediate effect.

Second, we look at the effect of crime rates on inbound tourism. These results are presented in columns (2a) and (2b). The coefficients of *Crimen* and *Crime(t-i)* are significant and present the expected negative sign. Indeed, the estimate effects of the crime rate and the crime rate lagged one period are very similar. In particular, a 1% increase in the number of homicides per 10,000 inhabitants reduces tourism flows by 0.06%.

Third, we look at the effect of corruption on inbound tourism. The estimates are shown in columns (3a) and (3b). Here a higher index is associated with a less corrupt country, so we expect *Corruptionit* and *Corruption(it-1)* to have a positive effect of on tourism. However, although the signs of the coefficients are as expected, neither of these variables is significant, implying that corruption does not have a significant effect on international tourist arrivals. Our result differs from those obtained by Propawe (2015) or Saha and Yap (2015), who use the same proxy for corruption but obtain a significantly negative effect of corruption on tourism; that is, they find that countries with lower corruption levels are more attractive to international tourists. The only plausible explanation is that their samples and specifications are different from ours.

So far, we have explored the effect of instability on inbound tourism. Our results suggest that countries with less risk of terrorism or crime attract more tourism but that corruption has no significant effect on tourism. The results using lagged variables suggest that the effect of instability lasts at least one year although the effect is weaker a year later. Tourism to some destinations seems to be resilient to terrorist attacks, crime and corruption and recovers more quickly than tourism to other similarly affected countries.

We looked next at the possibility that incoming tourists' reaction to terrorism, crime and corruption differs according to the attractiveness of a country. Our measure of attraction is the number of world heritage sites a country has. We expect that instability will have less effect on tourism in more attractive countries. And finally we looked at whether a country's level of development affected the extent to which instability affects inbound tourism. Table 2 disaggregates tourists according to purpose of trip and presents the coefficients of instability variables according to countries' levels of attractiveness to tourists and state of development.

We first present the results by purpose of the trip for the whole sample. As expected, the effects of terrorism and crime on tourist arrivals are larger for personal (or ‘leisure’) travel than for business travel, and the same applies in the case of the lagged variables. Indeed, a 1% increase in the ratio of terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants decreases leisure tourist arrivals by 3.45%, but business tourist arrivals by only 2.66%. Similarly, a 1% increase in the crime rate reduces leisure tourist arrivals by 0.07% but has no significant effect on business tourist arrivals. However, when the main purpose of the trip is business between countries with a strong economic relationship, the destination cannot be easily substituted. This explains why terrorism and crime are not significant at the 5% level for business tourism. In the case of corruption, we found it only affects tourism for business purposes. This may be because corruption affects the economic relationship between countries. We found that corruption has no significant effect on leisure tourism, and so on total tourism.

Table 2. Effects of terrorism, crime and corruption on tourist arrivals according to purpose of trip, and attractiveness and level of development of country

		<i>Terrorism</i>	<i>Crime</i>	<i>Corruption</i>
All countries (171)	<i>LnTou_{it}</i>	-2.328***	-0.0657***	0.012
	<i>LnPersonal_{it}</i>	-3.454***	-0.0718***	0.0503
	<i>LnBusiness_{it}</i>	-2.155*	-0.0415	0.113***
Countries attractive to tourists (88)	<i>LnTou_{it}</i>	-2.343***	-0.0489	0.0426
	<i>LnPersonal_{it}</i>	-3.235***	-0.00932	0.0551
	<i>LnBusiness_{it}</i>	-0.401	0.108	0.0793*
Countries unattractive to tourists (83)	<i>LnTou_{it}</i>	-2.092**	-0.0703***	-0.077
	<i>LnPersonal_{it}</i>	-3.284***	-0.0803***	0.00527
	<i>LnBusiness_{it}</i>	-2.646*	-0.0809*	0.194**
Developed countries (99)	<i>LnTou_{it}</i>	-2.025***	-0.0728***	0.0503
	<i>LnPersonal_{it}</i>	-3.032***	-0.0616*	0.0886
	<i>LnBusiness_{it}</i>	-2.737**	-0.0174	0.0667
Developing countries (72)	<i>LnTou_{it}</i>	-4.397*	-0.0238	-0.186**
	<i>LnPersonal_{it}</i>	-5.535**	-0.0323	-0.0218
	<i>LnBusiness_{it}</i>	-2.079	-0.0702	0.214*

Significance level: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Second, we present the results of our analysis of the effect of terrorism, crime and corruption on tourism according to country attractiveness. We split the sample into Countries attractive to tourists (those with more than 2 world heritage sites) and Countries unattractive to tourists (those with 0, 1 or 2 world heritage sites). Table 4 shows that for leisure tourism, the effect of terrorism is slightly higher in countries attractive to tourists than in countries not attractive to tourists. Terrorism also has no

significant effect on business tourism in countries attractive to tourists but it has a negative effect on business tourism in countries not attractive to tourists. Crime has no effect on tourism for either leisure or business for Countries attractive to tourists but a negative effect for both purposes for Countries unattractive to tourists. This result is similar to the finding by Altindag (2014) that if tourists are attracted by a country's tourism prospects they may not be significantly deterred by the crime rate. In other words, the attractiveness of a country may partly compensate for the possibility of becoming a victim. Finally, perceived corruption has a significant effect only on tourism for business purpose in countries attractive to tourists. These results suggest that attractiveness to tourists moderates the effect of instability on inbound tourism. Tourism is less affected by terrorism, crime or corruption in countries with a large number of heritage sites that attract tourists every year, since it is not easy to find substitutes for such destinations.

Third, we present the results of our investigation into whether the effect of instability has different effects on tourist arrivals in developed and developing countries. Table 4 shows that terrorism has a larger effect on travel to developing than developed countries, presumably because violent events are more common in the former. In contrast, crime has a significantly negative effect on total tourism and on leisure tourism to developed countries but no significant effect on tourism to developing countries, possibly because tourists accept that they have to tolerate a certain level of crime in the latter. Finally, we find that an increase in the perceived level of corruption reduces only business tourist arrivals in developing countries, but, strangely, increases total tourist arrivals in less developed countries.

The effect of instability on tourist arrivals by country of origin (three-dimensional analysis)

Table 3 presents the results of estimating equations (3) and (4) that use the number of tourist arrivals to destination country i from origin country j at year t ($\ln [\text{Tou}]_{ijt}$) as the dependent variable. As mentioned earlier, the UNWTO data on total tourist arrivals by origin country does not include purpose of trip. The gravity model is estimated by OLS with destination, origin and year fixed effects. The results of estimate equation (3) are presented in columns (1a), (2a) and (3a) in Table 5 and estimates of equation (4) are presented in columns (1b), (2b) and (3b).

Table 3. Effects of terrorism, crime and corruption on total tourist arrivals by country of origin

	<i>Terrorism</i>		<i>Crime</i>		<i>Corruption</i>	
	(1a)	(1b)	(2a)	(2b)	(3a)	(3b)
<i>LnGDPpc_{it}</i>	1.135***	1.134***	1.045***	1.050***	0.974***	1.011***
<i>LnPop_{it}</i>	0.925***	0.923***	0.245*	0.217	0.560***	0.518***
<i>LnVA_{it}</i>	0.199***	0.201***	0.227***	0.226***	0.0193	0.0388
<i>LnGDPpc_{jt}</i>	0.644***	0.644***	0.694***	0.699***	0.625***	0.675***
<i>LnPop_{jt}</i>	0.315***	0.311***	0.695***	0.671***	0.428***	0.446***
<i>LnVA_{jt}</i>	-0.0266	-0.0246	-0.0233	-0.0222	-0.0264	-0.00576
<i>LnDist_{ij}</i>	-1.410***	-1.410***	-1.334***	-1.338***	-1.328***	-1.328***
<i>Border_{ij}</i>	1.061***	1.061***	0.834***	0.833***	1.137***	1.139***
<i>Language_{ij}</i>	0.986***	0.986***	0.935***	0.937***	0.998***	0.998***
<i>Colony_{ij}</i>	0.865***	0.865***	0.667***	0.666***	0.698***	0.699***
<i>Curcol_{ij}</i>	-1.643	-1.643	-1.216	-1.218	-2.662*	-2.669*
<i>Smctry_{ij}</i>	0.338***	0.339***	0.298**	0.299**	0.151	0.149
<i>RTA_{ijt}</i>	0.683***	0.684***	0.617***	0.621***	0.655***	0.658***
<i>Relig_{ijt}</i>	1.218***	1.217***	1.127***	1.127***	1.306***	1.308***
<i>Terrorism_{it}</i>	-0.513***		-1.838***	-1.840***	-1.080***	-1.093***
<i>Terrorism_{jt}</i>	0.560***		-0.0796	-0.0907	0.346*	0.232
<i>SimilTerror_{ijt}</i>	0.0345***					
<i>DiffTerror_{ijt}</i>		-0.548***				
<i>Crime_{it}</i>			-0.0191*			
<i>Crime_{jt}</i>			0.0106			
<i>SimilCrime_{ijt}</i>			0.0538**			
<i>DiffCrime_{ijt}</i>				-0.0156*		
<i>Corruption_{it}</i>					0.0820***	
<i>Corruption_{jt}</i>					0.0155	
<i>SimilCorrup_{ijt}</i>					0.0195	
<i>DiffCorrup_{ijt}</i>						0.0347***
Observations	176,672	176,672	92,250	92,250	120,048	120,048
R-squared	0.843	0.843	0.872	0.872	0.856	0.856

For simplicity, destination, origin and year fixed effects and constant are not reported. In columns (1a), (2a) and (3a) the similarity in the instability variables are included, while columns (1b), (2b) and (3b) present the differences in the instability proxies. Robust standard errors in parentheses. Significance level: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

In general, our gravity model works well, explaining around 86% bilateral tourism and the sign and significance of the explanatory variables are as expected. As the model predicts, the economic size of the origin country, measured in terms of the logarithm of the real GDP per capita and population in the origin and destination country, matters for explaining bilateral tourism flows in all regressions used. The effect of the economic size of the destination country is larger than that of the origin one, suggesting that more populated and richer countries attract a larger number of international tourists. The quality of the institutions in the destination country, measured in terms of the level of democracy, significantly affects international tourism while their quality in the origin country has no significant effect. The geographical variable has the expected negative sign and has the expected positive effect on tourism movements. So, if we consider distance as a proxy for travel costs, our results suggest that tourists prefer to travel to closer destinations. Cultural variables have a significantly positive effect, suggesting that speaking the same language, having the same colonial background or practising the same religion promote tourism movements between countries. Finally, being a signatory to a common regional trade agreement has a positive effect on international tourism. The implication is that the

intensity of the economic relationship between countries encourages bilateral tourism.

Looking at the variables of interest, as obtained in the previous section, we see that terrorism has a negative effect on the destination country. The coefficient of the terrorism variable suggests that 1% increase in the number of terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants in the destination country reduces tourist arrivals by 0.51%. Interestingly, the terrorism variable has a significantly positive coefficient, implying that a 1% increase in the number of terrorist attacks per 10,000 inhabitants in the origin country increases international tourism. The implication is that countries that have suffered terrorist attacks receive less tourism but their inhabitants travel more. The coefficient of similar terrorism is significantly positive, implying that if the destination and origin countries have similar levels of terrorism this has a positive effect on international tourism. This result is confirmed by the estimates presented in column (1b) since the effect of the difference in terrorism is significantly negative, implying that a 1% increase in the difference in the terrorism level between the destination and the origin country reduces bilateral tourism by a 0.548%. In other words, as terrorism increases in the destination country compared to the origin one, the number of tourist arrivals decreases.

The results show that crime is significant for the destination country but not for the origin one. The coefficient of crime variable implies that a 1% increase in homicides per 10,000 inhabitants reduces inbound tourism by 0.0191%. The coefficient of crime similarity the variable for similarities in the crime rate between the destination and the origin country, has a significantly positive effect on tourist arrivals and *crime difference* has the expected significantly negative effect. Thus, similarity in the two countries' crime rates positively affects bilateral tourism. Finally, *LnCorruption* has a significantly positive effect on tourism while *LnCorruptionjt* is not relevant. Like crime, perceived corruption has a significantly negative effect on tourism. That is, a higher score on the CPI (indicating a less corrupt country) implies a higher number of tourist arrivals. The significance of the variables of similarities and differences in corruption suggests that a similar level of corruption in the destination and origin country promotes tourism flows.

CONCLUSION

This study investigated the performance of the tourism industry in terms of tourist arrivals in the presence of terrorism, crime and corruption for 171 countries for the period 1995-2013. To do this we used two types of analysis: two-dimensional and three-dimensional. The two-dimensional analysis used total tourist arrivals per destination. This analysis suggested that terrorism and crime have a negative effect on tourist arrivals but corruption has no significant effect. We also considered whether

the effect of instability on tourist arrivals might differ according to the purpose of the trip. Our results suggested that the effects of terrorism and crime are larger for tourism for personal reasons than for business trips, but corruption only affects business tourism. This is the expected result since tourist destinations are easier to substitute when the purpose of the trip is for leisure or other personal reasons than for business. After a terrorist attack or an increase in crime, tourists might choose a safer destination with characteristics similar to their first choice or they might just stop travelling if the purpose of the trip is for personal reasons. However, when the main purpose of the trip is business between countries with a strong economic relationship, the destination cannot be easily substituted if.

We also explored the effects of terrorism, crime and corruption on tourism according to the attractiveness of a country to tourists and its level of development. Our results suggest a larger effect of terrorism and crime on tourism for personal reasons in less tourist attractive countries. Similarly, the effect of corruption is larger in less attractive countries, but this is only true for tourism for business reasons. Our results therefore suggest that attractiveness to tourists moderates the effect of instability on inbound tourism. Tourism in countries with a large number of world heritage sites that attract large numbers of tourists every year is less affected by events of terrorism, crime or corruption since these destinations cannot be easily substituted. For the effects of development level we obtained mixed results. We found that terrorism has a larger effect on tourism in developing than developed countries. In contrast, we found that crime has a significantly negative effect on total tourism and on tourism for personal reasons in developed countries but no significant effect in developing countries. Since crime rates are high in developing countries, when tourists choose a less developed country as a holiday destination, they may assume that they have to tolerate a certain level of crime. Finally, we found that an increase in the perceived level of corruption only reduces tourist arrivals for business reasons to developing countries. Interestingly, we found a positive effect of corruption on total tourist arrivals to less developed countries.

The three-dimensional analysis (origin, destination and year) is an important contribution of our research since the few papers in the literature that have studied the effect of political and institutional variables on tourism mainly apply the two-dimensional analysis (destination and year) where data on total arrivals only to the destination country are considered. It allowed us to explore the effect of instability not only in the destination country but also in the origin one. We considered the effect of similarities in the instability measures between the destination and the origin country. As in the two-dimensional analysis, we found that terrorism, crime and corruption in the destination country have a negative effect on inbound tourism, while instability in the origin country has no clear effect on tourist

departures. What is more interesting, our results suggest that tourists from stable countries prefer travelling to countries with the same conditions, while tourists from unstable countries are more tolerant of terrorism, crime and corruption in the destination country.

In conclusion, our analysis found that political and institutional instability, measured in terms of terrorism, crime and corruption, discourages international tourism movement. We suggest that tourism demand models should incorporate proxies for political risk and the quality of institutions at the destination country to obtain a more accurate forecast of tourist arrivals.

REFERENCES

- Alleyne, D. & Boxill, I. (2003). The impact of crime on tourist arrivals in Jamaica, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 5, 381-391.
- Arana, J. E., & Leon, C.J. (2008). The impact of terrorism on tourism demand, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (2), 299-315.
- Assaf, A.G., & Josiassen, A. (2012). Identifying and Ranking the Determinants of Tourism Performance: A Global Investigation, *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(4), 388-399.
- Baier, S. L., & Bergstrand, J. H. (2007). Do free trade agreements actually increase members' international trade? *Journal of international Economics*, 71(1), 72-95.
- Balli, F., Balli, H. O. & Rosmy, J. L. (2016). The impacts of immigrants and institutions on bilateral tourism flows, *Tourism Management*, 52, 221-229.
- Das, J., & Dirienzo, C. (2010). Tourism competitiveness and corruption: A cross-country analysis, *Tourism Economics*, 16(3), 477-492.
- De Groot, H., G. Linders, & P. Rietveld. (2003). The institutional determinants of bilateral trade patterns, Tinbergen Institute Discussion Paper 03-044/3.
- De Vita, G. (2014). The long-run impact of exchange rate regimes on international tourism flows, *Tourism Management*, 45, 226-233.
- Duffy, R. 2000. Shadow players: Ecotourism development, corruption and state politics in Belize, *Third World Quarterly*, 21(3), 549-565.
- Eilat, Y. & L. Einav. (2004). Determinants of international tourism: A three dimensional panel data analysis, *Applied Economics*, 36, 1315-1327.
- Feridun, Mete. (2011). Impact of terrorism on tourism in Turkey: Empirical evidence from Turkey, *Applied Economics*, 43 (24), 3349-3354.
- Fleischer, A., & Buccola, S. (2002). War, terror, and the tourism market in Israel, *Applied Economics*, 34, 1335-1343.
- Fourie, J. & Santana-Gallego, M. (2011). The impact of mega-sport events on tourist arrivals, *Tourism Management*, 32, 1364-1370.
- GTD (2015). Global terrorism Database. <http://www.start.umd.edu/gtd/using-gtd/>
- Head, K., Mayer, T., & Ries, J. (2010). The erosion of colonial trade linkages after independence. *Journal of International Economics*, 81(1), 1-14.

- Henderson, J.C. (2003). The politics of tourism in Myanmar, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(2), 97-118.
- Khadaroo, J., & Seetanah, B. (2008). The role of transport infrastructure in international tourism development: A gravity model approach, *Tourism Management*, 29, 831-840.
- Kimura, F., & Lee, H-H. (2006). The gravity equation in international trade in services, *Review of World Economics*, 142, 92-121.
- Levantis, T. & Gani, A. (2000). Tourism demand and the nuisance of crime, *International Journal of Social Economics*, 27:959-67.
- Leung, P, Lam, T, & Wong, S. (1996). Tourism development in Cambodia: An analysis of opportunities and barriers, *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 27-33.
- Llorca-Vivero, Rafael. (2008). Terrorism and international tourism: New evidence, *Defence and Peace Economics*, 19(2), 169-88.
- Lorde, Troy, & Mahalia Jackman. (2012). Evaluating the impact of crime on tourism in Barbados: A transfer function approach, *Tourism Analysis*, 18 (2), 183-191.
- McPheters L, & Stronge, W. (1974) Crime as an environmental externality of tourism: Miami, Florida, *Land Economics*, 50 (2), 288-292.
- Morley, C., Rossello, J., & Santana-Gallego, M. (2014). Gravity models for tourism demand: Theory and use, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 48, 1-10.
- Neumayer, E. (2004). The impact of political violence on tourism: Dynamic cross-national estimation, *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 48 (2), 259-81.
- Neumayer, E. (2010). Visa restrictions and bilateral travel, *Professional Geographer*, 62(2), 171-181.
- Papatheodorou, A. (2001). Why people travel to different places. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(1), 164-179,
- Propawe, M. (2015). A panel data analysis of the effect of corruption on tourism, *Applied Economics*, Vol. 47(3), 2399-2412
- Rose, A. K., & Spiegel, M. M. (2011). The Olympic effect*, *Economic Journal*, 121(553), 652-677.
- Smyth R, Nielsen I, & Mishra V (2009) I've been to Bali too' (and I will be going back): Are terrorist shocks to Bali's tourist arrivals permanent or transitory? *Applied Economics*, 41, 1367-1378.
- Saha, S. & Yap, G. (2015). Corruption and tourism: An empirical investigation in a non-linear framework, *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17, 272-281.
- Tosun, C. & Timothy, D. (2001). Shortcomings in planning approaches to tourism development in developing countries: The case of Turkey, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(7), 352-359.
- Transparency International (2015). Corruption Perceptions Index. <http://www.transparency.org/country/>
- UNWTO (2015). Compendium of Tourism Statistics by United Nation World Tourism Organization. <http://www.e-unwto.org/loi/unwtotfb>
- WDI (2015). World Development Indicators database by World Bank. <http://databank.worldbank.org/data>
- WRD (2015). World Religion Database. <http://www.worldreligiondatabase.org/wrd default.asp>
- Yap, G. & Saha S. (2013). Do political instability, terrorism and corruption have deterring effects on

tourism development even in the presence of UNESCO heritage? A cross-country panel estimate, *Tourism Analysis*, 18, 587599.

DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF SPORT EVENT TRAVELERS' BEHAVIOR

Michela Cesarina Mason
Andrea Moretti
Adriano Paggiaro
Francesco Raggiotto
University of Udine Udine, Italy

ABSTRACT

This paper analyzes the relationships between self-congruity, functional congruity, satisfaction, sport event involvement and behavioral intentions of triathlon travellers. The moderating effect of different training experiences is assessed in allowing these relations.

885 data were collected among triathletes participating to international triathlon competitions. A theoretical model has been developed and tested using SEM.

The majority of hypotheses are empirically confirmed. Regarding the moderation hypothesis, a multi-group SEM has been estimated (high-intensity and low-intensity training). Some differences between the two groups are highlighted, remarking the need to develop differential marketing strategies in active sport tourism.

Key Words: sport tourism; triathlon; self-congruity; functional congruity

INTRODUCTION

Sport tourism is defined as “leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities” (Gibson, 1998). Sport tourism is a relatively recent, impressively growing phenomenon (Gibson, 1998; Hinch et al., 2016). Its high profitability has created a dynamic industry, characterized by a multifaceted offering and an increasingly growing competition. The increasing economic relevance of the phenomenon has triggered the interest of management research, who has devoted increasing efforts to investigate sport tourism (e.g., Bosnjak et al., 2016; Funk et al., 2007; Gibson, 1998; Hinch & Higham, 2001). However, despite this growing

interest, existing research appears limited. In particular, sport tourism research has mostly considered passive sport tourists (i.e., spectators of sport events: Gibson et al., 1997; Priestley, 1995; Trail & James, 2001). In this sense, dynamics related to active sport tourists have received negligible attention; however, the increasing willingness of people to participate in such kind of activities, and the consequent relevant economic impact of such tourism activities (Dixon et al., 2013), recently pushed academics to focus more on this research area (e.g., Bosnjak et al., 2016; Funk et al., 2007; Getz & McConnell, 2011; Gibson, 1998; Kouthouris & Alexandris, 2005; McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003).

Extant contributions have suggested how the field is quite complex. For example, some authors (e.g., Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010) have suggested how, active sport tourists differ in terms of consumption types: non event- and event-related consumption. The former are only leisure-based tourists, while the latter associate event participation to their travel behavior. In terms of consumer motivation, research suggests how motivations of active sport tourists are extremely multifaceted and heterogeneous (e.g., Shanks, 2002; Stewart et al., 2003; Kurtzman & Zauher, 2005): in this sense, sport travellers might be motivated both by the desire to compete in a sport event; at the same time, tourism-related motivations (e.g., escape, destination attributes) are not negligible, and are likely to drive selection of events as well.

Such multifaceted nature of consumer decision making process poses important challenges, both for sport and tourism marketers, and for scholars.

This paper contributes to this debate by developing and testing a model to explore active sport tourists' determinants of satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Structural Equation Modeling has been performed on a sample of participants to four European triathlon events.

In the last four decades, triathlon has experienced a considerable growth (e.g., Chang & Johnson, 2005; Wicker et al., 2012). Such growth has triggered a strong scientific interest. Triathlon has been studied by various disciplines, ranging from medicine (e.g., O'Toole et al., 1987) to physics (e.g., O'Toole et al., 1989). Management and marketing research has also devoted efforts to research on triathlon, especially in recent years (e.g., Baumann, 2009; Smith, 2010; Wicker et al., 2012). Triathlon events are prominent in the sport tourism industry (Hadzipetros, 2009; Shipway & Fyall, 2012). As an example, the triathlon IRONMAN series offers different events, located in many parts of the world. More in general, an overwhelming demand has triggered the growth of several international events around the globe, usually located in touristic areas (e.g., Lake Garda in Italy, Hawaii).

The model proposed in this paper is based on two pillars. On the one hand, it considers the impact of consumer congruity evaluations on consumer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Both the self-image congruity with the event, and the functional congruity with the functional attributes of the hosting destination are considered.

On the other hand, involvement represents the second pillar of the proposed model. The involvement construct is central in social sciences (Krugman, 1966). Particularly, the involvement construct appears as particularly relevant in fields like organization, consumer, and leisure research. Note that, as suggested by Beaton et al (2011), these fields are strongly pertinent for sport management, and tourism management research. In tourism research, involvement is a well—known and well-researched construct (e.g., Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003; Havitz & Dimanche, 1990; Yeh, 2013); oppositely, few contributions in sport management research have addressed involvement (Beaton et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2016), as well as in sport tourism (both active and passive).

Given the specific topic selected for this study, the contribution of the present paper can be considered as twofold: on the one hand, further exploration of the role of congruity evaluations for active sport tourists is provided. On the other hand, the study enriches literature on involvement in sport tourism management research.

Finally, this paper provides a dynamic perspective on the proposed relationships. Basing on some existing contributions, this paper follows the suggestion that consumer evaluations might change, over time, according to different consumer backgrounds in terms of consumption episodes (Dagger & Sweeney, 2007; Jiang & Rosenbloom, 2005). In this specific case, the moderating effect of different sport training backgrounds on all the proposed relationships is investigated.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Self-congruity

Self-congruity is referred to the perceived match between a consumer (in this case, the tourist) self-concept and the perceived image of a certain product/service (Kressmann et al., 2006). Perceived congruence tends to lead to the actual purchase (Mannetti et al., 2004). In this sense, consumers tend to purchase those products/services that are perceived as close to their self-concept.

Reflecting the multiple role that people are likely to held in society (Rosenberg, 1979), the self-concept is commonly considered to have multiple dimensions: actual self-concept, ideal self-concept,

social actual and ideal self-concept. Note that, ideal and actual self-concept have been mostly studied in literature. (e.g., Beerli et al., 2007; Litvin & Goh, 2002). In line with much of previous research, the present paper only examines the ideal and actual dimensions of self-concept. This choice can be also justified by another point, raised in past contributions: that is, the more “individual” dimensions of self-concept (i.e., actual and ideal self-concept) can strongly influence social-related dimensions (Ekinici et al., 2003).

Actual self reflects how a person sees him or herself; conversely, ideal self-concerns the way a person would like to see him or herself. Social self-concept (i.e., actual social and ideal social) refers instead to how a person presents him or herself to others (Sirgy et al., 2005).

Accordingly, on the one hand, actual self-congruity is reached as individuals consistently behave according to their real (actual) self-image: in other words, their actual behaviors reflect how they actually think they are (Sirgy & Su, 2000). On the other hand, ideal self-congruity refers mainly to self-enhancement (Hung & Petrick, 2011), reflecting the efforts put in place by people, to become as close as possible to the person they would like to be. Grounded in social psychology, the concept of self-congruence has been highly relevant for marketing research, since a long time (e.g., Levy, 1959). The relevance of self-congruence in consumer decision-making process is directly linked to the widely-known assumption that, consumers purchase goods and services not just basing on functional, utilitarian evaluations, but also (and most importantly) due to symbolic meanings products carry (e.g., Lee & Hyman, 2008). Levy (1959) effectively summarized the prominent role of consumer evaluations of symbols (i.e., symbolic meanings) embedded in products, with respect to their personal self-concept: “a symbol is appropriate (and the product will be used and enjoyed) when it joins with, meshes with, adds to, or reinforces the way the consumer thinks about himself”. In other words, consumer evaluation of products/services passes through the personal evaluation of the extent to which such products/services can maintain, reinforce, and enhance their own self-concept.

Self-congruity has been widely applied in marketing research (see Hosany & Martin, 2012), proving its relevance in a variety of contexts. Specifically, in the case of tourism, the study by Chon (1992) was among the first to introduce the self-congruity theory in a touristic context. The study suggested how, self-congruity in terms of consumer self-image and destination image was a key determinant of consumer satisfaction. Sirgy and Su (2000) provided a comprehensive theoretical model of the impact of self-congruity on destination choice. Other studies (e.g., Ahn et al., 2013; Beerli et al., 2007; Goh & Litvin, 2000; Kastenholtz, 2004; Litvin & Goh, 2001) confirmed this relevant impact of self-

congruity in the case of destination choice.

Regarding event image in sports, research has mainly concentrated in specific areas, such as the role of sponsors in defining, first, an event intended self-image, and, in turn, self-image congruity of people attending sporting events. Only few research studies dedicated their attention to identifying effects of self-congruity with perceived event image *tout court* (Hallman & Breuer, 2010). This can be justified by the generalized, past tendency of the industry regarding sport events, which were mainly conceived as marketing tools to enhance other, related offerings (e.g., Brown et al., 2014). However, another limitation of existing research is that, such studies focusing on self-congruity are usually concentrated on sport event spectators, or passive individuals in general. As far as it is known, active sport tourism has seen few applications of self-congruity theory. For example, Bosnjak et al (2016) suggested that self-congruity in active sport tourism might not only be referred to destination image, or to the event image, rather to the sport activity itself.

Consumer importance of the matching between consumer self-image and the -usually stereotypical- image of a product/service is well established (e.g., Ahn et al., 2013; Parker, 2009; Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy et al., 1997; Sirgy & Su, 2000). The impacts of self-congruity on many, key consumer behavior outcomes (such attitudes, preference development, loyalty, satisfaction) are quite established as well in marketing and tourism research (e.g., Ahn et al., 2013; Kang, 2002; Kressmann et al., 2006; Kwak & Kang, 2009).

This leads to the definition of the following hypothesis:

H1: Self Congruity has a direct effect on satisfaction.

Functional congruity

Congruity in consumer evaluations also regards utilitarian features of a product/service. Functional congruity is defined as “the match between consumers’ ideal expectations of utilitarian brand features and their perceptions of how the product is perceived along the same features” (Kressmann, 2006). Albeit some studies have juxtaposed self- congruity and functional congruity (e.g., Mannetti et al., 2004), many others have considered jointly self-congruity and functional congruity, exploring also the interdependencies between them, in the effort of proposing more comprehensive models of product/brand choice (e.g., Choi & Reid, 2016; Hung & Petrick, 2011; Kang et al., 2012; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 2005). Regarding tourism, functional congruence generally refers to

consumer evaluations of performance attributes of a destination (i.e., atmospherics, destination services, economic convenience), with respect to their aspirational level of performance attributes (Ahn et al., 2013; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Evaluations related to these attributes strongly influence tourist behavior (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Despite functional congruity is considered as a relevant construct in tourism research, as far as it is known, the construct has never been related to active sport tourists. In this paper, functional congruity has been operationalized regarding the functional attributes of an event hosting destination.

As in the case of self-congruity, functional congruity is believed to have direct effects on post-purchase outcomes, such as satisfaction (Chon & Olsen, 1991). Sirgy and Su (2000) theoretically illustrated the role of functional congruity in predicting tourist behavior. Utilitarian attributes of a destination are aimed to fulfil tourist basic needs such as convenience, security, relaxation, and accessibility (Ahn et al., 2013). Consequently, it is likely that a higher functional congruity exerts a beneficial effect on satisfaction.

This leads to the definition of another research hypothesis:

H2: Functional Congruity has a direct effect on Satisfaction

Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is a key concept in tourism research and practice (Chen & Tsai, 2007). This concept can be considered as broad and holistic, referring to the post-purchase stage of consumption (i.e., of a holiday, Fornell, 1992). Due to its holistic nature, some studies suggest the adoption of a single, global measure of satisfaction (e.g., Baloglu et al., 2003). Behavioral intentions can be conceived as the outcome of consumer mental processing, converting motivation into actual, future behavior (Jang et al, 2009). Tourism research generally refers to behavioral intentions as revisit, or recommend intentions (Baloglu et al., 2003; Prayag, 2009). Sport marketing and tourism literature widely agree in stating that a positive relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions exists (e.g., Biscaia et al., 2012; Kaplanidou & Gibson, 2010; Prayag & Grivel, 2014; Shonk & Chelladurai, 2008). This leads to the formulation of:

H3: Satisfaction directly influences behavioral intentions.

Involvement in sports

Involvement is an indicator of the psychological connections (Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2004), of the perceived personal relevance (Kyle & Chick, 2002), and of the individual commitment towards a certain activity, experience, or location (Gross & Brown, 2008).

Many studies have also pointed out the influence of involvement on a wide range of consumers' perceptions, such as product/service quality (Tsotsu, 2006), satisfaction (Richins & Bloch, 2001), and value. Service/brand loyalty and product involvement also appear to be positively related (Beatty et al., 1988; Pritchard et al., 1999). As noted by Chen and Tsai (2008), involvement towards a certain object of interest (i.e., product, service, or location), is an important determinant of consumers' behaviors and evaluations.

In tourism, studies on activity involvement appear highly significant in understanding tourists' behavior (Lee, Graefe, & Burms, 2007; Lee & Chang, 2012). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that, increased tourists' activity involvement tends to influence consumer sensitivity to activity attributes, to influence perception of activity importance, commitment, and destination loyalty intentions (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Lee et al., 2007).

Consequently, involvement is a widely-used construct in leisure and tourism literature. Havitz and Dimanche (1997) define involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or a product". In the case of sport consumers, learning and involvement appear to be related to some extent (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 1993). Zhang, Smith, Pease, and Maher (1996) point out that knowledge about a certain sport event can predict attendance to the sport event itself. However, in contrast with the wider attention the construct has received in other fields, like leisure research (e.g., Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Sato et al., 2016), in sport management in general (e.g., Vlachopoulos et al., 2008), and in sport tourism, involvement is an underexplored topic (Beaton et al., 2011); moreover, the relationship between involvement, satisfaction, and intentions has not been fully investigated (Leo & Beeler, 2009). However, despite its limited application, involvement appears a key construct in identifying the major drivers of consumption, and attitude formation in sports (Funk et al., 2003; Lascu, et al., 1995). In their literature review, Beaton et al (2011) suggested that "sport involvement is present when individuals evaluate their participation in a sport activity as a central component of their life and provides both hedonic and symbolic value" (p. 128). The existence of cognitive and affective dimensions in involvement (e.g., Shank & Beasley, 1998; Zaichowsky, 1994) have been also emphasized in literature. The present study adopts such multidimensional view of the construct.

Emotions have been found to affect consumers' information processing (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Satisfaction has been defined as an emotional response based on a holistic view of a phenomenon (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000).

In the context of recreational settings, it has been suggested how, individuals showing more involvement in an activity are more likely to stay loyal (e.g., Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). Higher involvement has been showed to be an important predictor of higher participation to sport events, and of higher spending on event-related products (e.g., Beaton et al., 2011; McGehee et al., 2003). In examining (passive) sport tourists' behavior, Brown et al (2016) pointed out the positive, direct impact in terms of satisfaction of tourists' degree of sport involvement.

In a nutshell, the level of involvement that a consumer exhibits with respect to a certain object of interest works as an important determinant of consumer evaluations and behaviors (e.g., Chen & Tsai, 2008). Scholars suggest that, the level of consumer involvement might change according to consumer attitudes and perceptions, especially with respect to service quality, perceived value, and satisfaction (e.g., Bloemer & de Ruyter, 1998; Lai & Chen, 2011).

The above considerations lead to the following hypotheses:

H4: Satisfaction has a positive, direct effect on Sport Event Involvement

H5: Sport Event Involvement has a positive, direct effect on Behavioral Intention.

Self-congruity evaluations deal with product/service symbolic meanings. A positive consumer evaluation in terms of self-congruity leads to a stronger consumer involvement with the product, service, or brand (Bosnjak & Rudolph, 2008; Kressmann et al., 2006; O'Cass, 2000; Sirgy et al., 2000, 2008; Xue, 2008; Zaichowsky, 1985). Moreover, such relevant reinforcement in terms of consumer involvement creates the necessary motivation for the consumer to proceed with the next step in congruence evaluation, that is, evaluating functional attributes and devoting time and resources to such evaluation. Hence:

H6: Self-congruity has a direct effect on sport event involvement.

Functional and utilitarian evaluations are likely to impact too on emotional reactions of consumers. For example, Park et al (2006) suggest that people are likely to develop attachments with those offerings satisfying their needs. From this point of view, it should be recalled that, in the case of

destinations, performance attributes (i.e., the object of consumer functional evaluations) are mostly related to the satisfaction of those fundamental needs of tourists, such as security, convenience, relaxation, and so forth.

Congruity research suggests that consumers attribute to products and brands specific personalities. Brand personality has been repeatedly indicated by research as a potential key source of brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Bodet & Chanavat, 2010). The importance of brand personality has been also confirmed in the case of tourist destinations (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011), and for sport consumption contexts (Alexandris, 2016; Lee & Cho, 2009). By bringing attribution theory to congruity research, one could argue that, satisfaction will be a function of the attributes of certain products/services/brands. The higher the consumer perceived matching (both in functional and in self-image terms), the higher satisfaction is likely to be. Several studies argue how, if service levels match with consumer expectations, this will also have an impact on involvement (Bloemer & De Ruyter, 1998; Lai & Chen, 2011). Thereby:

H7: Functional congruity has a direct effect on sport event involvement

The moderating effect of training background

Some scholars (e.g., Dagger & Sweeney, 2007) suggested that, longer-term and novice customers assess services differently. Longer-term consumers can count on a larger amount of relevant information regarding the purchase (i.e., they have gone through it many times). In the case of longer-term consumers, credence qualities are more relevant in their service evaluations (Dagger & Sweeney, 2007). Oppositely, novice consumers explore more the actual qualities of the services in doing their evaluations (i.e., they are likely to be in a novel, quite unexplored context). Different levels of consumer experience impact on consumer evaluations of products and services, in different ways. For example, Dagger and O'Brien (2010) explained how, the higher consumer experience, the more consumers are enabled to acquire relevant information to fully evaluate their experience. In this sense, thereby, even the major drivers of consumer satisfaction and/or loyalty might vary according to different levels of experience (Mittal & Katrichis, 2000).

This suggestion is particularly relevant both for scholars and service providers: it highlights the need to capture the actual drivers of loyalty and satisfaction that might vary according to different groups of consumers, identified according to different levels of product/service experience. This in turn suggests the need for companies and service providers to pay attention to these varying needs that

might be vital to define differential strategies to acquire new consumers, and retain existing ones (Mittal & Katrichis, 2000).

Many studies confirm such suggestion. For example, Alba and Hutchinson (1987) demonstrated how novel and experienced consumers give differential importance to the same product attributes, due to their different levels of knowledge and experience. Mittal et al (1999) as well as Mittal et al (2001) suggested that, the relationship between service attributes, satisfaction, and customer loyalty is likely to be dynamic, and to vary according to different consumption stages. Moreover, Dagger and O'Brien (2010) showed that the major determinants of consumer loyalty in the case of experienced and novel consumers might be different: in this sense, satisfaction was a prominent driver of loyalty only in the case of new customers. Mittal et al (2001) noted that specific service attributes impact differently on consumer satisfaction, according to the level of consumer experience. In their study of healthcare services, Dagger and Sweeney (2007) found that service quality significantly impacted on behavioral intentions only in the case of novice customers.

Active sport tourism entails a direct participation to sport activities. The sport activity plays a central role in the touristic experience: participants are strongly involved in the proposed activities, also from a technical point of view. Given that, and following the discussion above, in the specific context of active sport tourism, consumer/tourist experience might be referred to the sport activity. The knowledge accumulated by tourists might lead to different evaluations (i.e., more or less detailed, or making more or less difficult evaluating the events' attributes). Funk et al (2007) noted that, in any case, prior involvement in the sport activity proposed by a certain event is a significant predictor of the participation to the event.

From the discussion above, the following hypothesis derives:

H8: Training experience of active sport tourists moderates all the relationships presented above.

Figure 1 depicts the theoretical model.

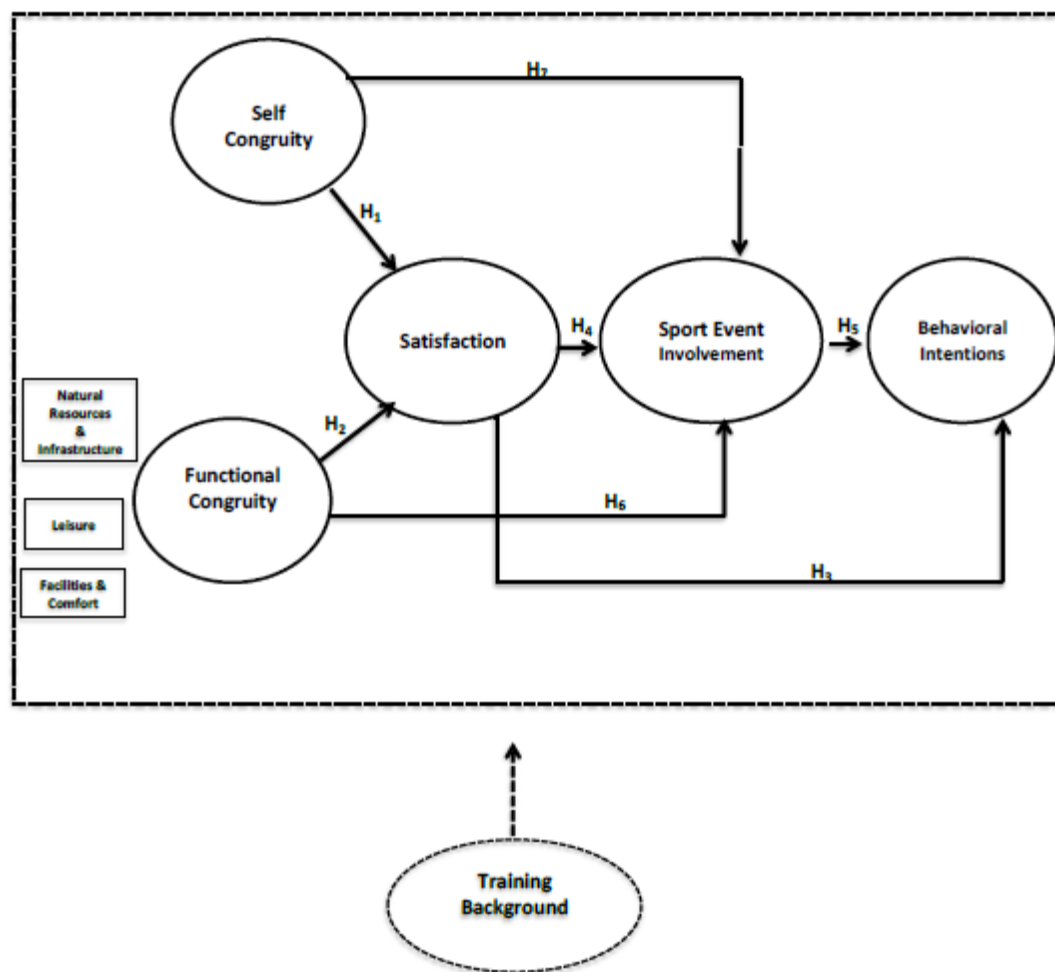


Figure 1. The theoretical model

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Data were collected in four international triathlon sport events (Triathlon Sprint Revine Lago; Rimini Challenge, Italy; Triathlon Internazionale di Bardolino, Italy; IRONMAN Klagenfurt, Austria) through questionnaires administered to attending athletes between May and June 2015. 885 valid responses were collected. Construct measurements were based on previous research. Regarding the measurement part of the specification process, a first step defines the number of factors at play. Starting from Self-Congruity, two factors emerge clearly from EFA, respectively related to the real (5 items) and ideal (4 items) self-perception; CFA shows that these two factors can be used as latent indicators of an overall second-level factor for Self-Congruity, including both real and ideal items. As for the functional congruity construct, EFA shows the presence of 3 distinct factors (Natural Resource & Infrastructure, Leisure, and Facilities & Comfort), each measured by 3 items; in this case the overall CFA model does not allow to incorporate them in a unique second-level factor.

Thus, together with Self Congruity, Natural Resource & Infrastructure, Leisure and Facilities & Comfort will be considered as different exogenous antecedents of the endogenous variables of

interest: Satisfaction (4 items), Sport Event Involvement (4 items) and Behavioral Intentions (3 items).

The structural model presented in Figure 1 is a recursive one, in which all exogenous variables have an effect on Satisfaction (H1 and H2) and on Sport Event Involvement (H6 and H7), which also depends on Satisfaction itself (H4). Finally, Behavioral Intentions depend on Satisfaction (H3) and Sport Event Involvement (H5), which therefore act as mediators of the effects of the exogenous variables on behaviors.

The estimation results are in the first column of Table 1. The model shows a discrete level of all fit measures, allowing to interpret the results to test hypotheses. The data confirms all hypotheses, with the only exception of some specific effects from functional congruity factors: while Natural Resource & Infrastructure has a significant effect both on Satisfaction and Sport Event Involvement, all effects of Leisure and Facilities & Comfort are not significant.

Finally, the use of modification indexes shows that some originally neglected direct effects on Behavioral Intentions (Natural Resource & Infrastructure and Facilities & Comfort) are indeed significant. Thus, the mediation hypothesis is only partially verified in our context.

The last two columns of Table 1 show the estimates of a multigroup SEM aimed at testing the moderation hypothesis of training intensity. There are two, significantly different parameters, both regarding the direct effects on Behavioral Intentions: the effect of Satisfaction is only significant for High Intensity Training backgrounds triathletes, while the effect of Facilities & Comfort is only present for Low Intensity Training ones.

	NO moderation			Moderation					
	Whole sample			High Intensity			Low Intensity		
	Est.	S.e.	Sig.	Est.	S.e.	Sig.	Est.	S.e.	Sig.
<i>Satisfaction</i>									
<i>Natural Resource & Infrastructure</i>	.277	.039	***	.277	.039	***	"		
<i>Leisure</i>	-.017	.031		-.017	.031		"		
<i>Facilities</i>	-.029	.042		-.030	.042		"		
<i>Self-Congruity</i>	.331	.047	***	.334	.047	***	"		
<i>Sport Event Involvement</i>									
<i>Satisfaction</i>	.553	.042	***	.552	.042	***	"		
<i>Natural Resource & Infrastructure</i>	.099	.030	***	.099	.030	***	"		
<i>Self-Congruity</i>	.237	.042	***	.228	.043	***	"		
<i>Behavioral Intentions</i>									
<i>Sport Event Involvement</i>	.385	.076	***	.401	.075	***	"		
<i>Satisfaction</i>	.282	.070	***	.415	.075	***	-.021	.083	
<i>Natural Resource & Infrastructure</i>	.131	.047	**	.158	.048	***	"		
<i>Facilities</i>	.114	.056	**	-.089	.078		.257	.072	***
<i>Fit indexes</i>									
Chi square (dof)	1788	(694)		1759	(692)		"		
RMSEA	.068			.067			"		
CFI	.917			.919			"		
TLI	.909			.911			"		
SRMR	.072			.066			"		

Note 1: " same values as High Intensity

Note 2: *** $p < .01$; ** $.01 < p < .05$; * $.05 < p < .10$

Table 1. Estimates of the structural model with and without moderation

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

First, the whole model without moderation is considered. Then, the moderated model will be commented. For both models, all the proposed hypotheses are significant.

Self-congruity appears to be a quite strong antecedent of satisfaction and involvement. This is in line with results of extant research (Ahn et al., 2013; Kressmann et al., 2006).

The effect of self-congruity and of (some) components of functional congruity evaluations remarks the importance of developing synergies between the event-related components, and destination related components. Sport events' perceived image appears to be a determinant component for active sport tourists. However, destinations are likely to have a relevant, complementary role. The centrality of the sport experience in the touristic experience is confirmed by the significant impact of sport event involvement on ultimate behavioral intentions.

Of particular interest, both for consumer researchers and sport and tourism marketers is to deepen the relationship destination-event in sport tourism. From this point of view, results of this study suggest a careful management of the structure and the value proposition of the combined sport-touristic offering. The point is raised looking at the different significances of the single functional attributes related to the event. Note how, for example, attributes related to facilities and comfort, and leisure-related characteristics are not significant at all with respect to tourist satisfaction, while other factors, like available natural resources and infrastructures turn out to be significant. In some sense, these results confirm suggestions of Bosnjak et al (2016), suggesting a high relevance of the sport activity itself, over and above the different contents of the offering. In other words, active sport tourists might pay high attention to the evaluation of technical characteristics of the event, related, for example, to the possibility of performing the sport activity without difficulties, and obtaining all the necessary technical support. This should not suggest that destination is irrelevant at all in determining ultimate evaluations of consumers: infrastructure and natural resources appear as significantly influencing consumer satisfaction and involvement. This confirms previous research, suggesting an interdependence between sport-related and tourism-related elements. Such interdependence might be particularly relevant for disciplines entailing a strong interaction with the surrounding territory, like triathlon.

The introduction of the moderating effect of training background provides some additional insights. The majority of the relationships and their interpretations are mostly confirmed. Note that, the "Facilities & Comfort" functional attribute is only significant for low-intensity training athletes. In addition, the effect of satisfaction is only significant -highly significant- for high-intensity athletes.

Active sport tourists appear strongly committed to their respective disciplines. Particularly, as the sport discipline absorbs a significant amount of resources in individual's lives (i.e., denoted by a high-intensity training), the sport event *per se* is highly valued by individuals. In this sense, they are strongly driven, in their future intentions, by the experienced level of satisfaction. Highly-trained active sport tourists (i.e., experienced) are likely to be closer to an athlete, rather than to a tourist. Through their relevant experience, they have developed such an expertise and a technical competence, so that they are likely to technically evaluate sport events to which they participate (or have participated in the past). Technical aspects are likely to be too strongly relevant for them (see the relevance of the attribute Natural Resources & Infrastructures: they are functional to the triathlon competition). Such evaluative ability is very likely to be a stringent selection criteria among the different, available events. The destination is thus incorporated into a wider system of offering, which is more complex to manage than a traditional touristic offering system.

Low intensity athletes (i.e., less experienced customers) tend to show more moderate tendencies. For them, only the facility/comfort component is significant, suggesting that these individuals value more the leisure side of the experience. Sport and tourism amalgamate there under the leisure domain, leading to a less extreme consumer, which is likely to seek a challenging, involving experience, without giving to it totalizing meanings.

The discussion above provides a relevant suggestion for sport tourism marketing, remarking the need to carefully screen demand, and to consider needs of a multifaced clientele. Marketers must be aware of the need to develop differential strategies, and, more in general, of the need to create events that must interact, complement surrounding environment, not being just means of touristic promotion. They should create themselves value for the customer. Results provided are of interest both for tourism and sport research, and suggest the need to further explore such contexts, which pose at the edge between sport consumer behavior and tourism consumer behavior. There is an increasing need to explore the interrelations between motivations, different event attributes, and consumer preferences.

Some limitations of the study can be identified. First, the study includes only a moderating variable (i.e., training background). The model could be further extended by adding other moderating variables, such as travel motivation, lifestyles, or psychographics. Second, the study is limited to European events: additional insights might be derived by extending the study outside the European boundaries. Finally, the cross-sectional nature of data; further research efforts might explore the proposed relationships over time.

REFERENCES

- Ahn, T., Ekinci, Y., & Li, G. (2013). Self-congruence, functional congruence, and destination choice. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(6), 719-723.
- Baumann, R. W., Matheson, V. A. & Muroi, C. (2009). Bowling in Hawaii: Examining the Effectiveness of Sports- Based Tourism Strategies. *Journal of Sports Economics*, 10(1), 107-123
- Beaton, A. A., Funk, D. C., Ridinger, L., & Jordan, J. (2011). Sport involvement: A conceptual and empirical analysis. *Sport management review*, 14(2), 126-140.
- Bosnjak, M., Brown, C. A., Lee, D. J., Yu, G. B., & Sirgy, M. J. (2016). Self-expressiveness in sport tourism: Determinants and consequences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(1), 125-134.
- Brown, G., Smith, A., & Assaker, G. (2016). Revisiting the host city: An empirical examination of sport involvement, place attachment, event satisfaction and spectator intentions at the London Olympics. *Tourism Management*, 55, 160-172.
- Chang, M. G. S. J. & Johnson, L. W. (1995) Segmenting the triathlon association membership market: An Australian example. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 25-28
- Dagger, T. S., Sweeney, J. C., & Johnson, L. W. (2007). A hierarchical model of health service quality: scale development and investigation of an integrated model. *Journal of service research*, 10(2), 123-142.
- Funk, D. C., & Bruun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism management*, 28(3), 806-819.
- Getz, D., & McConnell, A. (2011). Serious sport tourism and event travel careers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25(4), 326-338.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998). Sport tourism: a critical analysis of research. *Sport management review*, 1(1), 45-76.
- Gursoy, D., & Gavcar, E. (2003). International leisure tourists' involvement profile. *Annals of tourism research*, 30(4), 906-926.
- Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1990). Propositions for testing the involvement construct in recreational and tourism contexts. *Leisure Sciences*, 12(2), 179-195.
- Hinch, T. D., & Higham, J. E. (2001). Sport tourism: A framework for research. *The international journal of tourism research*, 3(1), 45.
- Hinch, T. D., Higham, J. E. S., & Moyle, B. D. (2016). Sport tourism and sustainable destinations: foundations and pathways.
- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). The role of self-and functional congruity in cruising intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(1), 100-112.
- Jiang, P., & Rosenbloom, B. (2005). Customer intention to return online: price perception, attribute-level performance, and satisfaction unfolding over time. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39(1/2), 150-174.
- Kaplanidou, K., & Gibson, H. J. (2010). Predicting behavioral intentions of active event sport tourists: The case of a small-scale recurring sports event. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 15(2), 163-179.
- Kouthouris, C., & Alexandris, K. (2005). Can service quality predict customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the sport tourism industry? An application of the SERVQUAL model in an outdoors setting. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 10(2), 101-111.

- Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(9), 955-964.
- Kurtzman, J., & Zauhar, J. (2003). A wave in time-The sports tourism phenomena. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 8(1), 35-47.
- Litvin, S. W., & Goh, H. K. (2002). Self-image congruity: a valid tourism theory?. *Tourism Management*, 23(1), 8183.
- Mannetti, L., Pierro, A., & Livi, S. (2004). Recycling: Planned and self-expressive behaviour. *Journal of environmental psychology*, 24(2), 227-236.
- McGehee, N. G., Yoon, Y., & Cardenas, D. (2003). Involvement and travel for recreational runners in North Carolina. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17(3), 305-324.
- Shipway, R., & Fyall, A. (Eds.). (2013). *International sports events: Impacts, experiences and identities*. Routledge.
- Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism management*, 26(6), 815-832.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340-352.
- Sirgy, M. J., Grzeskowiak, S., & Su, C. (2005). Explaining housing preference and choice: The role of self- congruity and functional congruity. *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 20(4), 329-347.
- Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D. J., Johar, J. S., & Tidwell, J. (2008). Effect of self-congruity with sponsorship on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(10), 1091-1097.
- Yeh, C. M. (2013). Tourism involvement, work engagement and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 214-239.
- Additional references available upon request

A RESEARCH TO DETERMINE EXPECTATIONS, SATISFACTIONS AND DIFFICULTIES OF VISUALLY-IMPAIRED PERSONS: A CASE STUDY IN ACCESSIBLE MUSEUM IMPLEMENTATIONS IN ISTANBUL

Füsun İstanbullu Dinçer Istanbul University Istanbul/Turkey

Hülya Özçit Istanbul University Istanbul/Turkey

İbrahim Çifçi Istanbul University Istanbul/Turkey

Bahadır Sezer Trakya University Edirne/Turkey

Onur Cuneyt Kahraman Istanbul University Istanbul/Turkey

Şimal Şahinoglu Istanbul Ayvansaray University Istanbul/Turkey

Abstract

Everyone has the right to travel whether they are disabled or not. Disabilities are divided into sub categories and vision disability is one of them. There are some implementations of. Museums for visually disabled persons but there was very few information about the expectations, satisfactions and the difficulties of visually impaired persons who travels. The aim of this study is to determine the expectations, satisfactions and the difficulties of visually impaired persons who travel the museums. For this reason, qualitative methods were used for designating the expectations, satisfactions and the difficulties of visually-impaired persons who visits accessible museums in Istanbul.

Key Words: Visually impaired person, accessible museum, accessibility.

INTRODUCTION

Disabled people are referred as the next consumer niche (Prager, 1999). Travelling for relaxing, having good time and getting around is a human right and it is not only for non-disabled people rather for all humans whether disabled or not (Ozturk, Yayli, & Yesiltas, 2008). That shows the importance to discuss the needs and motivations for disabled people. The reason of its importance is very simple, the group is large and unfortunately it's growing every day.

At the United Nations 85th plenary meeting, some Standard Rules on Equal Opportunities for People with Disabilities were adopted. For example, few of these rules are related to the tourism sector (ENAT, 2007).

- Rule 1: Awareness-raising. Countries will increase their awareness of society on the rights and needs of people with disabilities.
- Rule 5: Accessibility. Countries will ensure to provide accessible environments.
- Rule 10: Culture. Countries are supposed to ensure that people with disabilities are integrated and participate in cultural activities.
- Rule 11: Recreation and Sports. Countries will make accessible areas for sportive and recreative activities for disabled people.

As Darcy (2002) stated in his study, there are socially constructed barriers that exclude disabled people to participate in social activities. Recent studies about disabled people attend in tourism activities was limited (McKercher, Packer, Yau, & Lam, 2003; Shaw & Coles, 2004). Some researchers examined the hotel facilities and the view of hotels and travel agents (Blichfeldt & Nicolaisen, 2011; Bulgan & Carikci, 2015; Ozturk, Yayli, & Yesiltas, 2008; Wazzan, 2015) on the other hand some researchers focused on the needs and motivations for disabled people especially for physically disabled people (Daniels, Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005; Darcy S. , 2010; Kim, Stonesifer, & Han, 2012; Ray & Ryder, 2003; Shaw & Coles, 2004) and very few researches were studied about the destination competitiveness and accessible tourism information system for disabled people market (Darcy & Dickson, 2009; Michopoulou & Buhalis, 2013; Villa, Darcy, & Gonzales, 2015). But we may point out one important issue, attending on tourism activities is not only staying in the hotel. In one hand hotel facilities and reachability to the destination are very important factors for disabled people to feel comfortable during their vacation. On the other hand, to have a complete holiday experience attending in social activities in the cities is substantial and museum visits are one of the most important parts to learn the destination. In this point the importance of accessible museums appears and this issue deserves more attention from the academia because visiting a museum is not only a touristic activity furthermore it is a cultural activity for residents. Existing literature about accessible museums have focused on evaluate museums' accessibility from the side of museums and creating technologies to make the museums more accessible (March, Wiener, Naghshineh, & Giusti, 2005; Mesquita & Carneiro, 2016). The studies in this field are restricted to clarify the expectation, satisfaction, difficulties and the needs of visually disabled people. The attention is more on physical access than sensory access about museums accessibility (Argyropoulos

& Kanari, 2015). Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify the expectation, satisfaction and the difficulties of people with visual impairments to visiting museums. With this purpose, interviews have been conducted with authorized people in associations for visual impairments based in Istanbul. The reason to choose these associations is that the most authorised people are in this non-profit associations, since they are responsible on the needs and claims as well as they are responsible to minimize the difficulties that visually disabled people are facing and all these authorised people are visually disabled.

LITERATURE REVIEW

World Health Organization defines disability as an umbrella term, which includes impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions. Over 1 billion people have disability. This means 1 in 7 people. 200 million people need glasses or other low vision devices, 70 million people need a wheelchair, 360 million people globally moderate to profound hearing loss (World Health Organization, 2016). According to Population and Housing Census in Turkey, TUIK stated that proportion of Turkey' population who have at least one type of disability is %6,9. This figure shows that %5,9 of male population and %7,9 female population are disabled (TUiK, 2011, s. 79). Disabled people, are more likely to experience less socioeconomic outcomes as less education, less employment etc. than persons without disabilities. Despite all these facts global awareness of disability-inclusive development is increasing. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) supports the persons with disabilities with full integration in societies (The World Bank, 2016).

ICF (International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health) approved on May 22, 2001 on The World Health Assembly. According to ICF, "a disability is a condition or function judged to be significantly impaired relative to the usual standard of an individual or group." Another definition of disability was made by The Equality Act. The Act defines "a disability is a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long-term adverse effect on a person's ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities." (The Equality Act,.

Disability is a wide term, which can be divided into different sub-categories as following (Disabled World, 2016):

- a) Mobility and physical impairments,
- b) Spinal cord disability
- c) Head injuries – brain disability
- d) Vision disability
- e) Hearing disability
- f) Cognitive or learning disabilities

g) Psychological disorders

h) Invisible disabilities

Impairment and disability have close meanings. But authors have been exposed some key points between impairment and disability. Basically impairment is the functional limitation but disability is the loss of opportunities to take part in the normal life, owing to physical and social barriers (Hughes, 1999).

Visual impairment impacts on all aspects the quality of person's life (Tadic, Lewando Hundt, Keeley, & Rahi, 2014). World Health Organization (2016) stated that 285 million people are visually impaired and the 39 million are blind. "*Visual impairment refers to a significant functional loss of vision that cannot be corrected by medication, surgical operation, or ordinary optical lenses such as spectacles*" (Department of Health HKSAR, 2008). Visual impairment can be mild or moderate but also includes total or functional blindness (National Eye Institute, 2016). Verma and Arora (2016) stated in their study that visual impairment is also known as sensory disability since vision is one of the five senses of the body. Some of the common visual impairments are scratched cornea, scratches on the sclera, diabetes related eye conditions, dry eyes and corneal graft. These injuries may result into some serious problems such as blindness or ocular trauma (Disabled World, 2016). A legally blind person whose visual field is less than an angle of 20 degrees. It has been also proved that the ninety percent of individuals who are defined as legally blind have some useful vision or light perception. Which means total darkness is rare (The University of Texas In Austin, 2016).

Disabled person' willingness to travel may vary with their hearing, speaking, seeing, orthopedically disabilities. Therefore, people' disabilities should be considered when designing indoor. The planning of a proper building for disabled people must be done in advance. However, some changes for disabled people can be implemented after the building raised (Pehlivanoglu, 2012, s. 28). Over the past decades the awareness of accessible museums for disabled individuals has been increased. This increasing awareness has also changed the roles that museums must have in 21st century (Argyropoulos & Kanari, 2015). It is crucial to make a deep investigation on user requirements, to design a system to accommodate the needs of disabled market (Michopoulou & Buhalis, 2013). European Network of Accessible Tourism defines the accessibility, a basic feature of the built environment. Which allows people to reach, enter, exit and use the houses, shops, theatres, parks in a word the whole environment (ENAT, 2007).

Before we look into the term of accessible museum, it is essential to check the definition of museum. The first definition of museum was made by International Council of Museum (ICOM) in 1964. Since 1964, ICOM updated this definition. According to the latest definition, "a museum is a non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which

acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment” (ICOM, 2016).

Many previous researchers have focused on evaluate museums from the visitor’s side, in tourism perspective (Braun-La Tour, Hendler, & Hendler, 2006; Beeho & Prentice, 1995; Jansen-Verbeke & Van Rekom, 1996; Mafuya & Haydam, 2005; Nowacki, 2005; Tufts & Milne, 1999). Few of the researchers have focused on the features of museum, such as accessibility of museums. Mesquita and Carneiro (2016) identified strategies for museum to increase their accessibility by visitors with visual impairments. They analysed 28 museums in London, Paris, Madrid and Lisbon and proved that the European museums are more likely to implement strategies for mobility and eligible information. Another research on experience of individuals with visual disabilities was made by Argyropoulos and Kanari (2015). They stated that the requests of visually disabled individuals are in contrast with one of the most important missions of museums, which is displaying the art work and protecting at the same time. March, Wiener, Naghshieneh and Giusti (2005), focused on creating accessible science museums for visitors with visual impairments with user-activated environmental audio beacons. They introduced a system called Ping, which is a cell phone based programme and allows to navigate people to exhibit the museum. Sen, Celik Yetim and Bilici (2014) stated that firstly visitor should reach the destination to access to the museums.

Streachay and Annis (2012) stated suggestions as below for the accessibility of museums and parks for people with visual disabilities:

1. Braille signage designed appropriately and they should be placed in easily discoverable places.
2. Audio descriptions, large print and braille should provide the same information as the standard printed documents.
3. Descriptive signs for the artwork should be large also large sans-serif fonts should be used with highly contrasting colours.
4. Audio-described tours should provide navigation that allows the patron to skip around when listening to descriptions.
5. Staff should be well trained to interact effectively with disabled people.
6. Visual displays and electronic signage should have large fonts in highly contrasting colour schemes.
7. Objects should be placed in front of high-contrast backgrounds.
8. Lighting should be designed to reduce glare.
9. Museums should provide access through senses beyond sight. For example, some museums

have smaller tactile version of the art work to allow patrons to feel the shapes and the design. Accessibility has gained more attention in European countries in the last decades. If we look into Turkey, the term of accessibility is far more new. In 2013, Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality has launched “Accessible Istanbul for All Project”. Aim of the project is to bring Istanbul on competitive edge in global tourism. The Project contributes especially the accessibility of museums in Istanbul (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2013). This project contains 21 museums in Istanbul, Topkapi Palace, Hagia Sophia, Istanbul Archaeological Museum, Chora Museum, Great Palace Mosaic Museum, Turkish and Islamic Arts Museum, Istanbul Museum of the History of Science and Technology in Islam, Rahmi M. Koc Museum, Istanbul Museum of Modern Art,

Istanbul Aviation Museum, Sakip Sabanci Museum, Istanbul Toy Museum, Yildiz Palace, Galata Mawlawi House Museum, Miniaturk, Panorama 1453 Historical Museum, Basilica Cistern, City Museum, Istanbul Fire Museum, Asiyan Museum, Cartoon and Humor Museum.

Since 2013, the museums got more accessible in Istanbul. Istanbul Health Directorate has launched a Guidebook for Accessible Museums. This Guidebook has more focused on physical accessibility. Few rules have been defined for the people with visual impairments. Such as audio descriptions, large fonts and highly contrasted colour schemes in visual displays, the ability of touch the artwork and guide dog implementations (Istanbul Saglik Mudurlugu, 2013).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Qualitative method interviews were used in order to designate to expectations, satisfactions and the difficulties of visually-impaired persons who visits accessible museums in Istanbul. A semi-structured interview was used to obtain data. The questions were related from the literature (Akinci & Sonmez, 2015; Pehlivanoglu, 2012).

The questions of this study are below.

What is your opinion about the accessible museums in Istanbul?

Are you satisfied with the guidance services on accessible museums?

What is visually-impaired person’s expectations from the museumsand what developments can made for accessible museums?

Within the scope of this research, convenience sampling method was used and get in contacted with association about visually-impaired persons. Interviews was made with 8 different persons from 4

different associations. After the repetition of the data, eight interviews were found enough and the interviews were terminated. The data was obtained from June to July in 2016. The interviews were recorded and transcribed with the permission of interviewers. Right after the interviews, the acquired data was listened by researchers and computerized.

Total of 30 pages was obtained after computerization. The data was evaluated by researchers separately. After the evaluation researchers were clustered their findings and descriptive analysis method was used to finalize the analysis. Table 1 shows the participants of this study.

Table 1

Participants of this study

Participant 1	GETEM
Participant 2	GETEM
Participant 3	Turkiye Beyazay Dernegi
Participant 4	Turkiye Gorme Engelliler Dernegi Genel Merkezi
Participant 5	Altinokta Korler Dernegi
Participant 6	Altinokta Korler Dernegi
Participant 7	Altinokta Korler Dernegi
Participant 8	Altinokta Korler Dernegi

FINDINGS What is your opinion about the accessible museums in Istanbul?

It was occurred that there was a general opinion about the “accessibility” of the accessible museums in Istanbul. The interviewers stated that there were many deficiencies in accessible museums and all attendants were criticised the accessibility of the museums in Istanbul. Also, according to attendants the accessible museums in Istanbul was formed for physically disabled persons but not formed for all disabilities. Considering from the point of visually-impaired persons, it was stated from all interviewers that the historical artefacts which showed in accessible museums should imitated and customised as sense organs respectively tactual sense, sense of hearing even the sense of smell.

*About this topic the **P1** was specified that: “Firstly either I can touch the historical artefacts or it must be a replica that I can touch in museums.” Likewise, **P2** was showed the importance of sense of hearing beside the tactual sense with this statements: “There are two important organs for visually-impaired persons. One is hand another is ear. There is a school which named “Goren Eller”. Therefore, one reads the letter with his hand and uses the devices with his hands. These two forefingers are maybe the most important organs after the brain and heart. So it is very important use*

this effectively. ” *In addition to this P3 stated that: “I remember what I touch. For instance, I can say sense of smell and heat. We can add the heat as a touching sense. ” With this statements P3 was emphasised the importance of the sense of smell and the heat. In addition to all these, unlike the other participants P4 was stressed the depth perception. About the depth perception P4 was stated the importance of the education of depth perception to visually-impaired persons with these words: “The depth perception is not taught for visually-impaired persons in Turkey. For this reason, even if the statues were made as a true copy, visually-impaired persons cannot comprehend the historical artefacts with touching. For example, distinction between Jesus statue and virgin Mary statue all but impossible for visually-impaired persons in Turkey. ”*

Are you satisfied with the guidance services on accessible museums?

It was stated that visually-impaired persons could not visit the museums alone. Also, the practises about accessibility which made in museums were not proper for visually-impaired persons to visit alone. On the basis of accessibility, people with disabilities have right to visit museums alone as others but as stated by attendants they could not visit the accessible museums in Istanbul alone, they visit museums with a guide or a companion. In addition to this it was occurred that there were different opinions about the guidance services.

P1 was expressed this statements about the importance of education for guides about the visually-impartments:

“Guides should not tell the place like there is something here and there. They need to train the guides. Visually- impaired persons can join a tour so you should train guides for them. How can you express the details of something in museums? What it means to tell visually-impaired persons like “there is something”. ” *About the qualifications of guides P4 statements were: “Guides have an impact like hearing on radio or television for us. ” Different from these statements, P5 following statements were indicated that the guides were sufficient: “It is impossible to visit museums alone. ... You can find the guides sufficient.” P6 commented about guide’s sufficiency with this statements: “Guides have to narrate to 15-20people at one time, it is very hard to ask a question and also, there is a limited time to description for guides so the benefit for us is limited. ” Guide services were insufficient for all disabled people as P7: “Guide services were enough for who can hear but it was insufficient for deaf-mute. Because deaf-and mute persons cannot understand what the guides tell. It would be more beneficial to make some adjustments for all disabilities. ”*

What is visually-impaired person’s expectations from the museums and what developments can made for accessible museums?

There was a mutual opinion about accessibility of museums, the expectations of visually-impaired people were to make necessary regulations for all disabilities. Specially to understand the meanings of historical artefacts for visually-impaired people it is important to make regulations that conducive to understand with sense organs. In addition to this, beside the regulations of accessibility, it was addressed that the ability to understand the details should be taught for the visually-impaired people.

P1 stated the importance of the sense organ to understand the historical artifacts and the expectations with this statements: “As a visually-impaired our expectations are basically sense of touching, sense of hearing and understanding. ... Before the visitation of museums, I need to access their brochures. ... In this case they are thinking about visually-impaired persons if they send us brochures typed in Braille alphabet. ... For example, if they made an announcement on their website and putted a description about the pictures, if they think this we could tell that they made a regulation for me.” In addition to this P5 added these statements: “We need right to travel alone. We need roads with embossed. ... it would be better for visually-impaired persons if there is audio system that helps visually-impaired persons to navigate where they are and what is around.” P4 had a different point of view, not only the arrangements for accessibility in museums he suggested an education for visually- impaired persons to understand the artefact in the museums with these statements: “Ministry of culture and tourism thinks in an economic way in this as usual. The entrance of museums is free for us even it is free for our companion. I wouldn't mind if there is entrance fee it is not important for me to enter museums, I am happy in the museums, I need to be at peace with myself for this they have to arrange the place and I need and education to gain benefit from the museums.”

For the development of accessibility of museums P3 stated these suggestions:

“They can make a little cabin and you can make simulations which I can sense all the things. It is ever so easy. For example, visually-impaired persons can enter this cabin and they can have everything at one's fingertips so you can solve everything with this simulation. You need to define the aim well.”

CONCLUSION

Museums are important foundation that have a significant contribution for protecting countries' corporeal and moral heritage and have an important affect for the development of countries. Whether they are disabled or not every person have a right to visit museums, have a great time and learn. However, disabled people have both physical and motivational challenges to visit the museums. Especially for the visually-impaired persons, the visiting of a museum brings alone different challenges. Therefore, it is important to investigate sufficiency of the arrangements on the museums for visually-impaired persons.

In this study, most of the participants criticized the accessibility and indicated that there were many deficiencies of the museums in Istanbul. Also the participants were stated that there were traffic problems in Istanbul. Similarly Şen, Qelik Yetim and Bilici (2014) stated that the importance of transportation. The most important expectations of visually-impaired persons were the making the arrangements for their sense of touching, sense of hearing and sense of smelling. For visually-impaired persons it is more important to understand the artefacts and understand the meanings of this objects rather than visiting the museums. Therefore, it is substantial to make the arrangements for visually-impaired persons' touching, hearing even smelling senses. The sense of touching helps to understand an objects and helps to remember it after for visually-impaired persons. For this they need an education of depth perception. Nevertheless, there is no education of depth perception in Turkey mostly it does not mean anything to make imitations or to touch the objects, artefacts or imitations for visually-impaired persons. Because, without a proper education the visually-impaired persons cannot understand means of the object directly. Streachay and Annis (2012) suggested braille signs designed appropriately to discover places, audio descriptions, large prints, and well trained staff for accessibility of museums. As March, Wiener, Naghshieneh and Giusti (2005) focused on their study to create visual impairments with user-activated environmental audio beacons for visitors. In addition to this Akinci and Sonmez (2015) stated that if the psychical conditions of museums restored, disabled people could be satisfied.

Another important issue for the visually-impaired persons is the visiting museums alone. The problem of visiting the museums with a group is not to understand the guides' narration or the deficiency of verbal narrates. To understand a visually-impaired person one need to be a visually-impaired thus guides should not be expected as sufficient even if they were trained. At this point, bottom line is to give the equal rights to travel for every person. The arrangements should be done for visually-impaired persons to visit museums without a companion. Naghshieneh and Giusti (2005) suggested in their study that a cell phone based programme was introduced to allow people navigate the museum.

Besides the expectations of arrangements for sense organs, participants indicated that there was not provided the physical conditions either. Similarly Dogru, Kaygalak, Miral Cavdirli and Bahgeci (2014) stated that the most complained subject was the physical conditions and the support of the infrastructure and technical equipment for disabled people. Also it was indicated that all people have a right to attend touristic activities even so the touristic activities has not been designing for disabled people so it is inhibiting the attendance of them (Yau, McKercher, & Packer, 2004; Yayli & Ozturk, 2006, s. 87). In addition to this it is suggested that the arrangements must be done before the construction of the building and designed for all disabled people. As stated by Yau, McKercher and

Packer (2004), participating tourism activities for people with disabilities is more than removing physical barriers, it is a metaphor of recovery.

There are number of limitation for this study. First, in this study interview method was used and only eight participants were attended on this study. Also convenient sampling method was used. For future research being conducting in this subject, it is desirable to add not only visually-impaired persons but also other disabled person.

REFERENCES

- Akinci, Z., & Sonmez, N. (2015). Engelli Bireylerin Erişilebilir Turizm Beklentilerinin Degerlendirilmesine Yonelik Nitel Bir Araştırma. *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 26(1), 97-113.
- Argyropoulos, V. S., & Kanari, C. (2015). Re-Imagining The Museum Through "Touch" Reflections Of Individuals With Visual Disability On Their Experience Of Museum-Visiting In Greece. *ALTER, European Journal Of Disability Research*, 130-143.
- Beeho, A. J., & Prentice, R. (1995). Evaluating the Experiences and Benefits Gained by Tourists Visiting a Socio-Industrial Heritage Museum: An Application of ASEB Grid Analysis to Blists Hill Open-Air Museum, the Ironbridge Gorge Museum, United Kingdom. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 229-251.
- Blichfeldt, B. S., & Nicolaisen, J. (2011). Disabled Travel: Not Easy, But Doable. *Current Issues In Tourism*, 79-102.
- Braun-La Tour, K., Hendler, F., & Hendler, R. (2006). Digging Deeper: Art Museums in Las Vegas. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 265-268.
- Bulgan, G., & Carikci, I. (2015). Handicapped Tourism - A Research In Four Star and Five Star Hotels of Antalya. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitusu Dergisi*, 15-42.
- Daniels, M. J., Rodgers, E., & Wiggins, B. (2005). "Travel Tales": An Interpretive Analysis Of Constraints And Negotiations To Pleasure Travel As Experienced By Persons With Physical Disabilities. *Tourism Management*, 919-930.
- Darcy, S. (2002). Marginalised Participation: Physical Disability, High Support Needs and Tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Management*, 61-72.
- Darcy, S. (2010). Inherent Complexity: Disability, Accessible Tourism and Accommodation Information Preferences. *Tourism Management*, 816-826.
- Darcy, S., & Dickson, T. (2009). A Whole-Of-Life Approach To Tourism: The Case For Accessible Tourism Experiences. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 32-44.
- Department of Health HKSAR. (2008). *Visual Impairment*. Retrieved September 10, 2016, from Developmental Disorders Series: http://www.dhcas.gov.hk/english/public_edu/files/SeriesI_VisualImpairment_Eng.pdf
- Disabled World. (2016, August 17). *Disability: Definition, Types & Models*. Retrieved from Disabled World Towards Tomorrow: <http://www.disabled-world.com/disability/types/>
- Dogru, H., Kaygalak, S., Miral Cavdirli, C., & Bahgeci, V. (2014). Engelli Bireylerin Turizm Hizmetlerine Yonelik E-şikayetleri. *Gazi Universitesi Turizm Fakultesi Dergisi*, 2, 33-47.
- ENAT. (2007). Rights of Tourists With Disabilities In The European Union Framework. *Athens:*

- Hughes, H. (1999). The Construction Of Impairment: Modernity and The Aesthetic Of Oppression. *Disability and Society*, 155-172.
- ICOM. (2016, August 22). *Museum Definition*. Retrieved from International Council of Museum: <http://icom.museum/the-vision/museum-definition/>
- Istanbul Saglik Mudurlugu. (2013). *Engelsiz Muze Rehberi*. Retrieved September 15, 2016, from Erisilebilir Istanbul: http://www.erisilebiliristanbul.org/BilgiBankasi/Documents/engelsiz_muze_rehberi.pdf
- Jansen-Verbeke, M., & Van Rekom, J. (1996). Scanning Museum Visitors: Urban Tourism Marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 364-375.
- Kim, W. G., Stonesifer, H., & Han, J. (2012). Accommodating The Needs Of Disabled Hotel Guests: Implications For Guests and Management. *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, 1311-1317.
- Mafuya, N. P., & Haydam, N. (2005). Tourists Expectations and Perceptions of the Robben Island Museum - A World Heritage Site. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 149-169.
- March, S., Wiener, W., Naghshineh, K., & Giusti, E. (2005). Creating Accessible Science Museums With User- Activated Environmental Audio Beacons (Ping!). *Assistive Technology*, 133-143.
- McKercher, B., Packer, T., Yau, M., & Lam, P. (2003). Travel Agents As Facilitators Or Inhibitors Of Travel: Perceptions Of People With Disabilities. *Tourism Management*, 465-474.
- Mesquita, S., & Carneiro, M. (2016). Accessibility of European Museums To Visitors With Visual Impairments. *Disability & Society*, 373-388.
- Michopoulou, E., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Information Provision For Challenging Markets: The Case Of The Accessibility Requiring Market In The Context Of Tourism. *Information & Management*, 229-239.
- Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2013). *Accessible Istanbul*. Retrieved September 15, 2016, from Turkey Republic Ministry of Culture and Tourism: Accessible Tourism, Barrier project Istanbul.
- National Eye Institute. (2016, September 11). *Low Vision and Blindness Rehabilitation - National Plan for Eye and Vision Research [NEI Strategic Planning]*. Retrieved from National Eye Institute: https://nei.nih.gov/strategicplanning/np_low
- Nowacki, M. M. (2005). Evaluating a Museum as a Tourist Product Using the SERVQUAL Method. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 235-250.
- Ozturk, Y., Yayli, A., & Yesiltas, M. (2008). Is The Turkish Tourism Industry Ready For A Disabled Customer's Market? The Views Of Hotel and Travel Agency Managers. *Tourism Management*, 382-389.
- Pehlivanoglu, B. (2012). Konaklama Yapilann Engellilere Yonelik Oda Duzenlemelerinin irdelenmesi. *inonu Universitesi Sanat ve Tasarim Dergisi*, 2, 27-35.
- Prager, J. H. (1999, December 15). People With Disabilities Are Next Consumer Niche. *Wall Street Journal*, pp. B1-B2.
- Ray, N. M., & Ryder, M. (2003). "Ebilities" Tourism: An Exploratory Discussion Of The Travel Needs and Motivations Of The Mobility-Disabled. *Tourism Management*, 57-72.
- Shaw, G., & Coles, T. (2004). Disability, Holiday Making and The Tourism Industry In The UK: A Preliminary Survey. *Tourism Management*, 397-403.
- Strechay, J., & Annis, T. (2012, February). *Access to Museums and Parks for Patrons who are Blind or Visually Impaired*. Retrieved from AFB Access World Magazine:

<https://www.afb.org/afbpress/pub.asp?DocID=aw130206>

- Şen, N., Celik Yetim, A., & Bilici, N. (2014). Kultur Varliklari ve Muzelerin Engelli Turist Ziyaretine Uygunlugunu Belirlemeye Yonelik Bir Arařtırma. *Erzincan Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitusu Dergisi*, 7(1), 1-16.
- Tadic, V., Lewando Hundt, G., Keeley, S., & Rahi, J. (2014). Seeing It My Way: Living with Childhood Onset Visual Disability. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, 239-248.
- The Equality Act. (2015, September 23). *Definition of Disability Under The Equality Act 2010*. Retrieved September 05, 2016, from GOV.UK: <https://www.gov.uk/definition-of-disability-under-equality-act-2010>
- The University of Texas In Austin. (2016, September 11). *Blind and Visual Disabilities*. Retrieved from The University of Texas In Austin Services for Students With Disabilities: <http://diversity.utexas.edu/disability/visual-impairments/>
- The World Bank. (2016, August 13). *Disability - Overview*. Retrieved from The World Bank: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/disability/overview#1>
- Tufts, S., & Milne, S. (1999). Museums: A Supply-Side Perspective . *Annals of Tourism Research*, 613-621. TUİK. (2011). *Nufus ve Konut Arařtırmasi*. TUİK.
- Verma, S., & Arora, M. (2016). Role Of The National Institute For The Visually Handicapped In The Dissemination Of Information To Visually Impaired People. *Journal of Library Administration*, 285-294.
- Villa, T. D., Darcy, S., & Gonzales, E. (2015). Competing For The Disability Tourism Market - A Comparative Exploration Of The Factors Of Accessible Tourism Competitiveness in Spain and Australia. *Tourism Management*, 261-272.
- Wazzan, W. (2015). My Accessible Room Is Not Accessible, Applying Human Factors: Principals to Enhance The Accessibility Of Hotel Rooms. *6th International Conference On Applied Human Factors and Ergonomics (AHFE 2015) and Affiliated Conferences*, (pp. 5405-5410).
- World Health Organization. (2016, August 13). *Visual Impairments and Blindness*. Retrieved from World Health Organization: <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs282/en/>
- Yau, M. K.-s., McKercher, B., & Packer, T. L. (2004). Traveling With a Disability. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 946-960.
- Yayli, A., & Ozturk, Y. (2006). Konaklama iřletmeleri Yoneticilerinin Bedensel Engelliler Pazarina Bakıř Agilari Uzerine Bir Arařtırma. *Anatolia: Turizm Arařtırmalan Dergisi*, 87-97.

ANALYSIS FOR TRAVEL AGENTS' WEB SITE CONTENT: AN IMPLEMENTATION IN AEGEAN REGION

Nuray Selma Ozdipner

Assoc. Prof. Dr, Pamukkale University, Denizli Social Sciences Vocational School,
nselma@pau.edu.tr

Seher Ceylan

Assist. Prof. Dr, Pamukkale University, Faculty of Communication

Objective of the research: Emerging technology, as in every sector, necessitates the travel agencies to renew themselves. The transfer of accurate information to potential consumers quickly is a requirement of information age. This is why web sites are of great importance for businesses. The objective of this research is to evaluate the effectiveness of websites of the travel agencies. For this purpose, the websites of travel agencies in the Aegean region were subjected to content analysis. The main benefit expected from this research is to help the restaurant agency managers improve their web pages and to raise awareness of the sector by emphasizing the importance of this issue.

Research method: Content analysis is a systematic review performed for making sense of information, documents or visuals obtained from various media and is a qualitative analysis method. For this, the content in the text or the visual is classified by specific dimensions, coded and summarized. In this study, 1362 websites were analyzed. Web sites were examined for the presence or absence of qualification and presentation according to a 32-item scale obtained from the literature.

Research results and recommendations: According to the analysis results, almost all websites have information on company, product and communication. It has been determined that the information about products and services is not enough, the links to other sites are inadequate, the online services are too few scarcely any, and therefore a majority of the features required for effective use of websites are not found. Accordingly, it is beneficial for the owners or managers of the agencies to review contents of the website according to the shortcomings detected.

Key words: Content analysis, web sites, travel agencies, tourism, marketing, internet technology, Aegean region

The Internet has created many changes in our lives. The most important change is the greater availability of information. Thanks to the internet, customers have found the opportunity to collect information on topics such as alternatives, prices, details and product features, as they never have

before. Undoubtedly, all this information is effective on the buying decision (Bhatnagar & Ghose, 2004a). Researchers have done a lot of research since the beginning of e-commerce, on issues such as the effects of electronic shopping (Alba et al., 1997), why consumers shop over the internet (Li et al., 1999), what the factors that could attract them to online shopping are (Bhatnagar & Ghose, 2004b; Eroglu et al., 2001; Floah & Maldberger, 2015 etc.) and the neglect of consumer needs.

Research regarding web sites on the other hand, have started in the late 1990s. Web content analysis and benchmarking in particular, have become the most researched fields by tourism researchers (Chiou et al., 2011). This is because the presence of a web site is important in order to strengthen customer relations and extend the market segment (Law et al., 2010). The fact that the web interface could increase in-store purchase (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2000) is effective in this case. Offering a superior web environment, cognitively locks customers and makes an impact on them becoming loyal customers later on (Gao & Bai, 2014). How potential customers view the web interface, is seen as a way to achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Richard, 2005). For this reason, design of websites and the content and manner of the information provided are important. There is a lot of research on which elements the web interface should include in the literature; features such as the validity and appearance of the information, its interaction, graphic style, navigation, ease of use, search functions, general site design-organization, order processing and hedonic elements are examined in lots of research studies (Ariely, 2000; Liang & Lai, 2002; Novak et al., 2000; Zhang and von Dran, 2000).

A large part of the web research studies are on the retail sector. Retailers see the web (www) as a retail point of sale because of the national and international transportation network, low costs, constant innovation, information storage and most importantly the colourful image presentation capability (Eroglu et al., 2001). The retailers of the tourism industry are travel agencies. Today, holiday providers' services such as transportation, accommodation and entertainment have become directly accessible thanks to the internet. Web sites such as Holiday check and Trip advisor are able to offer better information to end consumers about destinations and prices. Online flight bookers and hotel portals challenge the business models of main tour operators and experts by bypassing the current distribution channels and global distribution channels by way of direct reservations (Papathanassis, 2011). Although tourists are able to purchase directly from the producing company over the web by bypassing the travel agencies, the travel agencies are able to keep their validity for now, by the services they provide. However, this profound change requires the agencies to reinvent themselves and create more innovative work processes especially in terms of their web sites and the services they provide through them.

The information content of a web site may cause consumers to be more interested in the site. It helps the consumer to assess the information about the products and achieve an interesting experience by making the search process easier (Richard et al., 2010). Even though being informative is an important attribute, the manner of the information provision and the type of information is also important (Pearson et al., 2012). For this reason, identifying the deficiencies of web sites by assessing them in terms of scope and content is important in order to reveal the current state.

2. Background

Since there isn't an extensive literature on the web site content analysis, the literature is reviewed in 2 groups; one group includes the studies regarding web site design in general and the other group includes studies regarding the web services of travel agencies.

Research studies on web sites

Hanna and Millar (1997) have identified three main categories for developing a web site; page design, administrative issues and information content. They have stated that every online business should keep the web information up to date and should answer the information demands of customers on time. Hausman and Siekpe (2009) have researched the effect of the web interface features on consumers' purchase intentions. Spiliopoulou (2000) has identified content, web page design and the general site design as the three factors which affect the way the customers perceive and assess the web site. He referred to the importance of the capability of establishing a personalized web service by referring to the importance of customer needs. Huizingh (2000) created a framework for classifying and analyzing the capacities of web sites and pointed out the differences between the concepts of content and design. In addition to perception, they have also made content and design operational with objective and subjective measurements, in order to determine the features. Kang and Kim (2006) researched the importance of the interest level of visitors and the web page content on a perceived level, on the shaping of the attitude towards a web site. The results showed that the quantitiveness of the perceived web page create a positive attitude on visitors with low interest, while it doesn't have any effect on visitors with high interest.

Eroglu et al (2001) worked on a conceptual model which tried to reveal the potential effect of the virtual stores' atmospheric quality in terms of the nature and the effectiveness of online retailing. In this model, they used the "Stimulant-Organism-Response" (the S-O-R model) framework as the basis for the model which revealed that the atmospheric clues of an online store affected the online retail shopping results with the interference of emotional and cognitive states. Floah and Maldberger (2015) targeted to extend the Stimulant-Organism- Response (S-O-R) model by impulse which they

believed to have a vital role in online shopping. The results support the validity of the S-O-R model in the online impulsive purchase behaviour context and show the positive effect of the virtual atmospheric clues' two dimensions (design and surfing). Koo and Jo (2010) researched the effect of the atmospheric elements in virtual stores on consumer emotions with the Stimulant-Organism-Response (S- O-R) model. The results confirmed the effects of online atmospheric elements such as graphics, colours and links, on consumer emotions such as pleasure and excitement. It is determined that these emotions create a purchase intention in the following stage.

Law and Leung (2000) researched the online reservation services in order to determine whether there's any difference or not between the data provided in three regions for airline web services, and they determined that the transaction period has an effect on repeat visit to the web site and purchasing. Chu (2001) conducted focus group interviews to determine the internet user's needs and expectations concerning the web sites of airline companies and determined that the consumers expect an interactive and attractive presentation. Choi et al. (2007) on the other hand, focused on the web sites of destinations and revealed that the information content preferences of tourists differ on different levels (country, state, city) and they listed the expectations of tourists from web sites according to level of importance. Prior to travel, accommodation, flights, weather and travel suggestions, map and vehicle directions, attractions, general travel information and information regarding events are determined to be important expectations. During travel on the other hand, the possibility of communication with site authorities, weather and travel suggestions, map and vehicle directions, events, e mail card, general travel information and information regarding restaurants and bars are found to be more important.

Research studies on the web sites of travel agencies

While Walle (1996) revealed the importance of web site's ease of use and security in travel and tourism, Park and his friends (2007) focused on measuring the quality of online travel agencies. Kim and Lee (2004) compared the web service quality of online travel agencies and travel providers. They compared the level of the web service quality dimensions between online travel agencies and online travel providers in order to explain the general level of customer satisfaction and they revealed that they share similar common points in terms of information content, reputation and security, structure and ease of use and the commonly derived benefits of the web service quality. The most important dimension of customer satisfaction is determined to be "information content" in travel agencies, while it is determined to be the "structure and ease of use" in providers. Chiou et al. (2011) used a strategic web site assessment framework which includes a dimension of 5 stages (Product, Promotion, Price, Location and Customer Relations) in order to examine the consistency of the web

site's presence and its target strategies. They compared two leading online agencies in the market with different business strategies, within this framework.

Gao and Bai (2014) researched the effect of the atmospheric clues (informing, effectiveness and entertainment) which has an impact on the increase of web surfing, buying intent and satisfaction, on the perception of travel agency consumers, within the framework of Stimulant-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model. The results support the validity of the S-O-R framework in the context of online tourism and show the positive effect of travel web site atmosphere on buying intent and satisfaction. This study also revealed that inappropriate web atmospheric design reverses the positive buying intent and creates dissatisfaction.

Although some studies mention that there isn't a universally accepted technique or standard for web site assessment (Law et al., 2010; Tsai et al., 2010), the important and prevalent attributes which should generally be present in the web site of a successful tourism company are revealed. These identified, prevalent attributes may not be absolutely implementable because every company has web site development strategies according to its own goals and targets (Clyde, 2000).

As it can be seen in the literature as well, web site content analyses usually focus on the retail sector and it is observed that there aren't many studies on travel agencies which are the retailers of the tourism distribution channel. Although this research is a situation analysis, it is considered that it will contribute in the reduction of the gap in the literature.

3. Research

In the information age that we live in, the medium by which the travel agencies can offer the most accurate information in the most effective and fastest way in order to maintain their existence, is their own web sites. For that reason, the content and presentation of their websites is of great importance for them to maintain their positions in the market. Content indicates the information, features or services that are offered on the web site and is designed in accordance with how the content is presented to the web visitors (Huizingh, 2000).

This research is carried out with the goal of examining the competency of the travel agencies' web sites in the Aegean region, in terms of content and presentation. The main benefit that is expected to be obtained from the research is to enable the agency directors to see where they are at so that they can improve their web sites and to increase the awareness of the sector on this issue by emphasizing its importance. In this research, the web sites of the travel agencies located in the Aegean region of Turkey are subjected to content analysis. 1087 travel agencies which had web sites are examined,

out of a total of 1362 A group agencies located in the Aegean region. The scale regarding the web analysis is taken from Roney and Ozturan (2011). The availability of information provision is examined in regards to the 32 criteria in the scale; the results are coded and transferred to the statistics software SPSS and the performed frequency analysis results are presented as follows.

Findings

Of the 1087 A group agencies located in the Aegean region, 49.7% are located in Mugla, 27.5% are located in Izmir and 13.6% are located in the city of Aydin. The Aegean region has one of our country's highest touristy density. The reason of the high number of agencies in the cities of Mugla, Izmir and Aydin is that they are the cities which attract the highest numbers of tourists in the region.

Table 1: Travel agencies that are located in Aegean cities

İller	Frequency	Percent
Afyon	24	2,2
Aydin	148	13,6
Denizli	26	2,4
Izmir	299	27,5
Kutahya	25	2,3
Manisa	26	2,4
Mugla	535	49,2
Uşak	4	,4
Total	1087	100,0

When the information regarding the company is examined in Table 2; it can be seen that 86% of companies don't have the area of expertise, 73% don't have the foreign language alternative, 74% don't have the brief history of the company, and 93% don't have the name of the contact person, while 98% have the name of the company, 84% have the address of the company, 92% have the phone number, 77% have fax number and 69% have e mail address.

When the product/service information of the companies were examined; it was found that 57% of

companies didn't have product names, 68% didn't have product specifications, 61% didn't have product pictures, 77% didn't have product prices, 87% didn't have payment options and 69% didn't have promotions.

Table 2: Content of web pages

	CONTENT	Frequency		Percent	
		available	unavailabl	available	unavailable
Corporate information	1. Profession	152	935	14	86
	2. Languages of the web sites	296	791	27	73
	3. Name	1062	25	98	2
	4. Address	910	177	84	16
	5. Telephone number	999	88	92	8
	6. Fax number	833	254	77	23
	7. E mail address	754	333	69	31
	8. Brief history	281	806	26	74
	9. Name of the contact person	75	1012	7	93
Product service	10. Name	470	617	43	57
	11. Specifications	342	745	32	68
	12. Pictures	427	660	39	61
	13. Standard price	245	842	23	77
	14. Payment options	145	942	13	87
	15. Products /services on	346	741	32	68
Facilities available	16. Frequently asked questions	47	1040	4	96
	17. Search for a certain	255	832	23	77
	18. Search with a keyword	203	884	19	81
	19. Web site membership	136	951	12	88
	20. Customer oriented	184	903	17	83
	21. Collection of customer data	130	957	12	88
Links available	22. Links to hotel sites	229	858	21	79
	23. Links to rent-a-car agency sites	176	909	16	84
	24. Links to national tourism	143	944	13	87
	25. Links to international tourism	137	950	13	87
	26. Links to sites on Turkey	196	891	18	82
e-commerce activities	27. Online order of the	206	881	19	81
	28. Online trace of the order of the	164	923	15	85
	29. Online payment for the	156	931	14	86
	30. Online trace of the sale of the	113	974	10	90
	31. Monitoring of customers	112	975	10	90
	32. Development of customer oriented products/	120	967	11	89

When the present offerings were examined; it was found that 96% of companies didn't have frequently asked questions, 77% didn't have the possibility to search for a certain product/service, 81% didn't have the possibility to search with a key word, 88% didn't have web site membership, 83% didn't have customer oriented product/service development and 88% didn't have collection of customer data for developing a database.

When the present links were examined, it was found that 79% of companies didn't have links to hotel sites, 84% didn't have links to rent-a-car agency sites, 87% didn't have links to national tourism organization sites, 87% didn't have links to international tourism organization sites and 82% didn't have links to sites related to Turkey.

When the e-commerce activities were examined, it was found that 81% of companies didn't have online product/service ordering, 85% didn't have online trace of product/service order, 86% didn't have online payment for product/service, 90% didn't have online trace of product/service sale, 90% didn't have monitoring of customers through the database and 89% didn't have customer oriented product/service development using the database.

Conclusion

The service sector is a field where technology enters late since it's a labour intensive sector; however technology progresses quite quickly in this sector. Businesses in the service industry should notice the advantages that technology presents to them and should establish the necessary infrastructure in order to adapt quickly.

The results of the research revealed that travel agencies have corporate information on their web site more than other contents. This indicates that the contents of web sites are quite insufficient. Moreover, the Aegean region is one of the busiest tourism regions. The results reveal that the agencies should urgently take precautions about their web sites. Tourists get even more used to web sites where they can easily make a purchase, where the opportunity to connect with online producer companies is provided and more information is included, and in fact the opportunity to make comparisons is provided. For this reason, travel agencies should rapidly realize the web site edits which would attract potential tourists.

This research is only a situation analysis since it's limited to the Aegean region and it can't be generalized. Businesses' level of technology usage would certainly change through time. For this reason, it would be possible to make comparisons in regards to the level of the differences that took place, by doing similar type of research in the future as well. In addition, research studies can also

be done in order to see how much importance the consumers place on the information that is required to be on the web sites.

References

- Alba, J.W., Lynch, J., Weitz, B., Janiszewski, C., Lutz, R., Sawyer, A., & Wood, S. (1997). Interactive home shopping: consumer, retailer, and manufacturer incentives to participate in electronic marketplaces. *Journal of Marketing*, 61, 38-53.
- Ariely, D. (2000), Controlling the information flow: effects on consumers' decision making and preferences, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(2), 233-248
- Bandyopadhyay S, Wieragama, M., & Khuller R. (2000). The missing piece in the puzzle: how retail atmospherics can improve merchandise and store promotions. Access Jan 10 2017, from http://www.academia.edu/3219612/The_missing_piece_in_the_puzzle_How_retail_atmospherics_can_improve_merchandise_and_store_promotions
- Bhatnagar, A. & Ghose, S. (2004a). A latent class segmentation analysis of e-shoppers, *Journal of Business Research*, 57, 758-767.
- Bhatnagar, A. and Ghose, S. (2004b). Segmenting consumers based on the benefits and risks of internet shopping, *Journal of Business Research*, 57, 1352-1360.
- Chiou, W.- C. , Lin, C.- C. and Perng, C. (2011). A strategic website evaluation of online travel agencies, *Tourism Management*, 32, 1463-1473.
- Chu, R. (2001). What online Hong Kong travelers look for on airline/travel websites? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 20, 95-100.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & O'Leary, J. T. (2007). What does the consumer want from a DMO website? A study of US and Canadian tourists' perspectives. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9, 59-72.
- Clyde, L. A. (2000). A strategic planning approach to web site management. *The Electronic Library*, 18(2), 97-108.
- Eroglu, S. A., Machleitb, K.A. & Davisb, L. M. (2001). Atmospheric qualities of online retailing. A conceptual model and implications, *Journal of Business Research*, 54, 177- 184.
- Floh, A. & Madlberger, M. (2013). The role of atmospheric cues in online impulse-buying behavior, *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 12, 425-439.
- Gao, L.& Bai, X. (2014). Online consumer behaviour and its relationship to website atmospheric induced flow: Insights into online travel agencies in China, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 21, 653-665.
- Hanna J. R. P., & Millar, R. J. (1997). Promoting tourism on the internet. *Tourism Management*, 18(7), 469-470.
- Hausman, A. V., & Siekpe, J.S. (2009). The effect of web interface features on consumer online purchase intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 62, 5-13.
- Huizingh, E.K.R.E. (2000). The content and design of web sites: an empirical study, *Information & Management*, 37 123-134.
- Kang, Y.-S., & Kim, Y.J. (2006) Do visitors' interest level and perceived quantity of web page content matter in shaping the attitude toward a web site? *Decision Support Systems*, 42, 1187-1202.

- Kim, W. G. & Lee, H. Y. (2004) Comparison of web service quality between online travel agencies and online travel suppliers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 17: 2-3, 105116.
- Koo, D.-M., & Ju, S.-H. (2010). The interactional effects of atmospherics and perceptual curiosity on emotions and online shopping intention. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26, 377-388.
- Law, R., & Leung, R. (2000). A study of airline's online reservation services on the internet. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(2), 202-211.
- Law, R., Qi, S., & Buhalis, D. (2010). Progress in tourism management: a review of website evaluation in tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 297-313.
- Li, H., Kuo, C., & Russell, M.G. (1999). The impact of perceived channel utilities, shopping orientations, and demographics on the consumer's online buying behavior. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 5(2)
- Liang T., & Lai H. (2002). Effect of store design on consumer purchases: an empirical study of on-line bookstores, *Information & Management*, 39, 431-444.
- Nielsen, J. (2000). Designing web usability: the practice of simplicity. *New Riders Publishing*;
- Novak, T. P., Hoffman, D. L., & Yung, Y. F. (2000), Measuring the customer experience in online environments: a structural modeling approach. *Marketing Science*, 19 (1), 22-42.
- Park, Y.A., Gretzel, U. & Sirakaya-Turk, E. (2007) Measuring web site quality for online travel agencies, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23 (1), 15-30.
- Papathanassis, A. (2011). The long tail of tourism holiday niches and their impact on mainstream tourism. *Heidelberg: Springer Fachmedien*.
- Pearson, A., Tadisina, S., & Griffin, C., (2012). The role of e-service quality and information quality increasing perceived value: Antecedents to website loyalty. *Information Systems Management*, 29(3), 201-215.
- Richard, M.O. (2005). Modeling the impact of internet atmospherics on surfer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(16), 32-42.
- Richard, M.O., Chebat, J.C., Yang, Z., & Putrevu, S. (2010). A proposed model of online consumer behavior: Assessing the role of gender. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(9), 926-934.
- Roney, S. A. & Ozturan M. (2011) A content analysis of the web sites of Turkish travel agencies, *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 17(1), 435-444.
- Rosen, D.E. & Purinton, E. (2004). E-website design: Viewing the web as a cognitive landscape. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(7), 787-794.
- Spiliopoulou, M. (2000). Web usage mining for web evaluation. *Association for Computing Machinery*, 43(8), 127-134.
- Tsai, W. H., Chou, W. C., & Lai, C. W. (2010). An effective evaluation model and improvement analysis for national parks websites: a case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 936-952.
- Walle, A. H. (1996). Tourism and the internet: Opportunities for direct marketing. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(1), 72-77.
- Zhang P, & vonDran G. (2000). Satisfiers and dissatisfiers: a two-factor model for website design and evaluation. *Journal of American Society Information Science* 51(14), 1253-1268.

THE EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Ozge ADAN GOK
Yilmaz AKGUNDUZ
Ceylan ALKAN

Dokuz Eylul University Seferihisar Fevziye Hepkon School of Applied Sciences, İzmir, Turkey

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to analyze the effects of job stress and perceived organizational support on voluntary work leave of employees in hotel businesses. The universes of this research are employees who actively work in a 5 star hotel in July 2016, which are located in Izmir. 274 valid surveys were collected by the researchers. These analyses indicated that job stress and organizational support perceptions are related to the employees' intention to leave work. Moreover, it is determined that job stress increases the employees' voluntary intention to leave the work even though perceived organizational support reduces the intention to leave the work.

INTRODUCTION

High employee turnover rate is considered to be one of the most important problems of the hotel organizations which are continuing their activities in the tourism sector. It is essential to conserve and increase customer satisfaction and maintain qualified employees in the labour market in which it is hard to find employees. Therefore, identifying and abolishing the reasons of turnover intentions of the employees who haven't leaved the job legally are among the tasks of the managers and are the topics of many researches.

In hotel organizations where customer-employee relations are intense, there is job stress on the employees depending on the structural characteristics of the work being done. Although it is not possible to eliminate entirely the job stress most of the time, workers who expose to high levels of job stress, can exhibit undesirable attitudes and behavior towards the organization. This situation causes the employees who are limited with their performance in the organization to voluntarily leave their job, moreover it can also be negatively reflected in the employees' private lives.

Like every employee, employees working in hotel organizations also want to feel that they are valued and appreciated by their organizations. Employees who think that they are valued, perceive higher

organizational support. According to the Social Exchange Theory, employees who have high perceptions of organizational support will to reciprocate by making more contribution to the organization.

The purpose of this empirical study on employees who are working in hotel businesses is to determine how job stress and perceived organizational support affects turnover intentions. In this context, after summarizing the literature on job stress, turnover intention and perceived organizational support, hypotheses were justified based on the Theory of Social Exchange. Later, the hypotheses were tested by presenting the findings of the field research that were conducted in the 5 stars hotel organizations operating in İzmir province. In the conclusion section, the results of the findings were compared with the literature and the study was completed with the suggestions made for implication.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Today, expectations of the employees from the organization to carry out the work may exceed the authority and capacity of employees. This situation is creating pressure on employees due to reasons related to work. This pressure is expressed as job stress in the literature of organizational behavior (Mensah and Amponsah-Tawiah,. Job stress is defined as a sense of inconsistency between demands from the business environment and individual capacities of the employees in order to fulfill these demands (Beheshtifar a& Nazarian, 2013; Colligan & Higgins, 2003). According to Euopean Commission (2002), job stress can be defined as an emotional, cognitive, behavioral structure that affect both the content of work and the organizations in a negative way and cause physiological reactions.

Besides affecting many tasks in the workplace, job stress is considered as one of the variables that affect employee performance. The employees' expectation from life is in accordance with the purpose of establishing a balance in work and personal life, increasing job satisfaction and reducing job stress. Therefore, job stress is being studied as one of the variables that affect the performance of employees in organizations (Christiana & Rajan, 2014). It has been determined in the researches that, job stress causes mental, behavioral and psychological problems and causes organizational problems in the workplace (Beheshtifar & Nazarian, 2013; Folera & Folera, 2016) as well as stimulating working health problems to proceed and causes increase in mistakes made in organizations and speech problems and decrease of concentration and performance (Banerjee & Mehta, 2016; Folera & Folera, 2016).

The physical effects of job stress on workers in the workplace are occurred as unbalanced blood pressure, high cholesterol levels, muscle tension, diabetes, hypertension, ulcer, headache, substance dependence and clinical depression (Colligan & Higgins, 2003) whereas psychological effects are depression, anxiety, pessimism and anger (Colligan & Higgins, 2003). The personality traits that individuals have are influencing their ability to cope with stress and affect their behavior against stressful situations (Folera & Folerai, 2016). Furthermore, while job stress negatively affects employee satisfaction and self-esteem (Ekienabor, 2016; Yang et al., 2016), employees' perceptions of organizational support leads to job stress to decrease (Foley et al., 2005; Kang & Kang, 2016; Lambert et al., 2016; Turung & Celik, 2010).

Turnover intention is defined as the thought, frequency and power of the employees' thoughts about leaving their workplace (Tett & Meyer, 1993; Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). Aggravation of working conditions in organizations and expectation of working over capacity of the employees by their organizations, affect employees in a negative way. Hence, employees who are unhappy and stressed in their organizations, intent to leave their work.

There are many factors that affect the intention to leave work in organizations. These are due to the nature of the work they are doing and the organizations they are affiliated with. Conflicts in the organization, uncertainty, low job satisfaction (Kim et al., 2015), job stress that arise from work overload leads to increase intention to leave the work (Chen et al., 2011). Moreover, emotional exhaustion, and organizational commitment (Cho et al., 2017), emotional intelligence (Hong & Lee, 2016), quality of work life (Mosedeghrad et al., 2011), job stress (Arshadi & Damiri, 2013; Choa et al., 2015; Duraisingam et al., 2009; Jung & Yoon, 2014), career development programs within the organization, HRM (human resources management) applications such as employee relationship management (Long et al., 2012), demographic characteristics (Duraisingam et al., 2009; Guzel et al., 2011) affect employees' turnover intentions.

Perceived organizational support, occurs as a result of evaluating various elements such as valuing employees by their own businesses, using the benefits of approval, respect, payment and promotion, and accessing the information needed to perform their business better (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Perceived organizational support (POS), which includes perceptions of employees' contributions to their businesses and their perception of welfare, is highly correlated with employees' organizational commitment (Kim et al., 2016) and is considered a precursor of organizational commitment (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Perceived organizational support has an experience-based nature that relates to the policies, norms and actions of the organizations (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Working in a supportive environment causes employees to be more willing to report their mistakes. Thus, they can reduce the occurrence of unsafe conditions that can result in a variety of costs (Baran et al., 2012). In addition to this, the belief that employees' contributions to their organizations are being assessed and importance is attached to their welfare by their organizations, reduces turnover intentions (Rhoades et al., 2001).

Perceived organizational support correlates positively with the commitment and obligation to foster and deal with their organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001), on the contrary organizational commitment correlates negatively with intention to voluntary leave work (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Furthermore, perceived managerial support also enhances perceived organizational support and reinforces obligation heard against the organization and emotional organizational commitment, thus reduces the intention of employees to leave work (Stinglhamber et al., 2002).

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between perceptions of organizational support of hotel workers with turnover intentions can be explained by Social Exchange Theory. According to this theory, when hotel employees perceive that they are seen as valuable and are supported by their organizations, they will show intended behaviour such as keep working in the organization and increasing their performance. Consequently, employees who consider that they are valued and regarded by their organizations, they will be able to work in this organization in the future and their earnings will increase if they contribute to productivity, in other words who think that they are supported by their organizations, will also have less intention to leave the work voluntarily. The empirical researches (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017; Anafarta, 2015; Ekmekcioglu & Sokmen, 2016) also demonstrate this. Therefore, depending on both Social Exchange Theory and the empirical researches, perceived organization support is expected to decrease the turnover intention, thus H1 hypothesis was proposed.

H1. Employee perceptions of organizational support negatively affect intention to voluntary leave their work.

If the level of job stress of the employees is over the acceptable limits, this can cause the employees to confront physical, psychological and sociological problems and be unhappy. In the event of an organization that they working in or the job that they are performing is the source of stress, employees voluntarily move away from the organization and may want to get rid of the problems caused by stress. In the empirical research (Cho et al., 2013; Noir & Maad, 2008; Yenihan et al.,

2014) it is suggested that stress increases turnover intention. H2 hypothesis is proposed because it is expected that job stress will increase employees' turnover intentions due to the conducted empirical research and explanations.

H2. The job stress of employees affects their turnover intention positively.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY Sample and data collection

The sample of this research was employees working in 5-star business hotels in the centre of the city of Izmir in Turkey in 2016. Although there are 100 5-star hotels in Izmir, only 55 of them serve the business tourism. The research was conducted with these 55 5-star hotels. All employees regardless of their departments were included in the research; therefore, an easy sampling method has been employed. During data collection, first we have contacted the human resources departments and a copy of the questionnaire was emailed to these departments. Four of the hotels accepted to participate in the study whereas five of the hotels declined.

Table 1. Respondents' Profile

Gender			Marital status			Age		
Male	167	63	Married	99	39	35 Years and	87	34
Female	100	37	Single	157	61	36 Years and	169	66
Education			Department			Work		
Primary Education	58	22	F&B	80	34	5 Years and Under	189	76
Secondary Education	74	28	Support services	52	22	6 Years and Above	61	24
Higher (Bachelor's degree)	52	20	Front office	31	13			
Postgraduate education	82	30	Management House keeping	19	8			
				50	21			

Researchers visited the hotels which volunteered to take part in the research and administered 282 questionnaires by face-to-face. 12 responses were deleted due to disqualification (n=4) or incompleteness (n=8). After the elimination, 274 questionnaires were coded and analysed. 63% of the participants were male and 61% of them were single. A good majority of the participants (78%) had a high school or university degree and 66% of them were 36 years old and above. When their work experience was analysed, 76% of them had 5 years of experience or less and 34% of them were working at a F&B (food and beverage) department (Table 1).

Table 2. Results of Validity and Reliability Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support, Job stress Turnover Intention Scales

	Factor/Items	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance	Mean	Alpha
Part 1	<i>Positive Perceived Organizational Support</i>		4,438	44,147	3,321	,90
	The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	,848				
	The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	,844				
	The organization wishes to give me the best possible job for which I am qualified.	,843				
	The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	,813				
	The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work.	,756				
	The organization values my contribution to its wellbeing.	,754				
	If I decided to quit, the organization would try to persuade me to stay.	,668				
	<i>Negative Perceived Organizational Support</i>		1,578	16,015	3,223	,54
	If my job were eliminated, the organization would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer	,778				
	The organization feels there is little to be gained by employing me for the rest of my career.	,698				
	If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.	,672				
Part 2	<i>Job Stress</i>		3,146	52,441	3,014	,81
	I feel frustrated because of my work.	,820				
	I work under a quite big tension.	,803				
	Problems that are related with work are causing sleeping problems.	,772				

Part 3	If I were working in a different job, my health would probably be better.	,751				
	I feel nervous before the meetings held at the hotel.	,650				
	İşim sağlimi doğrudan etkilemeye yatkındır.	,497				
	My job is likely to directly affect my health.					
	<i>Turnover Intention</i>		2,386	75,525	2,758	,87
	It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year.	,943				
	I often think about quitting	,889				
	I will probably look for a new job new year	,840				

Instrument development

The questionnaire has 4 parts. The first part looks into the demographic information of participants (age, gender, marital status, education and department). The second part includes the perceived organization support scale. The scale was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The third part includes the job stress scale. This scale was developed by House and Rizzo (1972). The last part includes the turnover intention scale. The scale was developed by Wayne et al. (1997). All the constructs were measured by a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” All questionnaire items are shown in Table 2.

FINDINGS

In order to test the hypothesis of the research, primarily the reliability levels of the scales that are utilised within the scope of the research were determined. In this context, explanatory factor analysis was performed and Cronbach values were determined. When explanatory factor analysis is performed, it is assumed that the eigenvalue is greater than 1, factor loads are more than 0.30, the load difference between the adjacent items is more than 0,10, and each factor consists of at least 3 items. The explanatory factor analysis and reliability values of perceived organizational support, job stress and job satisfaction scales are summarized in Table 2.

Firstly, descriptive factor analysis was applied to the POS scale (the first part of Table 3). KMO

value was 88% and the Barlett test was significant in the analysis. In the analysis results of the scale, 10 items were gathered in two dimensions. When the distribution of the items in the dimensions is examined, the first sub-dimension describes about 44% of the total variance. The factor loadings of the factors in the factor range between 0,848 and 0,668. Furthermore, the average of the factors was determined as 3,321 and the reliability value was determined as 0,90. This factor was named "Positive Perceived Organizational Support " because the items in the scale showed the presence of organizational support perception of the employees. The second sub-dimension described about 16 % of the total variance. The loadings of the items in the factor ranged from 0,778 to 0,672, the factor's average was 3,3223 and the reliability value was 0.54. The factor was called "Negative Perceived Organizational Support " because the elements in the factor reflected negative opinions of employees on organizational support.

Factor analysis was then applied to the Job Stress Scale (second part of Table 2). An item which is in the original scale and consisting of 7 items was removed from the analysis and the analysis was repeated because the item had loading below 0.30. In the analysis, the value of BMD was approximately 83% and the Barlett Test was significant. The factor loadings of the items range from 0.820 to 0.497. The overall mean of the scale was 3.014 and the reliability was 0.81.

Finally, factor analysis was applied to Turnover Intention scale (third and last part of Table 2). The KMO value was approximately 66% and the Barlett test score was determined as significant. It was determined that the three items were accounted for 76% of the total variance, average of the scale was 2.758 and reliability was about 87%. When the reliability scores of the scales are examined, it is seen in Table 2 that all the reliability values were over 80% except Negative Organizational Support Perception subscale. Therefore, the scale that was utilized in the scope of research is valid and reliable.

Table 3. Correlation Analysis

	St. D.	Mean	POS	JS	TI
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	0,33	3,291	1		
Job Stress (JS)	0,50	3,014	-,386**	1	
Turnover Intentions (TI)	0,92	2,758	-,516**	,473**	1

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

Correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between variables (Table 3). It was determined that perceived organizational support is negatively related to job stress ($r = -, 386$ $p < 0.01$) and turnover intention ($r = -, 516$ and $p < 0,01$). Job Stress was positively related with turnover

intention ($r = .473$ $p < 0.01$).

Table 4. Multiple Regression Analysis

Factor	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	VIF
Job Stress	.322	6,075	.000	1,175
Perceived Organizational Support	-.392	-7,401	.000	1,175
R=0,595 R ² =0,351 AR ² =0,349 F=74,241 Sig.=0,001				

Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention

Multiple regression analysis was performed to test the hypotheses which was proposed in the research. In this analysis, it was determined that the perception of job stress and perceived organizational support together explain turnover intention 35.4%, and a unit increase in job stress increases the intention to leave the work by 0.32, a unit increase in the perception of organizational support decreases the employees' turnover intention by 0,392. Thus, the hypotheses H1 and H2 are accepted. The equation can be written (while constant was 3,513) as:

$$Y (\text{Overall Preference}) = 3,513 + 0,322 (\text{Job Stress}) + (-0,392) (\text{Perceived Organizational Support})$$

DISCUSSION

In this study, the effect of job stress and organizational support perception on turnover intention which is accepted among the most important issues of turnover rate. In this context hypotheses have been developed based on Social Exchange Theory.

Firstly, this research is expected to reduce employees' turnover intention by perceived organizational support. The research findings support this hypothesis. This finding, depending on the Theory of Social Exchange, is supporting the results of Paille et al. (2010) and Dawley et al. (2010)'s researches in which it was determined that employees who are valued by their organizations, and perceived that their efforts are appreciated, increases their intention to continue at the work. In order to provide the qualified employees to stay at work, it will be useful to ensure the perceptions that the contributions which were made by employees are important for the hotel, the hotel is concerned about the employees, and even if their performance in the organization decreases they will not be discarded and they will be supported for their well-being.

Despite the fact that the mistake should be tolerated, it is hard to remove the feeling of dissatisfaction in the customer as a result of employees mistakes. Therefore, giving feedback to the employees about their mistakes as well as giving feedback to their success, and if needed training them or changing

their task would be useful. In other words, since businesses are economic units, their performance should contribute to both customer satisfaction and the goals of the business. Supporting employees whose performances and contributions to the organization is low, waste of limited resources of the organization will be obstructed.

Secondly, in this study, it was expected that employees' job stress would increase their intention to leave the job. The findings of this study support this hypothesis. This finding supports the results of the research indicating that due to moving away from stressful work environment, employees have an intention to leave their work when they are under stress (Akova et al., 2016; Zincirkiran et al., 2015). While hotel organizations are producing services, they operate in an area where human relations are performing intensively

Surplus of working time, inability to taking a holiday, financial and social problems such as injustice in the working loads and promotions leads to an increase in job stress of employees. Some researches demonstrate that when employees are likely to lose their sources, their stress levels increase and this leads them to perform higher performance. However, it has been generally accepted that job stress is a factor that reduces the productivity of employees. Therefore, even if they can not completely remove stress, hotel managers must implement managerial practices in order to reduce stress level.

Providing compatibility between employee competence and resources (time, equipment, etc.) which are necessary to carry out the duties and the sources and that employees have, instead of giving employees feedback in a demoralizing way communicating with them effectively in order to ensure an increased awareness of their own by hotel managers would increase employees' intention to continue working. Although they intend to leave the organization, employees in countries and businesses which have high unemployment rates, prefer to continue working in their jobs because of the limited opportunities for alternative jobs. The consequences such as low performance and high absenteeism in this case negatively affect customer satisfaction and organizational success. When they find an alternative job they immediately leave the organization. This brings about a number of costs such as finding a new employee, selecting, training and adapting processes. As a result, hotel managers need to support employees and reduce the factors that cause job stress, as explained above, in order to ensure the employees to voluntarily continue to work in the hotel.

Limitations

The most important limitation of this research is that the sample size is not enough for the universe. Therefore, all suggestions made for this reason has been limited to hotel businesses who agreed to

participate in the study. There are also limitations of the study arising from data collection methods. In the data collection process, it can be provided that using a larger sample and interview method will enable the researches to generalize the research results and provide more information about job stress, perception of organizational support and intent to leave the work. Data in this study was collected only from the perspective of employees. In future studies, gathering data from both the employees and the operating point of view, will provide important clues to the researcher for the application outcomes.

References

- Akgunduz, Y., & Sanli, S.C. (2017). The effect of employee advocacy and perceived organizational support on job embeddedness and turnover intention in hotels. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 118125.
- Akova, O., Emiroglu, B.D., & Tanriverdi, H. (2015). Satisfaction and turnover intent: A study at five star hotels in Istanbul. *Journal of Managmenet, Marketing and Logistics*, 4(2), 378-402.
- Allen, D. G. & Shanock, L. R. (2013). Perceived organizational support and embeddedness as key mechanisms connecting socialization tactics to commitment and turnover among new employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34, 350-369.
- Anafarta, N. (2015). Algılanan örgütsel destek ve işten ayrılma niyeti ilişkisi: İş tatmininin aracılık rolü. I.U. İşletme Fakültesi, *işletme iktisadi Enstitüsü Yönetim Dergisi*, 26(79), 112-130.
- Arshadi, N. & Damiri, H. (2013). The relationship of job stress with turnover intention and job performance: moderating role of OBSE. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 84, 706 - 710.
- Banerjee, S., & Mehta, P. (2016). Determining the Antecedents of Job Stress and Their Impact on Job Performance: A Study Among Faculty Members. *IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(2), 7-24.
- Baran, B. E., Shanock, L. R., & Miller, L. R. (2012). advancing organizational support theory into the twenty- first century world of work. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 2, 123- 147.
- Beheshtifar, M. & Nazarian, R. (2013). Role of occupational stress in organizations. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research In Business*, 4(9), 648-658.
- Chao, M. C., Jou, R. C., Liao, C. C., & Kuo, C. W. (2015). Workplace stress, job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover intention of health care workers in rural Taiwan. *Asia-Pacific journal of public health*, 27(2), 18271836.
- Chen, M. F., Lin, C. P., & Lien, G. Y. (2011). Modelling job stress as a mediating role in predicting turnover intention. *The Service Industries Journal*, 31(8), 1327-1345.
- Cho, Y. N., Rutherford, B. N., Friend, S. B., Hamwi, G. A., & Park, J. (2017). The Role of Emotions on Frontline Employee Turnover Intentions. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 25(1), 57-68.
- Choi, B.K., Moon, H.K., Nae, E.Y., & Ko, W. (2013). Distributive justice, job stress, and turnover intention: Cross-level effects of empowerment climate in work groups. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 13(3), 279296.
- Christiana, B.V. & Rajan, J.S. (2014). Impact of stress and job satisfaction towards work liie balance

- of it professionals and private sector executives: an empirical study. *International Journal Of Research In Commerce & Management*, 5(8), 36-39.
- Colligan, T. W., & Higgins, E. M. (2006). Workplace stress: Etiology and consequences. *Journal of workplace behavioral health*, 21(2), 89-97.
- Dawley, D., Houghton, J.D., & Bucklew, N.S. (2010). Perceived organizational support and turnover intention: the mediating effects of personal sacrifice and job fit. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 150(3), 238-257.
- Duraisingam, V., Pidd, K., & Roche, A. M. (2009). The impact of job stress and job satisfaction on turnover intentions: A study of Australian specialist alcohol and other drug workers. *Drugs: education, prevention and policy*, 16(3), 217-231.
- Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D. & Rhoades, L. (2001), Reciprocation of Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 42-51.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500-507.
- Ekienabor E. E.(2016). Impact of job stress on employees' productivity and commitment. *International Journal for Research in Business*, 2(5), 124-134.
- Ekmekcioglu, E.B., & Sokmen, A. (2016). Algılanan örgütsel destegin işten ayrılma niyetine etkisinde örgütsel bağlılığın aracı rolü: Sınır birimi çalışanları üzerine bir araştırma, *International Review of Economics and Management*, 4 (2), 32-45.
- European Commission (2002), "Guidance on Work-Related Stress: Spice of Life or Kiss of Death, European Communities, Luxembourg, European Communities", available at <https://osha.europa.eu/data/links/guidance-on-work-related-stress>.
- Guzel, B., Pergin, N. ş., & Tuketürk, ş. A. (2011). The relationship of perceived organizational support with organizational cynism and its effects on turnover intent: a research on 4 and 5 star hotels. *Young Economists Journal/Revista Tinerilor Economisti*, 9(17), 198-215.
- Hong, E., & Lee, Y. S. (2016). The mediating effect of emotional intelligence between emotional labour, job stress, burnout and nurses' turnover intention. *International journal of nursing practice*, 22(6), 625-632.
- House, R. J., & Rizzo, J. R. (1972) Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 7, 467-505.
- Jung, H.S. & Yoon, H.H. (2014). Antecedents and consequences of employees' job stress in a foodservice industry: Focused on emotional labor and turnover intent. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 84-88.
- Kang, S.W. & Kang, S.D. (2016). High-commitment human resource management and job stress: supervisor support as a moderator. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 44(10), 1719-1732.
- Kim, K. Y., Eisenberger, R., & Baik, K. (2016). Perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment: Moderating influence of perceived organizational competence, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37, 558-583.
- Kim, S. S., Im, J., & Hwang, J. (2015). The effects of mentoring on role stress, job attitude, and turnover intention in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 48, 68-82.
- Lambert, E. G., Minor, K. I., Wells, J. B., & Hogan, N. L. (2016). Social support's relationship to correctional staff job stress, job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *The Social Science Journal*, 53(1), 22-32.

- Long, C. S., Perumal, P., & Ajagbe, A. M. (2012). The impact of human resource management practices on employees' turnover intention: A conceptual model. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 4(2), 629-641.
- Mensah, J., & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2016). Mitigating occupational stress: The role of psychological capital. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 31(4), 189-203.
- Mosadeghrad, A. M., Ferlie, E., & Rosenberg, D. (2011). A study of relationship between job stress, quality of working life and turnover intention among hospital employees. *Health Services Management Research*, 24(4), 170-181.
- Noor, S., & Maad, N. (2008). Examining the relationship between work life conflict, stress and turnover intentions among marketing executives in Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 3(11), 93-102.
- Paille, P., Bourdeau, L., & Galois, I. (2010). Support, trust, satisfaction, intent to leave and citizenship at organizational level. A social exchange approach. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 18(1), 4158.
- Rhoades, L. & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698-714.
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R. and Armeli, S. (2001). Affective Commitment to the Organization: The Contribution of Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 825-836.
- Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Sucharski, I. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565-573.
- Tett, R. & Meyer, J. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 46, 259-293.
- Tongchaiprasit, P. & Ariyabuddhipongs, V. (2016). Creativity and turnover intention among hotel chefs: The mediating effects of job satisfaction and job stress. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 55, 33-40.
- Turung, O., & Oelik, M. (2010). Çalışanların algıladıkları örgütsel destek ve iş stresinin örgütsel özdeşleşme ve iş performansına etkisi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi*, 17(2), 183-206.
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Yang, H. C., Ju, Y. H., & Lee, Y. C. (2016). Effects of job stress on self-esteem, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. *Journal of Transnational Management*, 21(1), 29-39.
- Yenihan, B., Oner, M., & Oiftyildiz, K. (2014). The relationship between job stress and intention to leave: A study on automotive company. *Journal of Labour Relations*, 4(1), 38-49.
- Zincirkiran, M., Qelik, G.M., Ceylan, A.K., & Emhan, A. (2015). İşgörenlerin örgütsel bağlılık, işten ayrılma niyeti, iş stresi ve iş tatmininin örgütsel performans üzerindeki etkisi: Enerji sektöründe bir araştırma. *Finans Politik & Ekonomik Yorumlar*, 52 (600), 59-71.

SOCIAL MEDIA'S INFLUENCE ON DESTINATION IMAGE, TOURIST SATISFACTION AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

Changlu Chen Mid Sweden University Östersund, Sweden

Tatiana Chekalina Mid Sweden University Östersund, Sweden

Matthias Fuchs Mid Sweden University Östersund, Sweden

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to explore how the use of social media affects destination image, tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions towards the destination. Survey data is gathered through questionnaires voluntarily completed by Chinese tourists departing from Shanghai Pudong International Airport. This survey data serves as input for a linear structural equation model (SEM) to test a set of formulated hypotheses. Interestingly enough, empirical findings indicate that social media show the potential to significantly influence tourists' behavioral intentions to revisit the destination. This relationship is mediated through perceived overall destination image and tourist satisfaction, respectively.

Key Words: Social media, overall destination image, tourist satisfaction, behavioral intentions, structural equation model (SEM)

INTRODUCTION

The number of global social media users is prognosticated to rise up to 2.33 billion in 2017 (Statista, 2014). Electronic social media platforms reshaped the way how tourism information is distributed and trips are planned (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Because of the specific characteristics of social media, such as the up-to-date and authentic nature of shared information, the relevance of content, and the level of connectivity with other channels and users, Xiang and Gretzel (2010) postulate that "tourism marketers can no longer ignore the role of social media in distributing travel-related information without risking to become irrelevant" (ibid, 2010, p. 186). Today, tourism marketers use social media, especially, to encourage conversation and to stimulate interaction among users all over the world. This marks the term "word-of-mouth" (WOM) shifting to "world-of-mouth" (Qualman, 2009).

While social media channels play a significant role in current tourism businesses, it is questioned whether social media can also sustain positive behavioral intentions of tourists, thus, increase customer loyalty towards a destination. Although causal links between online promotion, destination awareness, tourist satisfaction and tourist loyalty have been studied and empirically confirmed in previous research (Chan & Guillet, 2011; Lai & Vinh, 2013), the cause-effect chain between social media use, destination image, tourist satisfaction and tourists' behavioral intentions has not been examined in the literature so far. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to empirically test the hypothesized significance of both direct and indirect relationships between social media use and behavioral intentions, which, in turn, are supposed to be mediated through tourists' perceived destination image and tourist satisfaction, respectively. From a theoretical perspective, this paper aims at developing and testing a model (i.e. measurement and structural model) which represents major perceptive and informative elements contributing to the building of tourists' behavioral intentions (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). More precisely, these perceptive constructs comprise overall destination image and tourist satisfaction which, in turn, are hypothesized to be influenced by tourists' use of social media.

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 provides a literature review which discusses the theoretical constructs employed in the proposed research model. In section 3 the conceptual model is presented and related test hypotheses are formulated. Section 4 briefly highlights methodological issues on questionnaire development and data collection. Section 5 discusses empirical findings. Finally, the conclusion section 6 summarizes major findings, discusses study limitations and sketches the agenda for future research.

RELATED WORK

Social media. According to Tuten and Solomon (2013), social media platforms are defined as “online means of communication, conveyance, collaboration, and cultivation among interconnected and interdependent networks of people, communities, and organizations enhanced by technological capabilities and mobility” (ibid, 2010, p. 2). Accordingly, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) list five key actions when it comes to managing social media presence:

‘be active, be interesting, be humble, be informal, and be honest’. Indeed, social media channels have transformed the way travelers interact with others, such as other tourists and hospitality operators, as well as the way hospitality businesses attract and retain tourists (Leung & Bai 2013). More precisely, customers no longer receive information passively, rather, they actively search and

distribute information in social media channels as well as engage in online sharing, thereby generate electronic word-of-mouth (Chu & Kim, 2011; Ryan & Jones, 2009). Already in the preInternet age, Um and Crompton (1990) demonstrated that both symbolic stimuli, such as promotional destination information as well as media information, together with social stimuli represent major influence factors on the formation of destination image perceived by tourists. These long-standing findings indicate that social media channels show the capacity for tourist destinations not only to achieve global visibility, but rather to strengthen their image as perceived by potential customers (Kirafova & Pavhceka, 2014). Moreover, social media websites containing user-generated content, for example, customer review websites, social network websites. (e.g., Facebook, twitter, Trip Advisor, blogs), as well as search engines (i.e. guiding travellers to these sites), play an increasingly substantial role in the online information and search behavior of tourists (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

Social media in China. According to the ‘Chinese research report on social media users’ (2016), the main purpose of using social media are interacting with friends (72.2%), news-feeding (64.3%), following interesting content (59%), gaining knowledge and help (58.3%) and sharing information (54.8%). Because of policy restrictions, China has its own social media channels. Nevertheless, Yang and Wang (2015) examined the major categories of social media channels used both domestically and internationally, and identified the social media channels frequently used by Chinese tourism industry:

Micro-blogs (text-based and with a word-limit, share experience, post comments, interact with readers; Global: Twitter, China: Sina Weibo, Tencent Weibo);

Social Networking Sites (SNS, personal profiles creation, connecting, communicating, develop relationships development, photo or video-sharing; Global: Facebook, LinkedIn; China: Renren, Douban);

Content Communities (sharing materials, e.g., Text, photos, videos, music; Global: YouTube; China: Youku, Tudou);

Sites Dedicated for Feedback (post, read, review, respond, discuss, and share experiences, opinions, and thoughts; Global: TripAdvisor, China: mafengwo.com);

Mobile Social Applications (in mobile devices, offering a variety of daily service to facilitate life, mainly for communicating; Global: WhatsApp; China: WeChat).

Customers' behavioral intentions. Tourists' intention to revisit a destination and their willingness to recommend a visited destination to friends and relatives are the main components of tourists' future behavior, thus, the degree of tourists' loyalty (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998; Bigne et al., 2001; Oppermann, 2000). Understanding tourists' behavioral intentions towards a destination helps tourism marketers to come up with appropriate strategies to promote the destination, retain tourists as well as achieve high levels of destination loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). A positive WOM not only attracts a larger amount of potential tourists, but more importantly, it indicates the willingness to keep up favorable relationships between the customer and the destination (Liu, Li, & Kim, 2015). Therefore, behavioral intentions towards a destination include both, the revisit intention and the willingness to recommend. Willingness to participate in electronic WOM can, thus, be regarded as a meaningful indicator for tourists' loyalty.

Destination image. Crompton (1979) defines destination image as "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination" (ibid, 1979, p.18). Destination image is considered as one of the most important criteria for travellers to decide whether to travel to a specific destination - or not (Buhalis, 2000). A favorable destination image can raise both immediate as well as future intentions to revisit or recommend a destination (Assaker et al., 2011; Chen & Qu, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). Furthermore, destination image has the power to directly influence tourists' attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction, respectively (Chi & Qu, 2008). Most interestingly, Castro et al. (2007) suggest that the image of a destination and tourist satisfaction can directly and indirectly affect tourists' willingness to revisit the destination and to recommend to others. Accordingly, in this study, destination image acts as a driver behind tourist satisfaction. More precisely, overall destination image is considered as the general impression of the destination perceived by tourists, thus, does not involve attribute-based image dimensions (Crompton, 1979).

Tourist satisfaction. Oliver (1999) defined tourist satisfaction as 'pleasurable fulfilment'. Similarly, Lucio et al. (2006) consider tourist satisfaction as tourists' sense after contrasting consumption outcomes against previous expectations and a standard of pleasure which is ranging well above the level of displeasure. Previous studies indicate that overall tourist satisfaction for a specific destination is an excellent predictor for the intention to revisit the destination (Alexandras & Shabbar, 2005; Bigne et al., 2001). According to Szymanski and Hise (2000), both quality and quantity of information which is obtained by tourists during their decision making process, has a positive impact on satisfaction with the destination. Furthermore, Wang and Hsu (2010) demonstrate that destination satisfaction mediates the relationship between overall destination image and

destination loyalty. More concretely, study findings indicate that travellers which perceive a favorable image of a destination tend to have a higher level of satisfaction and, thus, tend to increase their positive behavioral intentions towards that destination including the willingness to revisit the destination and also to engage in WoM marketing.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

As stated, previous studies have examined the relationship between destination image and tourist loyalty mediated by factors, such as perceived value and satisfaction (Bigne et al., 2001; Chen & Qu, 2008; Chekalina et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, the basic research proposition of the present study is that the use of social media can lead to a positive destination image and to higher levels of tourist satisfaction, what in turn, encourages tourists' revisit intentions as well as their willingness to recommend. Based on the above brief literature review, the proposed conceptual model and related hypotheses postulating (i.e. positive) relationships between social media use, destination image, tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions, are stated as follows (Figure 1):

Hypothesis 1: Social media use has a positive effect on destination image

Hypothesis 2: Social media use has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction

Hypothesis 3: Social media use has a positive effect on behavioral intentions

Hypothesis 4: Destination image has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction

Hypothesis 5: Destination image has a positive effect on behavioral intentions

Hypothesis 6: Tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on behavioral intentions

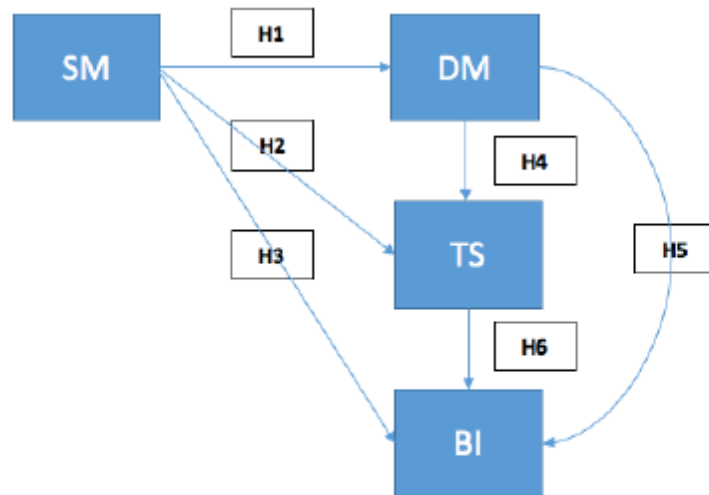


Figure 1. Conceptual model and proposed hypotheses

RESEARCH METHOD

In order to empirically test the proposed hypotheses, a questionnaire was developed in Chinese language to collect survey data from Chinese tourists. The questionnaire comprises a total of 14 questions related to the four theoretical constructs ‘social media’ (SM), ‘destination image’ (DM), ‘tourist satisfaction’ (TS), and ‘behavioral intentions’ (BI), respectively. More specifically, five items related to social media were deduced from the study by Hays et al. (2013) comprising the accuracy of travel information in social media, update frequency of travel information in social media, attractiveness of travel information in social media, clarity of travel information in social media, and the interactivity of travel information in social media. Operationalization of overall image, satisfaction and behavioral intentions similarly derived from prior tourism research (e.g., Assaker et al., 2011; Bigne et al., 2001; Castro et al., 2007; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Overall destination image was measured by three items including overall destination image before the trip, overall destination image after the trip and consistency of the overall destination image before the trip and after the trip. Overall tourist satisfaction was assessed with three statements: “I was satisfied with Shanghai in general”, “It was a memorable

travel experience for me”, and “This travel experience in Shanghai exceeded my expectations”. Finally, the behavioral intentions construct was measured by three items, including willingness to return to Shanghai in two years, willingness to recommend the destination to friends and relatives, and willingness to share travel experience of Shanghai on social media.

All the considered measurement items were assessed by respondents on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (5). In addition, the wording of some questions was amended and some questions were slightly changed after conducting a pilot test. Tourists older than 18 years from Chinese cities others than Shanghai who have used social media to get tourism information about Shanghai were considered as the target population of this study. Questionnaires were distributed to Chinese tourists in the departure lobby of Shanghai Pudong International Airport between April and May 2016.

A totality of 168 questionnaires was finally collected. After eliminating some unusable questionnaires, 142 questionnaires were coded for data analysis in SPSS and AMOS (Ver. 21). First of all, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to validate the measurement model by testing the validity of used questionnaire items and the proposed model constructs, respectively (Hair et al., 2010). Secondly, a linear structural equation model (SEM) is employed to analyze the relationships between model constructs in accordance to the stated hypotheses (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010).

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Descriptive analysis. Sample share for male is 41.5% and 58.5% for female. Survey respondents are mainly at an age between 18 and 44 years, which accounts for 92.3% cumulatively, i.e. 18-24 years (28.9%), 25-34 years (35.2%), and 35-44 years (28.2%), respectively. These descriptive findings indicate that young and middle-aged people are more likely to use social media in relation to their holiday trips. Interestingly, most of the respondents show a higher education, i.e. 77.5% own a college or bachelor degree and 6.3% own a postgraduate or PhD. degree. In total, 53% of respondents visited Shanghai the first time, while 47% had been to Shanghai more than once. Notably, 95% of respondents indicated “leisure” as the travel purpose. Moreover, 62.7% of the respondents followed the official account of Shanghai tourism administration for gaining travel information. Most importantly

for the study at hand, survey respondents used different kinds of social media channels for getting tourism information. In quantitative terms, the share of using the social media platform mafengwo.com was 38.7%, while for Wechat the share was 28.2%, and for Weibo 21.8%, respectively.

Reliability and Validity. Reliability and validity measures derived from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) include composite reliability and the average variance extracted (Hair et al., 2010; Jacoby, 2010). As previously discussed, in this study, CFA considers the four constructs, i.e. social media use, destination image, tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions, measured through a total of 14 items (Table 1). All Cronbach Alpha values for the theoretical constructs range well above the recommended threshold value, i.e. 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). These findings indicate that the multiple items employed to measure the four theoretical constructs can be considered as reliable (i.e. SM=0.883, BI=0.842, DI=0.748, TS=0.792).

Table 1
Reliability and validity of the proposed model

Construct	Variable	Items	Std. Loading	t-value	CR	AVE
Social Media (SM)	SM1	Accuracy	0.758	10.225	0.884	0.603
	SM2	Update Frequency	0.807	11.204		
	SM3	Attractiveness	0.830	11.704		
	SM4	Content Clarity	0.765	10.364		
	SM5	Interactivity	0.719	9.506		
Destination Image (DI)	DI1	General image (before)	0.721	8.805	0.751	0.503
	DI2	General image (after)	0.766	9.470		
	DI3	Image Consistency	0.634	7.526		
Tourist Satisfaction (TS)	TS1	General Satisfaction	0.819	10.774	0.791	0.560
	TS2	Travel Experience	0.778	10.075		
	TS3	Expectation	0.636	7.785		
Behavioural Intentions (BI)	BI1	Revisit Intention	0.776	10.265	0.843	0.641
	BI2	Willingness to Recommend	0.808	10.852		
	BI3	Willingness to Share	0.818	11.048		

(All p-value<0.001)

With regard to discriminant validity, all correlations between the constructs (i.e. social media, destination image, tourist satisfaction, and behavioral intention) were positive (i.e. ranging around 0.65) and significant (i.e. $p < 0.001$). Most importantly, the values for average variance extracted (AVE) of all four model constructs range well all above the threshold value of 0.5 and rank also above the values of the squared correlation for every construct-pair. The latter finding implies that the constructs were independent and clearly distinct to each other (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, for each set of indicators representing a theoretical construct, standardized factor loadings were all high (i.e. 0.63 - 0.807) and significant (i.e. $p < 0.001$) with t-values ranging between 7.5 and 11.7, thus, suggesting convergent validity (Gerbing & Anderson, 1998). To conclude, all items are reliable and values for composite reliability rank all above critical threshold values (Hair et al., 2010).

Based on this satisfactory measurement validity and reliability, the subsequent SEM analysis was employed to examine the empirical relationships between each construct and the overall fit of the testing model. According to Bollen (1989), structural equation modelling is used for evaluating of how well a proposed conceptual model, containing specific measurement indicators, fits the empirical data. Table 2 shows the model's overall goodness-of-fit assessment: $\chi^2/df=1.099$, GFI=0.933, AGFI=0.9, NFI=0.923, NNFI=0.990, CFI=0.992, RMSEA=0.0270. As can be seen from Table 2, all goodness-of-fit measures are within the required ranges (Hair et al. 2010). Again, these findings demonstrate that the proposed model fits the empirical data well, thus, model constructs show high convergent validity and construct reliability, respectively (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992).

Table 2
Goodness of fit indices of the proposed model

	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	NFI	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
Criteria	<3	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	<0.05
Indicator	1.099	0.933	0.900	0.923	0.990	0.992	0.027

Path analysis. Linear structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis was conducted in order to examine the relationship between each pair of constructs as hypothesized in section 3 of this paper. Findings are summarized in Table 3 and discussed next. Path analysis revealed that the

successful use of social media is positively related to overall destination image, thus, confirming hypothesis one (H1). Likewise, the positive relationship between tourist satisfaction and tourists' behavioral intention is empirically supported (H6). Moreover, as shown in Table 3, social media use has a significant positive effect on tourist satisfaction (t-value=4.019, $p<0.01$), thus, the relationships between social media use and overall tourist satisfaction is strongly consistent with hypothesis 2 (H2). However, interestingly enough, social media use does not have a direct positive influence on tourists' behavioral intentions, as H3 is not statistically supported at the $p<0.05$ level. Nevertheless, it has to be noted that social media use indirectly does influence tourists' behavioral intentions through the mediator variables destination image and tourist satisfaction, respectively (Hair et al., 2010; Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). Similarly, the direct relationship between destination image and satisfaction is not statistically significant at the $p<0.05$ level (H4). This implies that, in this research case, overall destination image does not have a direct positive effect on tourist satisfaction. Finally, as hypothesized (H5), the effect of overall destination image on tourists' behavioral intentions is significant at the $p<0.10$ level (Table 3).

Table 3
Result of path analysis

Structural Relationships	Estimate	Standard Error	T-Value (CR)	P-Value
H1: SM \rightarrow DI	0.677	0.110	6.138	***
H2: SM \rightarrow TS	0.568	0.141	4.019	***
H3: SM \rightarrow BI	0.180	0.145	1.240	0.215
H4: DI \rightarrow TS	0.185	0.141	1.307	0.191
H5: DI \rightarrow BI	0.247	0.137	1.802	0.072
H6: TS \rightarrow BI	0.378	0.134	2.830	0.005

*** $p < 0.01$

DISCUSSION, STUDY LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Study findings show a significant role of social media use affecting both, perceived overall destination image and tourist satisfaction. While previous studies analyzed indirect relationships between destination image and tourist satisfaction typically mediated through constructs, like perceived value and perceived quality (Bigne et al, 2001; Chekalina et al.,

2014; Zhang et al., 2014), a direct relationship between destination image (i.e. attribute-based) and tourist satisfaction was neither supported by Chen and Tsai (2008) nor by Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010). The present study could show for the destination of Shanghai that overall destination image and tourist satisfaction are crucial mediators for the under-researched relationship between social media use and tourists' behavioral intentions (Lai & Vinh, 2013). This important finding suggests that information retrieved by tourists from social media platforms to support their travel decision acts as an effective screening device leading to a favorable destination image, superior satisfaction, as well as a positive post-consumption behavior towards the destination.

While the importance of destination image and tourist satisfaction has been widely discussed in the tourism literature, little research emphasized the role of social media as a key strategic variable in co-determining tourists' behavioral intentions so far. Thus, from a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the e-Tourism research body with a special focus on behavioral intentions, social media use, and customer relationship management (Pike et al., 2011; Vogt, 2011). From a managerial perspective, the study clearly suggests that social media platforms providing high-quality tourism information and services show the power to positively influence tourists' perception of the destination image and, thus, increase satisfaction levels. Therefore, the quality of information and services provided by social media channels is crucial and should be in the clear focus of destination developers, marketers as well as IT experts (Lin & Huang, 2006; Litvin et al., 2008). Tourism businesses and organizations at all levels can use social media as an effective promotional and communication tool, e.g. for recommending itineraries, accommodation, restaurants as well as events and sites (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Most importantly, a favorable destination image is built and kept through the use of social media, thus, social media channels show the power to further strengthen the relationship between tourists and the destination brand (Barreda et al., 2013; Kerr et al., 2015). Finally, the (e.g. semi-automatic) extraction and analysis of user generated content (UGC) from social media sources can effectively support the tourism industry in their effort to improve their services based on the needs and sentiment articulated by customers in tourism-related review platforms, like TripAdvisor and Booking.com. Recent examples for artificial learning-based topic detection in tourism reviews and subsequent automated sentiment analysis can be found in Menner et al. (2016) and Schmunk et al. (2014).

Two major limitations of the study should be highlighted: firstly, empirical results may not be generalized as the number of questionnaires was fairly limited. Secondly, the use of a convenience sampling approach might have decreased external validity of the research (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010). Future similar studies should, thus, not only use larger probability samples, but also consider concrete social media strategies of the destination and, in an experimental set up, develop respective measures to quantify its performance (Chan et al., 2011). Thirdly, primarily on the base of qualitative research methods, additional factors with the likely potential to mediate the relationship between social media use and behavioral intentions should be identified, such as trip quality, perceived value and destination awareness (Chekalina et al., 2014). Finally, future studies with larger sample sizes should allow for multi-group comparisons between various tourist segments (e.g. first-time vs. repeat visitors) and consumers who used social media for their trip planning in contrast to those who did not.

REFERENCES

- Alexandras A., & Shabbar, J. (2005). Stated preferences for two Cretan heritage attractions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 985-1005.
- Andreassen, W., & Lindestad, B. (1998). Customer loyalty and complex services: The impact of corporate image on quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty for customer with varying degrees of service expertise. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9(1), 7-23.
- Assaker, G., Vinzi, V. E., & O'Connor, P. (2011). Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: A two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 890-901.
- Barreda, A., Nusair, Kh., Bilighan, A., & Okumus, F. (2013). Developing a brand structure pyramid model for travel-related online social networks. *Tourism Review*, 68(4), 49 - 70.
- Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, M. I., & Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship. *Tourism Management*, 22(6), 607-616.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). A New Incremental Fit Index for General Structural Equation Models. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 17(3), 303-316.
- Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 97-116.
- Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of e-Tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 609-623.
- Castro, C.B., Armario, M., & Ruiz, M., (2007). The influence of market heterogeneity on the relationship between a destination's image and tourists' future behaviour. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 175-187.

- Chan, N. L., & Denizci Guillet, B. (2011). Investigation of social media marketing: How does the hotel industry in Hong Kong perform in marketing on social media web- sites? *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(4), 345-368.
- Chekalina, T., Fuchs, M., & Lexhagen, M. (2014): A-Value Creation Perspective on the Customer-based Brand Equity Model for Tourism Destinations - A Case from Sweden, *Finnish Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(1): 7-23.
- Chen, C., & Myagmarsuren, O. (2010). Exploring relationships between Mongolian destination brand equity, satisfaction and destination loyalty. *Tourism Economics*, 16(4), 981-994.
- Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. C. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115-1122.
- Chi, C. G., & Qu, H. (2008). Examining the structural relationships of destination image, tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: An integrated approach. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 624-636.
- Chu, S.-C., & Kim, Y. (2011). Determinants of consumer engagement in electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) in social networking sites. *International Journal of Advertising*, 30(1), 47- 75.
- Crompton, J. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon the image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(4), 18-23.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1992). Monte Carlo evaluations of goodness of fit indices for structural equation models. *Social Methods & Research*, 21, 132-160.
- Gerbing, D.W., & Anderson, J.C., (1998). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 186-192.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hays, S., Page, S.J., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Social media as a destination marketing tool: Its use by national tourism organisations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16, 211-239.
- Jaccard, J., & Jacoby (2010). Theory construction and model building skills - A practical guide for social scientists. New York. *Guildford Press*
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, 53(1), 59-68.
- Kerr, G., Schultz, D.E., Kitchen, Ph., Mulhern, F.J., & Beede, P. (2015). Does traditional advertising theory apply to the digital world? *Journal of Advertising Research*, December, 390-400.
- Kirafova, A., & Pavhceka, A. (2014). "Development of Social Media Strategies in Tourism Destination." *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 175(2015): 358-66.
- Lai, W.H., & Vinh, N.Q. (2013). Online Promotion and Its Influence on Destination

Awareness and Loyalty in the

- Tourism Industry*. *Advances in Management & Applied Economics*, 3(3): 2013, 15-30
- Lee, C. K., Lee, Y. K., & Lee, B. K. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 839-858.
- Leung, X. Y., & Bai, B. (2013). How Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability Impact Travelers' Social Media Involvement and Revisit Intention. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(1-2), 58-77.
- Liu, X., Li, J., & Kim, W. G. (2015). The role of travel experience in the structural relationships among tourists' perceived image, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*. doi:10.1177/1467358415610371
- Lin, Y.S., & Huang, J.Y. (2006). Internet blogs as marketing medium. A case study. *Journal of Business Research*, 59, 1201-1206.
- Litvin, St. W., Goldsmith, R.E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word of mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3): 458-468.
- Lucio, H. L. Maria, M. S. Miguel, A. M., & Javier, S. (2006). Tourism Destination Image, Satisfaction and Loyalty: A Study in Ixtapa-Zihuatanejo, Mexico. *Tourism Geographies*, 8(4): 343-358.
- Menner, Th., Hopken, Fuchs, M., & Lexhagen, M. (2016). Topic detection - Identifying relevant topics in tourism reviews. In Inversini, A. & Schegg, R. (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2016* (pp. 411-423). New York: Springer.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999) Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (Special Issue), 33-45.
- Oppermann, M. (2000). Tourism destination loyalty. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 78-84.
- Qualman, E. (2009). *Socialnomics: How Social Media Transforms the Way We Live and Do Business*. New York: Wiley.
- Pike, S., Murdy, S., & Lings, I. (2011). Visitor Relationship Orientation of Destination Marketing Organizations
Journal of Travel Research, 50: 443-453
- Ryan, D., & Jones, C. (2009). Understanding Digital Marketing: Marketing Strategies for Engaging the Digital Generation. *London and Philadelphia: Kogan Page Inc*.
- Schmunk, S., Hopken, W., Fuchs, M., & Lexhagen, M. (2014). Sentiment Analysis - Implementation and Evaluation of Methods for Sentiment Analysis with Rapid-Miner®, In Xiang, Ph. & Tussyadiah, I. (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2014* (pp. 253-265). New York: Springer.
- Solomon, M. R. (2013). *Consumer behaviour: Buying, having, and being* (10th ed.). Boston: Prentice Hall.
- Spreng, R.A., MacKenzie, S.B., & Olshavsky, R.W. (1996). A re-examination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (July), 15-32.

- Statista (2014). *Number of social network users worldwide from 2010 to 2017*. Retrieved from: <http://www.statista.com/statistics/278414/number-of-worldwide-social-network-users/>.
- Szymanski, D.M., & Hise, R.T. (2000). E-satisfaction: an initial examination. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(3), 309-22.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 432-448.
- Vogt, C. (2011). Customer Relationship Management in Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50, 356-364
- Wang, C., & Hsu, M. K. (2010). The Relationships of Destination Image, Satisfaction, and Behavioral Intentions: An Integrated Model. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(8), 829-843.
- Xiang, Z., & Gretzel, U. (2010). Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 179-188.
- Chinese research report on social media use (2016). (2016) ,
CNNIC, retrieved May 15, 2016, from <http://research.cnnic>.
- Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40, 213-223.
- Yang, X., & Wang, D. (2015). The Exploration of Social Media Marketing Strategies of Destination Marketing Organizations in China. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 11(2), 166-185.

TOURIST MOTIVATIONS, ONLINE INFORMATION SEARCHING DESTINATION IMAGE AND TOURIST BEHAVIOURAL LOYALTY

[Arminda Almeida](#), University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain

[Faten Jaber](#), Henley Business School, United Kingdom

[Yuksel Ekinci](#), Henley Business School, United Kingdom

[Sergio Moreno Gil](#), University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain

Introduction

Understanding travellers' destination loyalty is a focal point and of great interest to both tourism researchers and practitioners in developing effective tourism marketing and communication strategies (Baloglu, 2000). When tourists make the decision to travel, they find difficulties when assessing the quality provided if they haven't visited these locations before (Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007). Information sources are used to reduce uncertainty during the decision-making process (Xiang et al., 2014). Information sources have been traditionally analysed considering their influence in explaining the next visit to a destination (Baloglu, 2000). However, the influence on repeating visits (loyalty), considering behavioural loyalty, has been omitted in the literature. In this process, different variables must be included to explain this loyalty behaviour, such as motivations and image (Gursoy, Chen, & Chi, 2014).

Previous studies have analysed the impact of travel motivations on tourist loyalty (Sun et al., 2013) and they are included in destination choice and image formation models as a major influence guiding the development of destination images (Moutinho, 1987; Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990). Several empirical studies provided some support for this relationship (Baloglu, 2000, Beerli y Martin, 2004; Crompton, Fakeye, & Lue, 1992; Hu & Ritchie, 1993). However, more in-depth research on this topic is still needed.

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of tourist motivations and online information search behaviour on destination image formation and behavioural loyalty. The two key contributions of the study are (1) examination of the effect of online information search

behaviour effect on destination image formation, (2) the mediation role of destination image between tourist motivations, information search behaviour and behavioural loyalty. This is important because previous research, to best of our knowledge, has not yet examined the effect of online search behaviour on destination image formation and behavioural loyalty. Although previous research has examined the effect of destination image on attitudinal loyalty, an examination of the effect of destination image on behavioural loyalty is limited.

Background of the Study

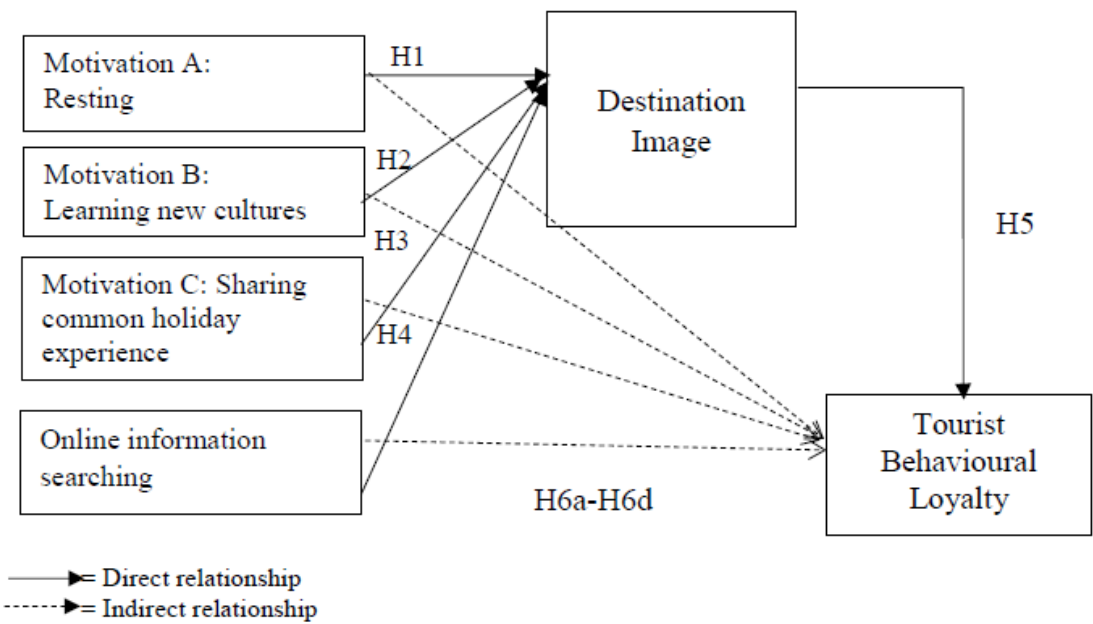
Consumer loyalty is one of the most critical marketing constructs (Tasci, 2016). The development of customer loyalty has become an important marketing strategy due to the benefits associated to keeping existing tourists (McMullan & Gilmore, 2008). The financial and marketing-related benefits of tourists revisiting a destination, justify the great effort tourist destinations are making in order to manage to keep their tourists (Darnell & Johnson, 2001; Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). According to the literature, there are two elements of loyalty (Baloglu, 2002; Kumar, Shah, & Venkatesas, 2006): behavioural and attitudinal. From a behavioural point of view, loyalty can be understood as a revisit to a holiday destination. An attitudinal approach represents the personal attitude and emotions that play a part in showing loyalty to a destination. The intention of revisiting a destination in the future, is a manifestation of the later.

Earlier literature highlights several factors that encourage people to revisit a destination: information sources (traditional and new), motivations, and perceived image of the destination (Assaker, Vinzi, & O'Connor, 2011; Hudson, Wang, & Gil, 2011; McDowall, 2010; Sun et al., 2013). Although, there are other determinants of loyalty (e.g., satisfaction, quality), this study has focused its attention on those that either have been less discussed in the literature, like information sources, or have been the subject of research but a consensus about the direction and magnitude of these relationships has not been reached.

Baloglu (2000) demonstrates that visitation intention is determined by interrelated sets of stimuli (information sources), psychological (socio-psychological travel motivations), and image variables. Following Baloglu (2000), the present study determines the relationship between the sources of information (traditional and new) and the travel motivations and the behavioural loyalty. The purpose of this study is to develop and test a model of travellers' loyal behaviour, with particular reference to destination image, which they have visited before. Then,

this study compares the destination image formation for visitors and non-visitors. Figure 1 shows conceptual framework for this study.

Figure 1: The Research Model



The research model in figure 1 proposes six research hypotheses. First, hypotheses H1:H3 proposes that three motivational factors affect destination image. Second, H4 suggests that online information searching also influences destination image. Third, H5 indicates the effect of destination image on behavioural loyalty. Fourth, as indicated by the straight lines, the tourist’s behavioural loyalty is fully mediated by destination image. In order to examine the direct effects of motivational factors alongside online information search on behavioural loyalty, we propose an alternative partial mediation model, as shown in the dotted lines in Figure 1 and suggested by H6a- H6d. The theoretical background of the mentioned hypotheses will be discussed in the following sections.

Research Hypothesis

Effects of Tourist Motivations on Destination Image

Previous studies have analysed the impact of travel motivations on tourist loyalty (Sun et al., 2013) and they are included in destination choice and image formation models as a major influence guiding the development of destination images (Moutinho, 1987; Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990). These motivations can be classified into push and pull factors (Crompton,

1979; Dann, 1977). According to Dann (1977), internal reasons (push) linked to the tourists' desires include the need to escape, relax, gain prestige, health, adventure, and social interaction. However, attraction factors (pull) are related to the attractiveness of the destination and include tangible resources such as historical, artistic, cultural, natural, and culinary resources. When the trip motivation is internal, an intense and satisfying experience in the destination will have a positive effect on the intention to revisit it (Hosany & Martin, 2012). Moreover, according to Anton, Camarero, and Laguna-Garcia (2014) external reasons (pull) could disappear when the destination becomes familiar to an individual and both medium- and long-term goals have been reached, implying a lower intention to revisit. Thus, travel motivations of individuals either can act as inhibitors of loyalty or can benefit the development of it.

H1: Motivation to relax has a positive influence on destination image.

H2: Motivation to knowing new culture has a positive influence on destination image.

H3: Motivation to share similar holiday experience has a positive influence on destination image.

Effects of online information searching on destination image

The social media use on the Internet by travellers has become a dominant way of searching for information (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), with several types of content generated by consumers (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014), such as wikis (i.e., Wikipedia), blogs and microblogs (i.e., Twitter), social media (i.e., Facebook), communication exchange channels (i.e., Flickr, YouTube), and review channels (i.e., TripAdvisor). In this context it is crucial to identify what the most relevant new information sources are in order to consider them in this study.

According to Chan and Guillet (2011), Twitter and Facebook are the most widely used social media sites in the industry. Thus, Twitter is the most popular microblogging service (Jansen, Zhang, Sobel, & Chowdury, 2009), and Facebook is the most-used social media platform among European tourists (Escobar-Rodriguez, Gravalos- Gastaminza, & Perez-Calanas, 2016). Besides Twitter and Facebook, YouTube, Flickr, and TripAdvisor are among other popularly used social media sites in the industry. Thus, YouTube is the second-largest worldwide search engine after Google (Welbourn & Grant, 2015), being the leader in the distribution of video content. Flickr is the most popular photo-sharing social media site (Zielstra & Hochmair, 2013), although new

players (e.g., Instagram) are taking over this position. Finally, TripAdvisor is the largest community travel site in the world (TripAdvisor, 2016). Table 1 shows references that support the relevance of these social media sites and the importance of analyzing them to pursue the goals of this study.

Table 1. Literature supporting the importance of different social media sites in tourism

Social Media site	References
Twitter	Hennig-Thurau, Wiertz, & Feldhaus, 2015; Jansen & Zhang, 2009; Haenlein, 2010; Lo, McKercher, Lo, Cheung & Law, 2011; Palmer & 2009 Escobar-Rodriguez et al., 2016; Illum, Ivanov, & Liang, 2010; Lo et al., Palmer & Koenig-Lewis, 2009; Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009
YouTube	Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Palmer & Koenig-Lewis, 2009
Flickr	Angus, Stuart, & Thelwall, 2010; Donaire & Gall, 2011; Kaplan & Lo, McKercher, Lo, Cheung & Law, 2011; Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013; Lambert, 2012
TripAdvisor	Gupta & Kim, 2004; Xiang et al., 2014
Wikipedia	Fang, Kamei, & Fujita, 2015; Hanna, Rohm, & Crittenden, 2011

Previous studies have tried to understand how tourists use the Internet to gather information, as well as the best way for tourist suppliers to make the most out of those channels (Arana, Carballo, & Gil, 2015; Buhalis & Law, 2008; Chung & Buhalis, 2009; Ho et al., 2012; Kladou & Magravani, 2015; Litvin et al., 2008; Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006; Papathanassis & Knolle, 2011; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Recently, there has been an advance in research related to the use of social media and the internet when establishing relationships with tourists and loyalty (Casalo, Flavian, & Guinaliu, 2010; Kim & Hardin, 2010; Kim, Lee & Hiemstra, 2004; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010) and the impact it has when planning a holiday (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Sigala, Christou, & Gretzel, 2012; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

For example, Casalo et al. (2010) studied the influence of a virtual brand community on consumer behavior. To be precise, they found a positive and significant effect of consumer participation in a virtual community on loyalty to the mutual interest around which the

community is centered. Kim and Hardin (2010) studied the relationship between virtual world social networks and the creation of positive word-of-mouth (WOM). They concluded hospitality providers who embrace and innovate using this emerging technology are likely to increase the chances of positive WOM exchanges among their customers. However, there is a need to keep enhancing knowledge regarding the impact of social media use on development loyalty in the destination context. Stepchenkova, Shichkova, Kim, Pennington-Gray, and Rykhtik (2015) noted that for tourists with a loyal behaviour, the Internet seems to be the main source used when choosing a holiday destination. However, there has not yet been an indepth study of the influence of the use of the Internet and the particular social media sites on the development of loyalty towards tourist destinations.

H4: Online information searching has a positive influence on destination image

Effects of destination image on tourist behavioural loyalty

Destination image plays an important role in tourists' decision making and subsequent travel behavior (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999); consequently, it has been examined extensively in the tourism literature (Pike, 2002). Despite the different definitional constructions, destination image is generally interpreted as a compilation of beliefs and impressions based on information processing from various sources over time that result in a mental representation of the attributes and benefits sought of a destination (Zhang et al., 2014). On the other hand, the overall image of a destination is conceptualized as tourists' holistic impression of a destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991).

Although numerous studies have identified the image as an antecedent of loyalty (Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chih-Wen Wu, 2016; Faullant, Matzler, & Fuller, 2008; Loureiro & Gonzalez, 2008; Prayag, 2008; Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Suhartanto, Ruhadi & Triyuni, 2016; Whang, Yong & Ko, 2016; Zhang et al., 2014) has not reached a consensus on the magnitude and the direction of relationships. Most authors use for measuring loyalty attributes of overall image (Bigne et al., 2001; Campo-Martinez, Garau-Vadell, & Martinez- Ruiz, 2010; Loureiro & Gonzalez, 2008; Whang, Yong, & Ko, 2016).

The changes in communication emancipate individuals from the dominance of traditional information sources (Kislani, Kavaratzis, & Saren, 2016). The comments about destinations through social media affect and change the perceptions of potential travellers (Carson, 2008; Lo

et al., 2011; Miguens et al., 2008). The destination image can be shaped strongly by UGC on social media, because consumer-generated content significantly and quickly influences images (Lim, Chung, & Weaver, 2012). This indicates the rather urgent need to further investigate the formation of destination image considering the technological changes (Kislani et al., 2016). Although there is an increased interest in social media among tourism researchers, the role of the social media and user-generated content in destination image formation is an area that needs to be further investigated (Kislani et al., 2016). Most studies analyze different channels separately, without considering the combined weight of various web platforms for determining the images of tourist destinations (cf. Hyun & O'Keefe, 2012).

H5: Destination image has a positive influence on tourist behavioural loyalty.

H6a-H6d: Destination image fully mediates the relationship between relaxation motivation (H6a), learning new cultures motivation (H6b), socializing motivation (H6c), online information search behaviour (H6d) and tourist behavioural loyalty.

Method

The population used for this study consisted of tourists over 16 years of age (both genders) from the main 17 European countries travelling to the destination being researched Canary Islands, Spain: Germany, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Finland, France, Holland, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. The questionnaire was translated into the languages of each country analysed.

We used a computer-aided Web interview (CAWI) to conduct the research. The study collected data from 6964 international tourists between 400 and 459 tourists per country and included 2066 responses from repeat visitors to Canary Island. The questionnaire combined open and closed questions. The numerical scales used are from 1 to 7, with 1 being the minimum value and 7 being the maximum. With regard to motivations and image were measured following validated scales from previous studies (Baloglu & Mangalolu, 2001; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Beerli, Meneses, & Gil, 2007; Carballo, Arana, Leon & Moreno-Gil, 2015; Fodness, 1994). The questionnaire was designed as a continuation of the bibliographic review and taking into account the specific nature of the destination analysed (Canary Islands, Spain).

As for the demographics of the sample, the majority of respondents holds a secondary school education (42.1%). This percentage was followed by respondents who hold a university degree

(36.4%). 12.9% of respondents hold a Master or a PhD degree, while only 4.9% only had a primary school education.

It was found that respondents in this study had a wide variety of income: less than £23 (27.6%), £23K-£47k (24.2%), £47k-£70k (15.4%), and more than £70K (6.7%). Finally, it was found that most respondents in this

study aged between 45-54 years old (22.2%). This was followed by respondents aged between 35-44 years old (20.8%). Respondents aged between 55-64 counted for 16.7% and respondents aged between 16-24 counted for 13.2% of the sample, while respondents aged more than 64 counted for 10%.

Findings

Reliability and Validity of Measures:

SPSS version 24 was used to compute the means and standard deviations of all of the constructs of the research model. The overall means and standard deviations for the six constructs in the structural model are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics, correlations, and average variances extracted

Measures	Mean	St. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Motivation A: Resting	5.39	1.55	0.8	0.20	0.26	0.13	0.14	0.01
2.Motivation B: Learning	4.77	1.68	0.04	0.85	0.21	0.07	0.08	-0.03
3.Motivation C: Sharing	3.29	1.81	0.07	0.04	0.8	0.17	0.17	-0.02
4. Online info. Searching	2.28	1.74	0.02	0.00	0.03	NA	0.14	0.30
5. Destination Image	5.02	1.40	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	NA	0.12
6. Behavioural loyalty	1.86	2.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.01	NA

The diagonal figures in bold indicate the average variances extracted (AVE) for each construct. The scores in the upper diagonal are correlations. The scores in the lower diagonal are square of the correlations.

As shown in Table 1, the means of all motivational factors range from 3.29 to 5.39. As can be seen from the mean of destination image construct, the respondents had positive destination image of Canary Islands (mean=5.03). Nevertheless, tourists did not have high level of behavioural loyalty (mean= 1.86). As noted, this research used a 7-point scales where higher scores indicate higher ratings (i.e. positive image, number of visits).

Before testing the model, the validity and reliability of the motivation measures were tested. According to

Malhotra (2014), the entire set of scale items should be subject to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to establish the scale validity. In investigating the scale reliability, the internal consistency of multi-item scales should be assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. The convergent and validity of the measures of multi-scale constructs were tested by CFA using AMOS 24. Table 1 shows the descriptive analysis, correlations, and the AVE for motivational factors in the model.

Discriminate validity is demonstrated when the AVE for each factor is greater than with the interconstruct squared correlations estimates (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As can be seen in Table 1, the AVE estimates of the motivational measures are greater than the square of the intercorrelations. Therefore, the discriminate validity between the three motivational factors is present. The alpha reliabilities of the three motivational factors (Motivation A= 0.87, Motivation B= 0.84, motivation C= 0.80) were high.

As discussed earlier, the results indicate strong evidence of the validity and reliability of the motivation measurement items. And since the CFA demonstrated good-model-fit of the measurement model ($X^2=93.24$, $Df=23$, $CFI=0.98$, $NFI=0.98$, $RSMEA=.038$), the revised model would be incorporated into the second stage of structural equation modelling (SEM) suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988)

The results indicate evidence of strong convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement. And since all the results of the CFA demonstrated the good-model-fit of the measurement model, the measurement model would be incorporated into the analysis of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Model Testing

To examine the mediating impact on behavioural loyalty, two models were estimated. The first model positions destination image in a full mediation role between the three motivational factors alongside online information search behaviour and behavioural loyalty. The second model tests both of direct and indirect effects (mediated by destination image) of the three motivational factors alongside online information search behaviour on behavioural loyalty. Both models demonstrate an acceptable level of overall model fit. As the first model is nested within the second one, the difference between the model fit and more specifically X^2 was examined, as suggested by Brown et al. (2002), to determine whether overall image fully mediates or only partially mediates the effect of motivational factors and online information search behaviour. The comparison between X^2 and model fit measures between the two models indicate that the second model (partial mediation model) provided best fit for the data rather than the first model (full mediation model) as shown on Table 3.

Table 3: Results of SEM analysis

Hypothesis No	Relationship	Full mediation model			Partial mediation model		
		Path estimate	Standard error	t-value	Path estimate	Standard error	t-value
1	MOT(A) → IMG	0.09	0.02	3.74*	0.09	0.03	3.76*
2	MOT(B) → IMG	0.03	0.02	1.25	0.03	0.02	1.29
3	MOT(C) → IMG	0.12	0.02	4.71*	0.12	0.02	4.64*
4	INF → IMG	0.11	0.01	5.11*	0.11	0.01	5.13*
5	IMG → BL	0.12	0.03	5.78*	0.10	0.04	4.65*
6a	MOT(A) → BL				-0.01	0.05	-0.60
6b	MOT(B) → BL				-0.05	0.04	-2.10**
6c	MOT(C) → BL				-0.07	0.04	-2.94*
6d	INF → BL				0.31	0.03	14.60*
Model Fit Statistics							
	X ²		301.22			93.24	
	Df		27			23	
	CFI		0.96			0.99	
	NFI		0.96			0.99	
	RSMEA		0.07			0.04	
Variance explained (R ²)							
	Overall		0.02			0.05	
	image						
	Behavioural loyalty		0.05			0.11	

*p<0.01, **p<0.05

Hypothesis Testing

The underlying hypotheses of this study were represented in 6 paths, as outlined in Table 3. These hypotheses are directional in nature and seek to determine the relationships among the underlying constructs in the structural model.

The findings reveal that three factors affect the overall image. First, the results support *H1* ($h=0.09$, $t=3.74$, $p=0.00$) proposing that tourist motivation to rest and relax positively affect destination image. Secondly, *H3* was supported ($h=0.12$, $t=4.71$, $p=0.00$) revealing that tourist motivation to share common holiday experiences positively affect destination image. Third, *H4* was supported ($h=0.11$, $t=5.11$, $p=0.00$) suggesting that tourist online information search behaviour has positive influence on destination image. Although, it was predicted that tourist motivation to have new experience positively affect destination image, the results do not support this hypothesis (*H2*).

In our investigation of factors affecting the behavioural loyalty of tourists, the results support *H5* ($h=0.12$, $t=5.78$, $p=0.00$) revealing that destination image positively affect behavioural loyalty of tourists. As suggested earlier, the partial mediation model provides the best for the data and lower value of X². Consequently, it was found that tourist motivation to socialise (MOT B) and have new experience (MOT

C) negatively influence behavioural loyalty of tourists.

Conclusion

This study presents a comprehensive model that integrates travellers' motivation, destination image, and online information search behaviour to understand behavioural loyalty to tourism destinations. Thus, online information is a crucial for repeat visits. This means that marketers should adjust their strategies to maintain presence online and overcome the challenge of getting involved and establish a presence. The more online information is available, the more likely are travellers to have a better destination image, which in turn will increase behavioural loyalty.

To our knowledge, we are the first researchers to investigate the influence of online information search on behavioural loyalty. Furthermore, this study suggests that destination image is a main determinant of travellers' behavioural loyalty and it mediates the impact online information search alongside travellers' motivation on the behavioural loyalty of travellers. With respect to this proposition, results suggest that two motivational factors (resting and sharing common holiday experience) had a statistical significance on destination image. Although, we proposed that travellers' motivation to learn new cultures would positively affect the destination image, the findings of our study do not support this hypothesis.

Our findings also suggest that destination image does not capture the whole complexity of travellers' behavioural loyalty. More specifically, our findings reveal that travellers' motivations to learn new cultures and share common holiday experiences negatively affect behavioural loyalty. This might be explained by travellers' quest for diversity in selecting their holiday's destination. This is in accordance with Legohérel et al. (2014) study suggesting that variety seeking behaviour is a relevant factor in comprehensively understanding the behaviour of travellers when selecting a destination to travel.

References

- Anderson, J.C. and Gerbing, D.W., 1988. Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological bulletin*, 103(3), p.411.
- Angus, E., Stuart, D., & Thelwall, M. (2010). Flickr's potential as an academic image resource: an exploratory study. *Journal of Librarianship and Information Science*, 42(4), 268-278.
- Anton, C., Camarero, C., & Laguna-Garcia, M. (2014). Towards a new approach of destination loyalty drivers: Satisfaction, visit intensity and tourist motivations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-23.
- Arana, J. E., Leon, C. J., Carballo, M. M., & Gil, S. M. (2015). Designing Tourist Information Offices. The Role of the Human Factor. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(6), 764-773.
- Assaker, G., Vinzi, V. E., & O'Connor, P. (2011). Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: A two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 890-901.
- Baloglu (2000) A Path Analytic Model of Visitation Intention Involving Information Sources, Socio-Psychological Motivations, and Destination Image, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 8:3, 81-90.
- Baloglu, S. & Mangaloglu, M. (2001). "Tourism Destination Images of Turkey, Egypt, Greece, and Italy as Perceived by US-based Tour Operators and Travel Agents". *Tourism Management*. 22, 1-9.
- Baloglu, S. (2002). Dimensions of customer loyalty: Separating friends from well wishers. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 43(1), 47-59.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868-897.
- Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657-681.
- Beerli, A., Meneses, G. D., & Gil, S. M. (2007). Self-congruity and destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(3), 571-587.
- Bigne, J. E., Sanchez, M. I., & Sanchez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behaviour: inter-relationship. *Tourism management*, 22(6), 607-616.
- Brown, T.J., Mowen, J.C., Todd, D., & Licata, J.W. (2002). The customer orientation of service workers: Personality trait effects on self- and supervisor performance ratings. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(1), 110-119.
- Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism management*, 29(4), 609-623.
- Campo-Martinez, S., Garau-Vadell, J. B., & Martinez-Ruiz, M. P. (2010). Factors influencing repeat visits to a destination: The influence of group composition. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 862-870.
- Carballo, M. M., Arana, J. E., Leon, C. J., & Moreno-Gil, S. (2015). Economic valuation of tourism destination image. *Tourism Economics*, 21(4), 741-759.
- Casalo, L. V., Flavian, C., & Guinaliu, M. (2010). Determinants of the intention to participate in firm-hosted online travel communities and effects on consumer behavioral intentions. *Tourism management*, 31(6), 898-911.
- Chan, N. L., & Guillet, B. D. (2011). Investigation of social media marketing: How does the hotel

- industry in Hong Kong perform in marketing on social media websites? *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(4), 345-368.
- Chen, C., & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115-1122.
- Chung, J., & Buhalis, D. (2009). Virtual travel community: bridging travellers and locals. *Tourism Informatics: Visual Travel Recommender Systems, Social Communities, and User Interface Design*, 130-144. Hershey PA: Information Science Reference, 130-144.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of tourism research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Crompton, J. L., Fakeye, P. C., & Lue, C. C. (1992). Positioning: The example of the Lower Rio Grande Valley in the winter long stay destination market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(2), 20-26.
- Crouch, G.I., Mazanec, J.A., Oppermann, M., Sakai, M.Y. (Eds.), Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, pp. 63-90.
- Dann, G. M. (1977). Anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- Darnell, A. C., & Johnson, P. S. (2001). Repeat visits to attractions: A preliminary economic analysis. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 119-126.
- Donaire, J. A., & Gall, N. (2011). La imagen turística de Barcelona en la comunidad de flickr. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, (27), 291-303.
- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of travel research*, 31(4), 3-13.
- Escobar-Rodriguez, Gravalos-Gastaminza & Perez-Calanas (2016): Facebook and the intention of purchasing tourism products: moderating effects of gender, age and marital status, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*.
- Fang, G., Kamei, S., & Fujita, S. (2015). How to extract seasonal features of sightseeing spots from Twitter and Wikipedia (Preliminary Version). *Bulletin of Networking, Computing, Systems, and Software*, 4(1), 2126.
- Faullant, R., Matzler, K., & Fuller, J. (2008). The impact of satisfaction and image on loyalty: the case of Alpine ski resorts. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 18(2), 163-178.
- Fodness, D. (1994). "Measuring Tourist Motivation". *Annals of Tourism Research*. 21(3), 555-581.
- Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F., 1981. Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of marketing research*, pp.382-388.
- Gitelson, R. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1984). Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of tourism Research*, 11(2), 199-217.
- Gretzel, U., & Yoo, K. H. (2008). Use and impact of online travel reviews. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2008*, 35-46.
- Gupta, S., & Kim, H. (2004). Virtual community: Concepts, implications, and future research directions. In *Proceedings of the Tenth Americas Conference on Information Systems*, 2679-2687.
- Gursoy, D., S. Chen, J., & G. Chi, C. (2014). Theoretical examination of destination loyalty formation. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(5), 809-827.
- Hanna, R., Rohm, A., & Crittenden, V. L. (2011). We're all connected: The power of the social media ecosystem. *Business horizons*, 54(3), 265-273.

- Hennig-Thurau, T., Wiertz, C., & Feldhaus, F. (2015). Does Twitter matter? The impact of microblogging word of mouth on consumers' adoption of new movies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(3), 375-394.
- Ho, C., Lin, M., & Chen, H. (2012). Web users' behavioural patterns of tourism information search: From online to offline. *Tourism Management*, 33(6), 1468-1482.
- Hosany, S., & Martin, D. (2012). Self-image congruence in consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(5), 685-691.
- Hu, Y., & Ritchie, J. B. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: A contextual approach. *Journal of travel research*, 32(2), 25-34.
- Hudson, S., Wang, Y., & Gil, S. M. (2011). The influence of a film on destination image and the desire to travel: a cross-cultural comparison. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(2), 177-190.
- Hyun, M.Y. and O'Keefe, R.M., 2012. Virtual destination image: Testing a telepresence model. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(1), pp.29-35.
- Illum, S. F., Ivanov, S. H., & Liang, Y. (2010). Using virtual communities in tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 335-340.
- Jansen, B. J., Zhang, M., Sobel, K., & Chowdury, A. (2009). Twitter power: Tweets as electronic word of mouth. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 60(11), 2169-2188.
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business horizons*, 53(1), 59-68.
- Kim, D. Y., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Gender differences in online travel information search: Implications for marketing communications on the internet. *Tourism Management*, 28(2), 423-433.
- Kim, J., & Hardin, A. (2010). The impact of virtual worlds on word-of-mouth: Improving social networking and servicescape in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19(7), 735-753.
- Kim, W. G., Lee, C., & Hiemstra, S. J. (2004). Effects of an online virtual community on customer loyalty and travel product purchases. *Tourism management*, 25(3), 343-355.
- Kladou, S., & Mavragani, E. (2015). Assessing destination image: An online marketing approach and the case of TripAdvisor. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 4(3), 187-193.
- Legoherel, P., Hsu, C.H., Dauce, B. (2015). Variety-seeking: Using the CHAID segmentation approach in analyzing the international traveler market. *Tourism Management*, 46, 359-366.
- Lim, Y., Chung, Y. and Weaver, P.A., 2012. The impact of social media on destination branding: Consumergenerated videos versus destination marketer-generated videos. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(3), pp.197-206.
- Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 458-468.
- Lo, I. S., McKercher, B., Lo, A., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2011). Tourism and online photography. *Tourism Management*, 32(4), 725-731.
- Loureiro, S. M. C., & Gonzalez, F. J. M. (2008). The importance of quality, satisfaction, trust, and image in relation to rural tourist loyalty. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(2), 117-136.
- McDowall, S. (2010). International tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty: Bangkok, thailand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(1), 21-42.

- McMullan, R., & Gilmore, A. (2008). Customer loyalty: An empirical study. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(9/10), 1084-1094.
- Miguens, J., Baggio, R. and Costa, C., 2008. Social media and tourism destinations: TripAdvisor case study. *Advances in tourism research*, 26(28), 1-6.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European journal of marketing*, 21(10), 5-44.
- Munar, A. M., & Jacobsen, J. K. S. (2014). Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media. *Tourism Management*, 43, 46-54.
- Palmer, A., & Koenig-Lewis, N. (2009). An experiential, social network-based approach to direct marketing. *Direct Marketing: An International Journal*, 3(3), 162-176.
- Pan, B., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2006). Online information search: Vacation planning process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(3), 809-832.
- Pan, B., MacLaurin, T., & Crotts, J. C. (2007). Travel blogs and the implications for destination marketing. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(1), 35-45.
- Papathanassis, A., & Knolle, F. (2011). Exploring the adoption and processing of online holiday reviews: A grounded theory approach. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 215-224.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis—a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism management*, 23(5), 541-549.
- Prayag, G. (2008). Image, satisfaction and loyalty—The case of Cape Town. *Anatolia*, 19(2), 205-224.
- Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius The role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research* 51(3), 342356.
- Sigala, M., Christou, E., & Gretzel, U. (2012). Social media in travel, tourism and hospitality: Theory, practice and cases Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Zhan, F. (2013). Visual destination images of Peru: Comparative content analysis of DMO and user-generated photography. *Tourism Management*, 36, 590-601.
- Stepchenkova, S., Shichkova, E., Kim, H., Pennington-Gray, L., & Rykhtik, M. (2015). Segmenting the 'visiting friends and relatives' travel market to a large urban destination: The case of Nizhni Novgorod, Russia. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 4(4), 235-247.
- Stylianou-Lambert, T. (2012). Tourists with cameras: Reproducing or Producing?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(4), 1817-1838.
- Suhartanto, D., Ruhadi and N. Triyuni (2016), Tourist loyalty toward shopping destination: the role of shopping satisfaction and destination image. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 13, pp.84-102
- Sun, X., Chi, C. G., & Xu, H. (2013). Developing destination loyalty: The case of Hainan island. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 547-577.
- Tasci, A. D. (2016). A quest for destination loyalty by profiling loyal travelers. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of tourism research*, 17(3), 432-448.
- Um, S., Crompton, J.L. (1999). The Roles of Image and Perceived Constraints at Different Stages in the Tourist's Destination Decision Process" In A Pizam, Y Mansfeld (Eds.). *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism* (pp. 81-102). New York: Haworth Press.

- Wang, Y., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2004). Towards understanding members' general participation in and active contribution to an online travel community. *Tourism management*, 25(6), 709-722.
- Waters, R. D., Burnett, E., Lamm, A., & Lucas, J. (2009). Engaging stakeholders through social networking: How nonprofit organizations are using Facebook. *Public relations review*, 35(2), 102-106.
- Welbourne, D.J. and Grant, W.J. 2015. Science communication on YouTube: Factors that affect channel and video popularity. *Public Understanding of Science*.
- Wu, C., (2016). Destination loyalty modeling of the global tourism. *Journal of Business Research*, 69, 2213-2219.
- Xiang, Z., & Gretzel, U. (2010). Role of social media in online travel information search. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 179-188.
- Xiang, Z., Choe, Y., Fesenmaier, D.R. (2014). Searching the travel network. In: McCabe, S. (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism Marketing*. Routledge, London and New York, pp. 281-298.
- Xiang, Z., Wang, D., O'Leary, J. T., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (2014). Adapting to the internet: Trends in travelers' use of the web for trip planning. *Journal of Travel Research*, 54(4), 511-527.
- Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L. A., & Lu, L. (2014). Destination image and tourist loyalty: A meta-analysis. *Tourism Management*, 40, 213-223.
- Zielstra, D., & Hochmair, H. H. (2013). Positional accuracy analysis of Flickr and Panoramio images for selected world regions. *Journal of Spatial Science*, 58(2), 251-273.

Appendix: Measures

Scale Items	Standardized Path Coefficient
Motivation A: Resting*	
To relieve stress and tension	0.86
To escape from daily routine	0.88
To rest and relax	0.78
Motivation B: Learning New Cultures*	
To know different cultures and life styles	0.84
To broaden my horizons	0.87
Motivation C: Sharing common holiday experiences*	
To go to places friends have already visited	0.73
To tell friends about the holiday experience	0.86
Online Information Searching**	
Have you ever used any of the social networks on the Internet to get information about your holiday destination?	NA
If Wikipedia=1, converted to 7	
If Facebook=1, converted to 6	
If Tripadvisor=1, converted to 5	
If Youtube=1, converted to 4	
If Twitter= 1, converted to 3	
If Panoramio=1, converted to 2	
If Flickr=1, converted to 1	
Overall Destination Image***	NA
How positive or negative is the image you have of the Canary Islands?	
Behavioural Loyalty****	NA
The number of visits to the Canary Islands.	

*7-Point Likert type scale with '1' no influence and '7' considerable influence

** "0" no, "1" yes. The usage ratings are converted to a 7 point Guttman Scale ranging from "1" least used to "7" most used.

*** 7-Point numeric scale with '1' very negative and '7' positive image.

**** 1-7 Visits.

CONTRIBUTION TO TOURISM DESTINATIONS OF HEALTH TOURISM; KOCAELI CITY EXAMPLE

[Hacı Mehmet Yıldırım](#), Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Turizm Fakültesi,
hadjimehmet@gmail.com

[Muammer Mesci](#), Düzce Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Turizm İşletmeciliği ve Otelcilik
ABD, muammermesci@duzce.edu.tr

[Nurcan Dökmeci](#), Düzce Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Turizm İşletmeciliği ve Otelcilik
ABD, dokmecinurcan@gmail.com

[Seda Nur Beyaz](#), Düzce Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Turizm İşletmeciliği ve Otelcilik
ABD, sedanurbeyaz123@hotmail.com

Abstract

The rapid development of the tourism industry provides significant contributions to the country's economy. In recent years, in addition to the development of transportation and technology in Turkey, alternative tourism kinds have appeared. One of from these kinds is Health Tourism. The only way is making serious investments to Health Tourism to find a place in Health Tourism Sector and to increase competition power. In our country giving weight to Health Tourism provides increased competition power also it is important to find a place in this sector. In Turkey, development of health tourism sector even if not at intended level, with investments to this sector, correct and efficient decides will make Turkey one of the important health tourism center in near future.

The purpose of this study, Detection of Health Tourism applications and offering suggestions for future in Kocaeli. Study will evaluated and seen contributions if it is good or bad for county. Study has been done with qualitative research method. In this context, case study method have been used and have given place about developing health tourism activity and researches of AKMIS Travel Agency in Kocaeli. One of the activities is Healthpath Tourism application that is managed by Akmis Travel Agency. Positive or negative results have not reached for Kocaeli because off not enough tourist demand. To see our country comes to better place in terms of health tourism, it is possible by cooperating between the government and private sector and by giving support such as the HealthpathTourism application, which is an example in the study.

Key Words : Health Tourism, Kocaeli , Akmis Travel Agency.

INTRODUCTION

It is not possible for us to fit the concept of tourist and tourism into one description. Different viewpoints on the authors' concept of tourism have led to many definitions. A general definition would be to consider these concepts as Tourist; a person who participates in and directs tourism activities, who has permanently left his / her place of residence temporarily for reasons other than commercial gain, who is traveling and staying, who is seeking psychological satisfaction, who is consuming with limited expenditure power and time.(Yagci,2003).Tourism; "Not to be less than 24 hours, not to become a permanent residence, and not to take any kind of income-seeking job, is defined as the whole of the relationship between the condition and the individual's journey or accommodation" (Tuyluoglu, 2003,p. 4).

People are involved in tourism activities for many reasons. Most of these travels are for economic, religious, sports and health reasons.(Ozturk ve Bayat, 2011;135-156.) The reason why Kocaeli is chosen for the travels made with the reason of health tourism in the study is requested to be investigated. Tourism; Mass tourism and alternative tourism. Mass tourism; Tourism is the type of tourism that is carried out by large groups that are not related to one another.It aims to provide benefits to multiple people at the same time. Alternative tourism is given as a way of increasing the sustainable tourism and tourism that emerges in order to balance the regional distribution of tourism(Akdu,2009;9) Health tourism is among the most innovative of alternative tourism varieties.

In today's developed countries, environmental problems caused by industrialization and big city life, intensity of work tempo, stress caused by daily life cause people to have a holiday tendency. The health tourism that we can define as travels to people's health is of great importance in this context..(Taş,2014) Significant progress has been made in Turkey on behalf of health tourism. At the beginning of the objectives of Turkey Tourism Strategy 2023, "Development of health tourism (thermal tourism), winter tourism, golf tourism, marine tourism, ecotourism and highland tourism, congress - fair tourism primarily from alternative tourism types" is included. (İlhan, 2015 s.14-2)

It is important for countries to diversify their tourism activities and products in order to increase their share in the tourism market, to compete and to be strong against their competitors. Diversification of tourism services and products also means diversification of alternative tourism activities. Below are some of the alternative tourism varieties (Ozturk & Yazicioglu, 2002;2183 -195);

- Congress tourism,
- Golf tourism,
- Sports tourism,
- Adventure tourism,

- Culture tourism,
- Eco tourism,
- Youth tourism

Different types of alternative tourism can be set up according to the characteristics of the countries. Health tourism (seawater and health tourism, thermal tourism, medical tourism, SPA-Wellness wellness centers) are at the forefront of these (Gulen, 2012; 34). Health tourism, which is one of the alternative tourism varieties, has been implemented in Akmis travel agency in Kocaeli province as it is in many cities. In this context, studies conducted in Kocaeli on behalf of health tourism have been tried to be examined. At the same time, it constitutes the basic building block of the study to investigate the contribution of health tourism application to tourism and destinations.

METHOD

The aim of this study is to identify health tourism applications in Kocaeli, to make proposals for the future and to conduct a preliminary research on this subject. Case study method was used in qualitative researches in study. Using case study method in interview with interview technique; The research topic is based on measuring the contribution made by the travel agent in question to the destination and the health tourism sector by examining the contributions made by the agencies on behalf of the health tourism.

Only one analysis unit was set up in the study. In view of this, AKMiS travel agency, which serves both as a travel agency and as a service provider to HealthpathTourism, has been chosen. In order to increase the validity of the research and to obtain concrete data in the process of data collection from AKMiS travel agency, interview technique was used and different methods were used. These are the methods of interviewing.

The interview method was conducted within the framework of the questions that were created as a result of the literature review. The interview was conducted with the head of the Healthpath company. As the authorized interviewee had well-informed and gave clear and clear answers to the selected questions, an interview was deemed sufficient and the answers given in the interview were transferred to the study. The voice recording system is used in the opinion of the authorized person. It is a preliminary investigation of why it is only necessary to study the interview with an official. The other method is document review. The aim is to support the data obtained from the interview with a document review. The brochure and catalogues obtained during the interview that the web page can't be accessed due to the operator's freezing of the activities were decided to be the best source for the document review. Easy accessibility and controllability of the results are important for the reliability of the research process.

HEALTH TOURISM

The industrial and industrial conditions in developed countries cause adverse factors such as environmental problems, air pollution, stress, seasonal changes, as well as work and living conditions which are becoming more severe with the global crisis in the world, causing the health of people to deteriorate. At this point, emerging or developed country citizens are traveling to tourist areas where they will regain their health or be restful with their unspoiled nature, environment, climate and physical characteristics, apart from mass tourism. (Ozer vd,2012, s.69.81)

Health tourism is the type of tourism that comes to a point where health tourism needs to be met by going to a tourist attraction near the natural resources from where they live in a certain time period (14-21 days) for the purpose of health protection or treatment (Boz, 2004, s. 132). Health tourism is described in many different ways. According to Yal^n (2008), health tourism; Can be defined as a tourism movement that consists of people leaving the places where they have lived permanently for the purpose of treatment and going to the regions or cities where the health institutions are located. . (Unal vd,2011)

Environmental pollution in developed countries, the consumption of food that harm human health, physical or psychological fatigue, causes a monotonous lifestyle by lowering working efficiency. To keep people's health, working efficiency, morale motivation high and enjoying life, sea, spa and seasonal cure services come together with domestic and foreign tourism to provide health tourism(Şahin,2015).

We can summarize the development of health tourism and the process of reaching the daily. People always have to pay attention to their health. Because, as long as you are healthy, it is possible to work efficiently and effectively. For this reason, people were helpless in the face of natural phenomena at the time when the methods of healing were not available. They seek to remedy their health and get rid of their aches and find ways of benefiting from those opportunities at that time. Many of these roads have reached as far as the day, and they have become very important with tourism activities, including medical science(Taş,2014).

TYPES OF HEALTH TOURISM

All the tourist travels that the health tourism person makes in order to regain, improve or protect the health of the person is the whole. The health of the tourist is the diagnosis of all kinds of health problems that the tourists encounter while traveling, the measures taken at the same time to protect the diseases from various diseases and accidents (Daştan,2014 s.143-163).

According to the Ministry of Health, three types of health tourism are mentioned. These are;

- Thermal (hot springs) Tourism
- Medical Tourism
- Geriatric Tourism
- Thermal (hot springs) Tourism

Thermal and spa-wellness tourism is a type of tourism in which some kinds of spa treatments such as water bath, drinking, inhalation, mud bath and some kind of therapeutic treatments such as climatic cure, physical therapy and rehabilitation are made and thermal waters are also used for entertainment and recreation purposes(Kultur ve Turizm Bakanligi, 2013).

In today's conditions, people are staying away from the unhealthy urban environments and going to the nature, staying in the regions where the mineral waters affect the human health for the benefit of the natural tourism resources (Ozbek, 1991:15).

In countries where industrials are heavily involved, Health care, qualified time span, thermal tourism for participation in different activities(Tun?siper & Kaşli, 2008:121).Particularly, the countries of the world who care about healthy life and human health are aware of the effectiveness of mineral thermal waters and they make great gains by taking a considerable distance in tourism with their investment and treatment units. It is seen that the economy contributes to the important contributions thanks to thermal tourism, foreign currency inflow to the country and the benefit of public health (Ozbek, 1991:16-17).

Medical Tourism

Medical tourism may be termed cooperating with the tourism industry for the purpose of providing special medical care for the illness that is required to implement medical interventions, which generally requires surgical or specialist expertise(Çetinkaya, 2010:18).In the context of medical tourism, people travel from countries or other countries to medical centers to purchase health services at different locations in the medical area. Medical treatment trips, which are effected by factors such as time, quality, cost, comfort, constitute an important part of health tourism(Gen?ay, 2007:178).It is possible to say that the medical sector and the tourism sector came together to produce medical tourism, resulting in the production of goods and services(Gumuş & Buyuk, 2008:435).

Medical tourists are the ones who are looking for opportunities to recover their health in other

countries. It is possible to define them as those who buy products and services that will remove existing health problems through activities such as leisure, sports and education, as well as health services(Kiremit, 2008;4).

Geriatric Tourism

Geriatrics tourism is a type of health tourism that covers care for people aged 65 years and over. Although the definition resembles that of third-world tourism, geriatrics distinguishes itself from tertiary tourism as it has a health and health-oriented approach only. Geriatric tourism; The protection of the health of elderly individuals, the prevention of diseases that can develop and the travels made to treatments. Geriatric tourism combines with all types of health tourism, offering great economic opportunities to countries like Turkey (Gençay, 2007:177).

The rapidly increasing geriatric tourism in the world is seen as an important potential in terms of health tourism in Turkey. Accessibility of health services all over the world indicates the importance of geriatric tourism. The increase in the number of elderly people in the world population and the prolongation of human life in developed countries cause tourists to turn to the types of tourism that the elderly are participating in(Gençay, 2007:177).As a matter of fact, the average age of the world population is increasing and the average human life in developed countries seems to be prolonged with the progress of medicine. With the increase in the need for vacations for this group, the concepts of travel to health and health tourism have become more important. They prefer services such as advanced age tourism, mostly elderly care services, rehabilitation services in clinic hotels, and special care for disabled people (Türkiye Sağlık Vakfı, 2010:38).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTH TOURISM IN TURKEY AND HEALTH TRANSFORMATION PROGRAM

Planning and incentive work related to health and tourism in turkey carried out by The Prime Ministry state Planning Organization. The Ministry Of Culture and Tourism is an establishment that rule maker, advisor, supervise for business that directly servet he tourism sector, such as accommodation and travel. The Ministry of Health, on the other hand, is responsible for the establishment of health institutions, the training and employment of health personnel, and the inspection of various public health services. Both ministries need to work in coordination to ensure that tourism health and tourism services are provided in a quality and effective manner. The work done in this area is included in the development and investment plans maintained by the State Planning Organization. (Aydin, 2012 s.91-96)

There are 48 health institutions accredited by JCI in our country and serving international standards. In Turkey, various studies have begun to strengthen the infrastructure of health tourism in private hospitals as well as universities and public hospitals. In this context, the construction of City Hospitals has begun. In the T.C. Ministry of Health General Directorate of Primary Health Care,

Health Tourism Unit was established with the authorization of Office numbered 18529 dated March 31, 2010. . (Saglik turizmi, 2016)

The Anatolian geography in which Turkey is located has been the health center of the region since ancient times. In the recent periods of the Ottoman state and also in the 80 years accumulation of the Republic of Turkey, well-trained doctors, modern hospitals and advanced health services have been serviced to Turkish citizens and tourists coming to our country. By taking advantage of all these experiences thanks to the "Health Transformation Program" which has been implemented in the past 9 years, Turkey has made a great development and breakthrough that will be an example for the world in health services. The main purpose of Health Transformation Program can be defined as "providing accessible, qualified and sustainable health services for all, effective, high quality, efficient and fairly appropriate". With the human-focused 'Health Transformation Program', Turkey has succeeded in 8 years, that the developed countries have not succeeded in 20 years. This is an state that will be an example. (Saglik turizmi, 2016)

As of 2013, Turkey's income from health tourism is 2.5 billion dollars. According to the goals of the Ministry of Health, this figure is expected to rise to 8 billion dollar in 2017. When it comes to 2023, that health tourism income reach 20 billion dollars is among the targets. The number of patients coming from abroad to Turkey for health tourism is expected to increase rapidly from 2019 onwards. According to this, in 2023 it is targeted to increase this number to 2 million, while the number of foreign patients is expected to reach 1 million in 2019. (Tursab, 2014)

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTH TOURISM IN KOCAELI

Kocaeli is located on the transition corridor connecting Europe to the Middle East via Anatolia. Transportation to the province of Kocaeli is provided by highway and airline. In Kocaeli, six state hospitals and five private hospitals, two of which are accredited provide health services. The accredited hospitals in the city are Acibadem Kocaeli Hospital and Anadolu Medical Center. In terms of thermal tourism, Kocaeli has two sources of drinking and a thermal spring. It is known that the water coming from Yenikoy Yazlik Ilica (summer hot spring), which is used as a hot spring, is good for skin diseases. The works on the restoration and landscaping of hot spring are being continued. Maşukiye and Soguksu Medicinal Waters, which are drinking sources, are used in treatment

of Stomach discomfort and skin diseases (Kocaeli il Kultur ve Turizm Bakanligi,2016)

In 2011, The development of health tourism in the province of Kocaeli was started with a search conference on "Determination of the Potential of Health Tourism in Kocaeli" which was held with the support of the Eastern Marmara Development Agency organized by Kocaeli Provincial Culture and Tourism Directorate. The necessary institutions and organizations in the direction of the project came together and decided that health tourism could be done in Kocaeli. Within this scope, Kocaeli Health Tourism Association was established in order to monitor health tourism activities in our country and in the world, to coordinate and implement the works to be carried out for health tourism in Kocaeli. The main purpose of the project is to transform the province of Kocaeli from an industrial city to a health tourism city (Kocaeli il Kultur ve Turizm Bakanligi,2016)

Health services provided by Kocaeli Metropolitan Municipality are Patient transport services, Health education services, Active and healthy life project in the fight against obesity, Health scans, Occupational health and safety services , Worker and public health center services , Oral and dental health services(Kocaeli Buyukşehir Belediyesi,2014),

THE SWOT ANALYSIS OF HEALTH TOURISM IN KOCAELI

Strengths	Weaknesses
Quality in terms of public and private health facilities	Necessity of urban image and urban transformation planning
Cultural, historical and natural riches	Not to use the sea for transportation and tourist purposes
The fact that the transportation projects that will support health tourism will be performed	Low interest of local tourism
3 JCI certified health care facilities	A bad image as an industrial city
Provision of private and public partnership	Language problem
That The economy is strong because it is an industrial region	Not enough accommodation
The existence of thermal water resources	The Lack of agency
	Called earthquake city

Opportunities	Threats
-Urban transformation projects of the municipality Proximity to Istanbul	-Investments to be made around -We can not protect our natural beauties
Kocaeli is a regional center for health	Intensive migration
Province's strategic position	-Generally lack of hygiene inspection in facilities
Improved transportation network	Lack of trained staff
Having historical and natural beauty	-Insufficient introduction of current potentials -
Supporting tourism with its natural beauties	Lack of alignment for the disabled and elderly

(Kocaeli il Kultur ve turizm bakanligi,2016)

Results

HealtPath Tourism

HealthPath tourism has been established in Akmis Group with a focus on customer satisfaction. Healthpath Tourism has opened the doors of health tourism with a new system in Turkey with the understanding of 'the right route for your health'. All kinds of services in health and thermal spa tourism areas are offered by a professional team, specialized institutions and organizations in the field. In order to offer different alternatives with accommodation, medical services, reasonable prices and travel programs, the service center has been serviced by staff who have developed themselves in every field of information, tourism and health. Another service offered by Healthpath Tourism is the placement of patients, encounter at the airport and bring them to hotel by the approved travel program. At the same time, They treat by specialist doctors in hospitals and areas that have developed with technological infrastructure.

Research Results

The interview method used in the research and the data obtained by the document examination, were evaluated together. As a result, the answers to the questions obtained by the literature search were put together and the findings were presented as follows.

1. What is the reason for choosing Kocaeli in terms of health tourism?
2. How many years have you been operating your health tourism in your travel agency?
3. From which country you are most preferred ?
4. What services are provided to the participants ?
5. Do tourists prefer private hospitals or state hospitals for treatment?
6. Does the service that you provide for your patient, standard salary or depends on services what they used?
7. Are you conducting any promotional activities?
8. What are the contributions of the health tourism activity you made to the Kocaeli destination?

ANSWERS

He said that Since 1868 we have been living here. That's why we chose here firstly. All people who are working in the company from Kocaeli too. Another reason for choosing Kocaeli is its location.

You can set a tour from here to some other cities easily.

They have been operating for 3 years since 2013, but they freezed their activities in April of 2016.

They have been operating for three years but they have not been able to see the requests what they have been waiting for. In addition, they noted that they were preferred from the Arab countries and they had received an offer from the Netherlands that was related to tourism and disabled tourism over 65 years of age. In line with this demand, Kartalkaya also stated that they preferred this region because of the work related to geriatrics and they were obliged to reject the price scale because of the lack of capacity of the institution in Kartalkaya.

He is mentioned that Akmis group provides visa transactions, transfer services and air ticket services with Heykel tourism. In addition, Healthpath Tourism also provides information on accommodation, hotel services, tour organizations and car rental services.

He noted that there is no experience in this regard, but observations have been made that university hospitals are preferred because operations such as hair transplantation and aesthetics. Private hospitals also good at price for kidney, brain and heart diseases.

He said that there is no standard price. It depends on what customers have been benefited from and which service they have been used.

He said that we gave screen and seat title advertisements to Pegasus Company and Anatolian Company , as well as the participation in the fairs are indicated.

He said that tourists who come Kocaeli it provides benefits in all circumstances. It is not about health tourism or normal tourism.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Health tourism is one of the alternative tourism forms that have developed rapidly in recent years. In many countries, the number of tourists traveling for health is increasing day by day, and can be regarded as means generating income in terms of making contributions from the economic aspect.

Our country announces its name with its health studies and the services in order to get a share from the developing health tourism market also to show its development. The richness of natural resources, successful medical practices and the affordability of prices provide significant advantages in order to be preferred among other destinations.

Turkey has some studies to increase the competition power with the other countries. In summary, these studies; By applying The Health Transformation Program for the best health care services and to increase the income from the number of foreign patients. Working groups has been created under the name of Health Tourism Coordination Committee and; to raise qualified personnel, to apply like conducting advertisement and marketing activity to encourage taking health services from our country.

Kocaeli city that is example part of study has significant potential in terms developing of health tourism by its geographic location, proximity between Istanbul that is one of the important city, convenient transportation and owned curative waters. This potential has been realized and supported by relevant institutions and organizations. In addition, cultural, historical and natural richness, being powerful in terms of economical, current potential for health investments, are important in the context of strength sides and opportunities. Strengths and opportunities are after evaluated, to apply them can improve facilities more high level in terms of health tourism in Kocaeli. There are some negative situations that they may slow down health tourism development in the city. If these are briefly mentioned, it can be said that because of being an industrial city, environment and air pollution can create a negative perception for health tourism. Being not developed tourism sector, lack of care and researches may be threats and weaknesses that obstacle for doing health tourism and its development.

In order to eliminate these negative effects, the first step is to carry out the necessary researches and investments and implement the projects with the cooperation between government and private sector. In order to be able to recover the city from the image of the industrial city, Should be giving weight to tourism sector with the increase number of accommodation facilities and agencies. After that the legislation that is related to health tourism should be rearranged and the deficiencies should be resolved.

Akmis Travel Agency, operating in Kocaeli, has launched the Healthpath Tourism application to explore the city's strengths and opportunities and to evaluate these possibilities. To contribute to health tourism in Kocaeli with this new system for Turkey; The development of both the city and the health tourism is aimed. In line with these aims, a call center has been established for all kinds of support and assistance, a professional and educated team has been created, and services have been provided with people who are experts in their field. Transfer and accommodation services are also included in the program with affordable prices. This program, which has been operating for 3 years with certain investments and feasibility and infrastructure works, has been stopped due to the fact that lack of tourist demand since 2016.

First part of study, The program that have been frozen because of lack of tourist demand. As a result, the certain data could not be obtained and limited response have been taken. Another constraint is that Healthpath Tourism is a new system in Turkey and similar scientific studies have not been done before.

Turkey is at the beginning in health tourism and it will become one of the most important country in this line. Applications such as the Healthpath Tourism program can be supported by the government. Having many opportunities in terms of rich natural resources and healing waters, the number of health facilities should be increased in our country and should be giving weight to promotion and marketing. Cooperation between public institutions and the private sector should be strengthened, and incentives for health-related work and investments should be increased. Taking into consideration the opportunities that may arise for the future, the targeted levels can be achieved by carrying out the policies and plans accordingly.

REFERENCES

- Akdu, S.A. (2009), *Saglik Turizmi Kapsaminda Medikal Turizm ve Turkiye'deki Uygulamalar Uzerine Bir Arastirma; Istanbul ve Ankara Ornegi*, (Basilmamis Yuksek Lisans Tezi.) Ankara: Gazi Universitesi Egitim Bilimleri Enstitusu.
- Aydin, O.(2012) *Turkiye'de Alternatif Bir Turizm; Saglik Turizmi KMU Sosyal ve Ekonomik Arastirmalar Dergisi (14 (23): 91-96, 2012)*Aydin:Adnan Menderes Universitesi, Nazilli Meslek

Yuksekokulu

- BarcaM, Akdeve E. ve Gedik Balayi. (2013). Türkiye Sağlık Turizm Sektörünün Analizi ve Strateji Önerileri. *İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 5/3, 64-92.
- Boz, M. (2004 s 132). Turizmin Gelişmesinde Alternatif Turizm Pazarlamasının Önemi. Doktora TEZi, Marmara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü.
- Oetinkaya, T. ve Zengin, B. (2009). Türkiye’de ileri Yaş Bakım Turizmi ve Almanya Örneği. VII. Geleneksel Turizm Paneli (28 Nisan 2009, ss.172-180), Sakarya.
- Daştan, i. (2014 s 143-163) Türkiye’de Sağlık Turizmi: Türkiye Ve Özelinde İzmir’de Sağlık Turizminin Mevcut Durum Analizi Ve Strateji Önerileri, Mehmet Akif Ersoy üniversitesi sosyal bilimler enstitüsü dergisi (cilt:6 sayı:10 Haziran)
- Genay, C. (2007). Sağlık Turizmi, (Ed.) M. Bulu ve i.H. Eraslan, Sürdürülebilir Rekabet Avantajı Elde Etmede Turizm Sektörü, (ss.172-180). İstanbul: Kazancı Hukuk Yayınevi.
- Gülen, K.G. ve Demirci, S. (2012), Türkiye’de Sağlık Turizmi Sektörü, iTO Yayınları, İstanbul.
- Gumuş, F. ve Büyük, O.. (2008). Sağlık Turizminde Yeni Alanlar: Tıp Turizmi. III. Balıkesir Ulusal Turizm Kongresi (17-19 Nisan, ss.433-437), Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- İlhan R. (2016). Dünya ve Türkiye’de Yeni Termal Turizm Eğilimi: Talassoterapi, s.14-2
- Kiremit, A.Ş. (2008), Turizmin Gelişmesinde Bir Alternatif Olarak Medikal Turizm: Bir Sağlık Kuruluşunda Araştırma, (Basılmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi). Ankara: Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü.
- Kocaeli Büyükşehir Belediyesi, 2014. Sağlık Hizmetleri, <http://www.kocaeli.bel.tr/icerik/saglik-hizmetleri/1103/29483>. E.T: 08.12.2016
- Kocaeli İl Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2011. Kocaeli’de Sağlık Turizmi Potansiyelinin Tespiti Konulu, <http://www.kocaelikulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,69314/kocaelide-saglik-turizmi-potansiyelinin-tespiti-konulu.html>. E.T: 08.12.2016
- Kocaeli İl Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı, 2016. Sağlık Turizmi, <http://www.kocaelikulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,69224/saglik-turizmi.html>, Kocaeli’nde Sağlık Turizmi Potansiyelinin Tespiti Konulu Arama Konferansı, <http://www.kocaelikulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,69314/kocaelide-saglik-turizmi-potansiyelinintespiti-konulu.htm> E.T. : 09.12.2016.
- Ozer, O. ve Songur, C. (2012). Türkiye’nin Dünya Sağlık Turizmindeki Yeri ve Ekonomik Boyutu Mehmet Akif Ersoy üniversitesi sosyal bilimler Enstitüsü dergisi 2012(4-7)(s. 69-81)
- Oztürk, M. ve Bayat, M. (2011). Uluslararası Turizm Hareketlerinde Sağlık Turizminin Rolü ve Kalite Gelişmelerinin Önemi Bir Literatur Gelişmesi, Kahramanmaraş Sıtkı İmam Üniversitesi İktisadi Ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 2011 (2): 135-156.
- Oztürk, Y. Ve Yazıcıoğlu, i. (2002). Gelişmekte Olan Ülkeler için Alternatif Turizm Faaliyetleri üzerine Teorik Bir Gelişme, Gazi Üniversitesi Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi, 2002(2):183-195
- Sağlık turizmi, 2016. “Sağlık Turizmi Hakkında”, <http://www.saglikturizmi.gov.tr/TR,175/saglik-turizmi-hakkinda.html>. “Sağlıkta Dönüşüm Programı” <http://www.saglikturizmi.org.tr/tr-st-donusum/program>, E.T. : 23.10.2016
- Şahin, G. (2015) Termal Turizm işletmelerinde Konaklayan Müşterilerin Medeni Durum Ve Cinsiyet Değişkenlerine Dayalı Olarak Memnuniyetlerinin Belirlenmesi: Antakya İlgesi Otelleri Örneği, (yüksek lisans tezi) Mersin: Gazi üniversitesi sosyal bilimler enstitüsü işletme yönetimi

anabilim dali(Eriřim tarihi 02.11.2016)

- Taş,D.(2014) Türkiye’den medikal turizm kapsamında hizmet alan hastaların memnuniyetlerinin belirlenmesi: Ankara ili örneği ,yüksek lisans tezi atılım üniversitesi sosyal bilimler enstitüsü işletme ana bilim dali sağlık kurumları işletmeciliği bilim dali (eriřim tarihi 25.11.2016)
- Tunçsiper, B. ve Kaşlı, M.. (2008). Termal Turizmin Ekonomik Etkileri: Gonen Örneği. Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitimi Fakültesi Dergisi, 1:120-135.
- Tuyluoğlu, T. (2003). *Türkiye’de Turizm Eğitiminin Niteliği*. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Halkla ilişkiler ve Tanıtım Bölümü, Ankara. Turkey-healthtourism,2016.Sağlık Turizmi şehirleri,http://www.turkeyhealthtourism.com/SAGLIK-TURIZMI SEHIRLERI_c__d_39.htm, E.T: 09.12.2016
- Türkiye Sağlık Vakfı, (2010,38). Dünyada ve Türkiye’de Sağlık Turizmi 2010. Durum Analiz Raporu ve Qozum Önerileri. Ankara: Efil Yayınevi
- Tursab,2014. Tursab Sağlık Turizmi Raporu, http://www.tursab.org.tr/dosya/12186/saglikturizmiraporu_12186_5485299.pdf, E.T. 20.10.2016
- Unal,A. ve Demirel,G.(2011).Sağlık Turizmi işletmelerinden Yararlanan Müşterilerin Beklentilerinin Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bolu ilinde Bir Araştırma,Electronic Journal of Vocational CollegesDecember/Aralık

THE ROLE OF IFRS ADOPTION IN ATTRACTING SPONSORS TO FOOTBALL/SOCCER CLUBS: A FINANCIAL PERSPECTIVE

Hasan Özyapıcı

İlhan Dalcı

Doğan Ünlücan

Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

ABSTRACT

Sports tourism has become a sector with growing popularity throughout the world. Accordingly, the transparency of financial information of sports clubs plays an important role in attracting sponsors. However, there is no study investigating the impact of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) on financial reporting practices in sport industry in general and football/soccer in particular. The present study, therefore, aims to explore the impact of first-time IFRS adoption on the financial statements of the sport clubs listed in ISE in Turkey. The results of the study showed that transition to IFRS does not change the financial positions of the listed football/soccer clubs in Turkey. Accordingly, the transition to IFRS will help managers of football/soccer clubs to have reliable, transparent, and comparable financial information which in turn attracts more sponsors to football/soccer clubs for their sporting events.

Key Words: Football/Soccer; IFRS; Sponsors; Sponsorship; Sports Tourism

INTRODUCTION

Football/soccer is one of the most loved spectator sports across the world. Millions of people follow this popular game around the world. The football/soccer industry has been growing in the last decades. The popularity and growth have increased the interest of the related parties such as sponsors and investors involved in football/soccer (Unlucan, 2014).

In football/soccer industry, many popular and strong professional clubs' managements have started to issue shares at stock exchanges all over the world. However, many clubs have been suffering from financial difficulties. This may result from the mismanagement of clubs such as unplanned investments and wrong transfer policies. The governing body of football/soccer in Europe, namely Union of European Football Associations (UEFA), has started to apply regulations to achieve 'financial fair play' in the industry. As a result, many clubs have been investigated by the UEFA.

Accordingly, the transparency of financial information of sports clubs plays an important role in attracting sponsors. In this regard, sport clubs may adopt International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) because IFRS increase reporting transparency.

There are three major football/soccer clubs, namely Fenerbahçe, Galatasaray, and Beşiktaş, which are referred to as the biggest and the most popular teams in Turkey. They have millions of fans and fan groups all over the country and in several European countries where the Turkish population is large such as Germany, France and the Netherlands. They are the strongest football/soccer brands and their shares are traded at the Istanbul Stock Exchange (ISE). Therefore, they have to report their financial activities such as transfers and investments to the ISE accurately and on time. But, in recent years, Turkish clubs have encountered financial difficulties so that they have been investigated rigorously by the UEFA. Thus, the popularity and the financial problems make Turkey an important country to investigate, analyze and assess in terms of accounting applications.

On the other hand, there is a growing need for the harmonization and standardization of the accounting in today's global world. In 2002, in order to integrate capital markets in Europe, the European Union (EU) Parliament approved a regulation (Regulation (EC), 1606/2002) that mandates all companies registered in the EU stock markets to prepare financial statements in accordance with the IFRS in commencing on or after 1 January 2005 (Aharony, Barniv, & Falk, 2010; Delvaile, Ebberts, & Saccon, 2005; Moscariello, Skerrattb, & Pizzoa, 2014; Soderstrom & Sun, 2007;). Thus, the adoption of IFRS which had been optional starting from 2003 has become mandatory since 2005 for all listed companies in the ISE in Turkey (Varan & Balsari, 2013).

The mandatory adoption of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) has received considerable research interest. Consequently, numerous studies have been conducted to explore the impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on financial statements; account numbers, net income, and financial ratios in the EU and other countries (e.g., Aharony et al., 2010; Balsari & Varan, 2014; Haller, Ernstberger, & Froschhammer, 2009; Kabir, Laswad, & Islam, 2010; ; Kim, 2013; Lueg, Punda, & Burkert, 2014; Sahut, Boulerne, & Teulon, 2011). This study aims to explore the impact of first-time IFRS adoption on the financial statements of the sport clubs listed in ISE in Turkey. There are two major motivations for carrying out the current study. The first one is that there has been growing interest in the impact of IFRS adoption on the financial statements. This study is therefore expected to contribute to the literature. The second one is that researches related to the impact of adoption of IFRS have focused largely on the EU member countries and other developed countries such as Australia (e.g., Gaston, Garcia, Jame, & Gadea, 2010; Trewavas, Redmayne, & Laswad, 2012). However, there are a very limited number of studies (e.g., Misirlioglu, Tucker, & Yukselturk,

2013; Terzi, Oktem, & Sen, 2013) identifying the impact of IFRS adoption in developing countries such as Turkey which have started to adopt IFRS. Therefore, the current study is expected to contribute to this issue. In addition, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study investigating the quantitative impact of IFRS transition in the sport sector in general and football/soccer in particular. Thus, the present study is expected to fill this gap.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

In recent years, the IFRS adoption has encouraged the research into the impact of both voluntary and mandatory adoption on the financial statements both in countries within Europe and other countries outside European region such as Australia, New Zealand, and China (e.g., Aharony et al., 2010; Callao, Ferrer, Jarne, & Lainez, 2009; Delvaille et al., 2005; Gaston et al., 2010; Haller & Wehrfritz, 2013; Moscariello et al., 2014). Previous literature on the impact of IFRS adoption is twofold. On one hand, there is a stream of research that investigate the impact of the mandatory/voluntary adoption of IFRS on the financial statements, account numbers, and the financial ratios (e.g., Aharony et al., 2010; Cordazzo, 2013; Misirlioglu et al., 2013; Sahut et al., 2011). On the other hand, some of the studies explored the value relevance of IFRS adoption as compared to local GAAP (e.g., Kabir et al., 2010; Wan Ismail, Kamarudin, Van Zijl, & Dunstan, 2013). In compliance with the current study's focus, we base the literature review on the studies that have investigated the impacts of IFRS adoption on the account numbers and financial ratios. There seems to be no study investigating the impact of IFRS adoption particularly in sport clubs. Therefore, the literature review in this study is based the studies focusing either on the total sample of firms including hotels or specific sectors such as manufacturing. In this regard, the literature review progresses as follows:

Haller et al. (2009) studied the effects of first-time mandatory IFRS adoption on the reporting practices of 103 publicly traded companies in Germany. In this regard, the authors studied the impact of IFRS adoption on the equity and net income reported in the consolidated financial statements of the firms in 2005. The results revealed statistically significant increases in the equity and net income after IFRS are adopted. Fito, Moya, and Orgaz (2013), on the other hand, investigated the determinants of companies in Spain that decided to apply IFRS in preparing their separate (individual) financial statements in 2007. The authors also studied the impact of IFRS adoption choice on the main accounting numbers and ratios. The results demonstrated that choice of early transition to IFRS is affected by size and growth. The results also revealed that the non-current assets, equity, reserves, and long-term liabilities changed significantly after the implementation of new IFRS-based standards. Callao, Jarne, and Lainez (2007) explored, by studying IBEX 35 companies in Spain, whether there are significant differences in the accounting numbers presented in the consolidated financial

statements and financial ratios under Spanish accounting standards and IFRS. The authors also analyzed the impact of mandatory IFRS application on the difference between the book and market value of firms so as to determine the relevance of IFRS. The results of that study implied that there is no improvement in the relevance of financial reporting when IFRS are applied. Additionally, according to the results, IFRS adoption has significant effects in debtors, cash and cash equivalents, equity, long-term and total liabilities in the balance sheet. In the income statements, on the other hand, significant differences were found in the operating and extraordinary income.

In another study, Jermakowicz (2004) investigated the impact of mandatory application of IFRS on the consolidated financial statements of listed BEL 20 companies in Belgium. The findings of the study revealed that the application of IFRS caused significant changes in the equity and net income reported in companies' consolidated financial statements. Aisbitt (2006), on the other hand, examined the impact of transition from the United Kingdom (UK) GAAP to IFRS on the equity of companies that formed the UK's FTSE 100 index. Although the authors found that there are statistically significant changes in the individual financial statement items, the results were not generalizable because the changes in individual line items showed varying pattern among the companies. Additionally, the findings of that study did not yield overall effect on equity. Lueg et al. (2014) explored the impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on the financial ratios of the listed companies again in the UK. The authors found that, despite the similarities between the UK GAAP and IFRS, the application of IFRS resulted in statistically significant differences in some financial ratios. According to the findings of that study; operating income margin, return on invested capital, and current ratio are some of the financial ratios affected by the adoption of IFRS. The authors also noted that, these changes even exceeded the ones reported by the firms in creditor-oriented code law countries.

Apart from the studies conducted in the EU, Kabir et al. (2010) examined the impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on the account numbers and earnings quality using the firms in NZX for 2002-2009. The results of that study revealed that some account numbers are different under the two sets of the accounting standards. For example, the results demonstrated that total assets, total liabilities, and net profit were significantly higher under IFRS when compared to local GAAP. In another study conducted again in New Zealand, Stent, Bradbury, & Hooks (2010) analyzed the impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on the consolidated financial statements and ratios using 56 listed firms during 2005 through 2008. The results showed that 87 percent of the companies in the sample and most of the elements of financial statements are affected by IFRS. The elements of financial statements mostly affected by IFRS are liabilities and equity. The IFRS adoption also influenced such ratios as return on assets, return on equity, and asset turnover.

Callao et al. (2009), on the other hand, conducted an international study and investigated the quantitative impact of IFRS on financial reporting of 11 European countries and evaluate if this impact is relevant in relation to the traditional accounting system in which each country is classified, either the Anglo-Saxon or the continental- European accounting system. The results of that study revealed that the impact of IFRS on financial statements of European firms is not related to the traditional accounting systems. The results also demonstrated that there are significant differences among the countries in all variables except inventories and returns. Similarly, Ferrer, Callao, Jarne, & Lainez (2008) explored the impact of IFRS adoption on the financial information reported by firms listed in 11 UE countries. The results demonstrated that the adoption of IFRS has a significant impact in Spain, France, Ireland, Sweden and UK on such accounting figures as fixed and current assets, short-term and total liabilities and net income. In another study having international focus, Gaston et al. (2010) examined the impact of first-time mandatory IFRS adoption on the account numbers and selected financial ratios of listed firms in the UK and Spain. The results reveal increases in fixed and total assets, long-term liabilities, short-term liabilities and indebtedness and decreases in current assets, current ratio and solvency for the Spanish firms. For the UK firms, on the other hand, the results demonstrated statistically significant increases in fixed and total assets, long-term liabilities, short-term liabilities, operating income, net income, indebtedness and return on equity and decreases in current assets, equity, and solvency.

In Turkey, Misirlioglu et al. (2013) explored how mandatory transition to IFRS has changed the measurement of accounts and disclosures in the consolidated financial statements of full sample of listed firms (except financial institutions). The authors also studied the factors that affected the overall measurement change. While the results found significant changes on some disclosure items, they revealed that there is unlikely to significant impact of transition to IFRS on the balance sheet. The findings of the study further demonstrated that the firm-specific factors do not have any impact on the change in financial ratios. According to the results, among the firm-specific factors only 'gearing' had impact on the change in long-term debt to equity ratio. Alkan and Dogan (2012) also studied the impact of long-term (between the years 2000-2009) as well as the first-time IFRS transition on the selected financial ratios of listed firms in Turkey. The results show that while liquidity ratios are not affected by the first-time IFRS transition, they are changed after long-term use of IFRS. The results also reveal that IFRS transition does not affect indebtedness of the listed firms in Turkey. In another study, Terzi et al. (2013) investigated the impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on the listed manufacturing firms. The results demonstrate that transition to IFRS affects such accounts as inventories, fixed asset, long term liability, and stockholders' equity, as well as such ratios as current ratio and ratio of short-term liabilities to total assets.

As a consequence, the literature review obviously shows that first-time IFRS transition have mixed effects on the account numbers and financial ratios of firms listed both in Europe and other parts of the world. Based on these considerations, the following hypotheses have been developed in null forms to be tested in the current study:

H0-1 First-time mandatory transition to IFRS does not influence the account numbers of listed sport clubs in Turkey.

H0-2 First-time mandatory transition to IFRS does not influence the financial ratios of listed sport clubs in Turkey. METHOD

Sample selection

There are only four football/soccer clubs which are listed in ISE. However, the adjusted financial statements of one of the clubs (Trabzonspor) are not available in the transition period. Therefore, the sample comprises 3 sport clubs listed in ISE in Turkey. In order to explore the impact of first-time mandatory IFRS adoption, comparable data is required. The CMB in Turkey requires that first set of IFRS-based financial statements comprise comparative figures. That is, the statements of financial position prepared as of December 31, 2005 should be compared with the statements of financial position of 2004 which had been adjusted according to IFRS (CMB XI/25, 2003). However, comparative figures for income statements, cash flow statements, and statements of changes in retained earnings are not reported in the financial statements of 2005 (CMB XI/25, 2003). Therefore, comparable data for the statements of financial position is only available under both the local accounting standards and the IFRS for the year, 2004.

The statements of financial position prepared under former Turkish accounting principles are obtained from the 2004 financial statements. The statements of financial position adjusted according to IFRS, on the other hand, are extracted from the comparative figures reported in 2005. Since the comparative figures for income statements are not reported in the financial statements of 2005, the current study focuses solely on the statements of financial position of 2004 prepared according to both previous accounting principles and IFRS. These data have been downloaded from the website ISE. Although the sample size is likely to be small in this study, it is possible to obtain powerful results with a very small sample size. There is not any theoretical minimum sample size to be needed for the population that is normally distributed. Similarly, Wilcoxon signed rank test can also be applied for the population that is not normally distributed. This is because the validity is closely related to the selection of the appropriate method by considering the distribution of sample data (Lowry, 2010).

Study variables

In this study, the variables of the statement of financial position and the selected liquidity, solvency, and profitability ratios that can be calculated using the statements of financial position were used in order to analyze the impact of the first-time IFRS adoption. The variables used in the current study are the items of the statement of financial position which are inventories, current and non-current financial assets, other current receivables, other current and noncurrent assets, other current and non-current liabilities, current and non-current financial liabilities, property, plant and equipment, intangible assets, current and non-current trade receivables, current trade payables, current receivables from related parties, current payables to related parties, current and non-current provisions, total current assets, total non-current assets, total assets, total current and non-current liabilities, total liabilities, net profit/loss, equity, total liabilities and equity and the financial ratios which include current ratio, debt ratio, stockholders' equity ratio, total liabilities to equity ratio, return on assets, and return on equity.

Data analysis

As Table 1 portrays, while the data are not normally distributed for some of the variables, they are normally distributed for some others. The sample data pertaining to the variables for which the skewness values are higher than the threshold values of 1 are positively skewed and not normally distributed (Balanda & MacGillivray, 1988; Bulmer, 1979;). On the other hand, for the rest of the variables as Table 1 shows, the data are normally distributed.

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics showing distribution of the data concerning the statement of financial position figures and the financial ratios

<i>Panel A: Statement of financial position variables and financial ratios under TGAAP</i>				<i>Panel B: Statement of financial position variables and financial ratios under IFRS</i>			
Variable	Skewness	mean	median	Variable	Skewness	mean	median
Inventories	1,732	753679,33	0	Inventories	1,732	807847	0
Current financial liabilities	1,732	7518176,67	0	Current financial liabilities	1,732	8058514,67	0
Non-current financial liabilities	1,732	5243337,33	0	Non-current financial liabilities	1,732	5620180,67	0
Property, plant and equipment	-1,347	1478398	1842891	Property, plant and equipment	-1,347	1584663,33	1975341
Intangible assets	1,718	6441154	878768	Intangible assets	1,718	6904123,33	942039
Cash and cash equivalents	1,7	6627019,67	1348281	Cash and cash equivalents	1,7	7104106	1445183
Marketable securities	1,226	4603965,33	2947021	Marketable securities	1,226	4935320	3158826
Current trade receivables	1,713	12241002	4342384	Current trade receivables	1,713	13120960,67	4655036
Non-current trade receivables	1,732	3535902,33	0	Non-current trade receivables	1,732	3790030,67	0
Current trade payables	1,114	1474646,33	1015702	Current trade payables	1,114	1580631,67	1088701
Current receivables from related parties	1,732	3252404	0	Current receivables from related parties	1,732	3486157,33	0
Current payables to related parties	-1,392	20584	27032	Current payables to related parties	-1,393	22064,33	28978
Current provisions	1,73	1671821,67	85502	Current provisions	1,73	1791980,67	91658
Non-current provisions	-1,693	22411,67	31833	Non-current provisions	-1,693	24024	34125
Total current assets	0,066	39973977,33	39611454	Total current assets	0,032	42951579	42763917
Total non-current assets	0,657	36428769	30684581	Total non-current assets	0,649	38945135	32889909
Total assets	1,189	117070195	65867254	Total assets	1,189	125484133	70609696
Total current liabilities	1,728	12007792,67	1774432	Total current liabilities	1,728	12870842,67	1901962
Total non-current liabilities	1,73	10997282	666718	Total non-current liabilities	1,73	11787667,67	714636
Total liabilities	1,729	23005074,67	2441150	Total liabilities	1,729	24658510,33	2616598
Other current receivables	1,73	241764,33	11820	Other current receivables	1,73	259140,33	12670
Other current assets	-0,472	3135333	3452710	Other current assets	-0,473	3360820,33	3701304
Other current liabilities	1,727	1296434	802242	Other current liabilities	1,727	1389644,33	860003
Other non-current liabilities	1,732	259559,33	0	Other non-current liabilities	1,732	278214	0
Total shareholders' equity	0,796	53397492	51443562	Total shareholders' equity	0,796	57238011,33	55140857
Other non-current assets	-0,655	24878293	28351505	Other non-current assets	-0,655	26666317,67	30389152
Net profit for the period	1,596	26080468	16206909	Net profit for the period	1,596	27957123,33	17371714
Total liabilities and equity	1,189	76402746,33	65867254	Total liabilities and equity	1,189	81896714	70609696
Current ratio	1,655	26,87400	8,78400	Current ratio	1,655	26,87633	8,78400
Debt ratio	1,700	0,20933	0,05300	Debt ratio	1,700	0,20933	0,05300
Stockholders equity ratio	-1,700	0,79067	0,94700	Stockholders equity ratio	-1,700	0,79067	0,94700
Total liabilities to equity ratio	1,726	0,44867	,055696	Total liabilities to equity ratio	1,726	0,44866	,055697
Return on assets	0,682	0,40967	0,35500	Return on assets	0,682	0,40967	0,35500
Return on equity	1,129	0,45767	0,37400	Return on equity	1,129	0,45767	0,37400

Considering the fact that some of the variables do not demonstrate normal distribution, both non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-rank test and paired-samples t-test have been applied to test the hypotheses. For the variables that display non-normal distribution, median differences have also been calculated because the median is a better indicator of central tendency than the mean when data is not normally distributed (Lueg et al., 2014; Stent et al., 2010). On the other hand, mean differences have been computed to support the t-test results.

Table 2.
The results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test and Paired-Samples T-test

Variable	T value	Z-value
Inventories	-1,000	-1,000
Current financial liabilities	-1,000	-1,000
Non-current financial liabilities	-1,000	-1,000
Property, plant and equipment	-2,374	-1,604*
Intangible assets	-1,073	-1,604*
Cash and cash equivalents	-1,113	-1,604*
Marketable securities	-1,440	-1,604*
Current trade receivables	-1,414	-1,604*
Non-current trade receivables	-1,000	-1,000
Current trade payables	-1,483	-1,604*
Current receivables from related parties	-1,000	-1,000
Current payables to related parties	-1,956	-1,342
Current provisions	-1,026	-1,342
Non-current provisions	-2,080	-1,604*
Total current assets	-2,903	-1,604*
Total non-current assets	-1,674	-1,604
Total assets	-3,624	-1,604*
Total current liabilities	-1,126	-1,604*
Total non-current liabilities	-1,033	-1,604*
Total Liabilities	-1,079	-1,604*
Other Current Receivables	-1,025	-1,342
Other current assets	-1,818	-1,342
Other current liabilities	-2,514	-1,604*
Other non-current liabilities	-1,000	-1,000
Total Shareholders' equity	-8,616	-1,604*
Other non-current assets	-1,846	-1,342
Net profit for the period	-2,009	-1,604*
Total liabilities and equity	-3,624	-1,604*
Current ratio	-0,690	-0,447
Debt Ratio	-0,887	-0,535
Stockholders Equity Ratio	-2,000	-1,732
Total Liabilities to equity ratio	0,839	-0,535
Return on assets	-1,000	-1,000
Return on equity	-1,000	-1,732

*p<0.01

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The statements of financial position of the sport clubs listed in ISE in Turkey were analyzed in order to identify the impact of first-time IFRS adoption on the financial statements. According to the results obtained, the mean and median values of total current assets have increased. Table 2 shows this increase is statistically significant at $p < 0.10$. Increases in cash and cash equivalents, marketable securities, and current trade receivables seem to be responsible from the overall increase in the total current assets.

As Table 1 shows, the median value of inventories did not change under IFRS. According to the Wilcoxon signed-rank test results there is no statistically significant change in inventories. This finding is not consistent with the findings of Terzi et al. (2013) which show that inventories of manufacturing firms listed in ISE have significantly increased because of the transition to IFRS. This is likely due to the fact that football/soccer clubs do not have inventories in general so the results reveal that IAS 2, which requires inventories to be valued at lower of historical cost or replacement cost, is not expected to affect football/soccer clubs.

The mean and median values of total non-current assets have also increased. This is mainly resulted from the significant increase in property, plant and equipment and intangible assets. According to the Wilcoxon signed-rank test results, this increase is statistically significant at $p < 0.10$. This can be resulted from IAS 16 and 17. This is because, according to the previous accounting standards of Turkey, tangible and intangible assets are measured with historical costs while they can be measured with fair values under IAS 16 if value of the asset increases at material level. Similarly, while financial leases are not reported as assets under the previous accounting standards of Turkey, a property subject to a financial lease should be recognized as an asset in accordance with IAS 17.

Similarly, the mean and median values of total asset have gone up. While total assets have increased significantly, the increases in total non-current assets are statistically not significant. To sum up, first-time mandatory IFRS transition increased the amounts of total current assets, total non-current assets, and total assets of the football/soccer clubs listed in ISE.

When the 'current and non-current trade and/or other payables to related parties' are considered, it can be said that the mean and median values of current trade payables and current payables to related parties have increased. According to the Wilcoxon signed-rank test results, the increases of current trade receivables and current trade payables are statistically significant at $p < 0.10$. In addition, there is no statistically significant change in the remaining accounts.

The mean and median values of current and non-current provisions have increased under IFRS. However, the increase in current provision is not statistically significant while it is significant for the

non-current provision. This result is consistent with IAS 37. It is important to emphasize that recognition of provisions is limited under the previous accounting standards of Turkey. According to IAS 37, on the other hand, provisions are recognized if certain conditions are met. Hence, transition to IFRS resulted in an increase in total provisions.

Total current liabilities and total non-current liabilities have increased with the transition to IFRS. Parallel to the increase in total current and non-current liabilities, the mean and median values of the total liabilities have also increased. All these increases are statistically significant at $p < 0.10$. It can be concluded that treatment of provisions under IAS 37 led to an increase in liabilities. In addition, revaluation of financial liabilities at fair value in accordance with IAS 39 also led to an increase in financial liabilities.

The results further reveal there is a significant increase in total equity as a result of the transition to IFRS. IAS 19 and 39 seem to be responsible for the increase in total equity. In accordance with IAS 19, discounting of employee benefits resulted in an increase in equity. De-recognition of financial instruments through profit under IAS 39 also led to an increase in equity. Therefore, H0-1 is rejected.

When the mean and median values of the ratios; current ratio, debt ratio, stockholders equity ratio, total liabilities to equity ratio, return on assets, and return on equity, are analyzed, it can be seen that transition to IFRS does not have any impact on financial ratios. Normally, this can be occurred when the transition to IFRS has mixed effects on both items of the ratios. However, the results of the present study showed that changes occurred in only one direction, that is, all account numbers have increased under IFRS. Hence, it is obvious that since the rates of changes on both numerator and denominator are parallel to each other, there is no change in financial ratios. It is concluded that transition to IFRS does not affect the financial ratios of the football/soccer clubs listed in ISE. Therefore, H0-2 is accepted.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Sponsors and/or investors may easily invest in foreign countries in today's global world. However, they might encounter difficulties in comparing the financial performances of clubs since some of countries (mainly developed ones) apply IFRS while others (underdeveloped and developing ones in general) follow their own (local) standards. In this regard, an analysis of the differences of financial statements prepared in accordance with IFRS and those prepared on the basis of local standards is self-evidence. Accordingly, the impact of adoption to IFRS on the statements of financial position and selected financial ratios of football/soccer clubs listed in ISE was analyzed in this study. Accordingly,

two key conclusions can be derived from the study: The first one is that transition to IFRS leads to statistically significant changes in total current asset, cash and cash equivalents, marketable securities, current trade receivables, property, plant and equipment, intangible assets, total assets, total current liabilities, total non-current liabilities, non-current provisions, total liabilities, total shareholders' equity, net profit, and total liabilities and equity. These findings are consistent with the ones found in other studies conducted in order to define the impact of IFRS adoption on the financial statements (Callao et al., 2007; Jermakowicz, 2014, Misirlioglu et al., 2013; Terzi et al., 2013). The second one is that transition to IFRS does not result in statistically significant impact on the financial ratios of the football/soccer clubs listed in ISE. In this respect, there are two main implications drawn from the results of the current study: (1) While the transition to IFRS can lead to changes in absolute values of the accounts, it does not change the liquidity, solvency, and profitability of the football/soccer clubs. Therefore, the managers of football/soccer clubs obtain the standardized financial statements without changing their financial positions. (2) Despite the fact that adoption of IFRS does not change financial position of the football/soccer clubs in Turkey, it enables internal and external users of accounting information to have reliable, transparent, and comparable financial information which in turn attracts more sponsors to football/soccer clubs for their sporting events.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are two limitations to be considered in the interpretation process of the study: First, the present study focuses only on a single country which is a developing one (Turkey). However, all football/soccer clubs listed in ISE (three biggest and the most successful football/soccer clubs in Turkey) are considered. Therefore, this study can be considered as a case study. In this regard, rather than producing generalizations, the related parties will obtain the better explanation and a detailed analysis of the theory with this case study. In addition, a researcher can utilize from multiple-case studies of football/soccer clubs listed in other stock markets in order to increase the generalizability of the case study findings.

Second, this study analyzed only the transition period, year 2004. Therefore, it is also recommended that a further study would concentrate on the longest period before and after the transition period to obtain detailed and different perspectives.

Despite these limitations, this study provides insight into which particular standard affects the statements of financial position of the football/soccer clubs. In addition, this study provides valuable information to the decision makers, such as club managers, sponsors, and investors, who are interested in applying IFRS or investing in a football/soccer clubs by analyzing the accurate financial statements.

REFERENCES

- Aharony, J., Barniv, R., & Falk, H. (2010). The impact of mandatory IFRS adoption on equity valuation of accounting numbers for security investors in the EU. *European Accounting Review*, 19(3), 535-578.
- Aisbitt, S. (2006). Assessing the effect of the transition to IFRS on equity: the case of the FTSE 100. *Accounting in Europe*, 3(1), 117-133.
- Alkan, G.I., & Dogan, O. (2012). Uluslararası finansal raporlama standartlarının finansal rasyolara kısa ve uzun dönemli etkileri: IMKB’de bir araştırma. *Muhasebe ve Finansman Dergisi*, 54, 87-100.
- Balanda, K.P., & MacGillivray, H. (1988). Kurtosis: a critical review. *The American Statistician*, 42(2), 111-119.
- Balsari, K.C., & Varan, S. (2014). IFRS implementation and studies in Turkey. *Accounting and Management Information Systems*, 13(2), 373-399.
- Bulmer, M.G. (1979). *Principles of Statistics*, Mineola, NY: Dover Publications.
- Callao, S., Jarne, J.I., & Lainez, J.A. (2007). Adoption of IFRS in Spain: effect on the comparability and relevance of financial reporting. *Journal of International Accounting, Auditing and Taxation*, 16(2), 148-178.
- Callao, S., Ferrer, C., Jarne, J.I., & Lainez, J.A. (2009). The impact of IFRS on the European Union: is it related to the accounting tradition of the countries? *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*, 10(1), 33-55.
- CMB XI/25 (2003). Sermaye piyasasında muhasebe standartları hakkında teblig (Accounting Standards Act in compliance with IFRS), Resmi Gazete 25290 (15.11.2003).
- Cordazzo, M. (2013). The impact of IFRS on net income and equity: evidence from Italian listed companies. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*, 14(1), 54-73.
- Delvaile, P., Ebberts, G., & Saccon, C. (2005). International financial reporting convergence: evidence from three Continental European Countries. *Accounting in Europe*, 2(1), 137-164.
- Ferrer, C., Callao, S., Jarne, J.I., & Lainez, J.A. (2008). The impact of IFRS on the European Financial Reporting. Paper presented at the 31st Annual Congress European Accounting Association, Rotterdam.
- Fito, M. A., Moya, S., & Orgaz, N. (2013). Considering the effects of operating lease capitalization on key financial ratios. *Spanish Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 42(159), 341-369.
- Gaston, S.C., Garcia, C.F., Jarne, J.I., & Gadea, J.A. (2010). IFRS adoption in Spain and the United Kingdom: effects on accounting numbers and relevance. *Advances in Accounting, Incorporating Advances in International Accounting*, 26(2), 304-313.
- Haller, A., Ernstberger, J., & Froschhammer, M. (2009). Implications of the mandatory transition from national GAAP to IFRS - empirical evidence from Germany. *Advances in Accounting, Incorporating Advances in International Accounting*, 25(2), 226-236.
- Haller, A., & Wehrftz, M. (2013). The impact of national GAAP and accounting traditions on IFRS policy selection: evidence from Germany and the UK. *Journal of International Accounting, Auditing and Taxation*, 22(1), 39-56.
- Jermakowicz, E.K. (2004). Effects of adoption international financial reporting standards in Belgium: the evidence from BEL-20 companies. *Accounting in Europe*, 1(1), 51-70.
- Kabir, M.H., Laswad, F., & Islam, M.A. (2010). Impact of IFRS in New Zealand on accounts and earnings quality. *Australian Accounting Review*, 20(55), 343-357.
- Kim, O. (2013). Russian accounting system: value relevance of reported information and the IFRS adoption perspective. *The International Journal of Accounting*, 48(4), 525-547.
- Lowry, R. (2010). *Concepts and Applications of Inferential Statistics*. New York: Poughkeepsie.
- Lueg, R., Punda, P., & Burkert, M. (2014). Does transition to IFRS substantially affect key financial ratios in shareholder-oriented common law regimes? Evidence from the UK. *Advances in Accounting, Incorporating Advances in International Accounting*, 30(1), 241-250.
- Misirlioglu, i. U., Tucker, J., & Yukselturk, O. (2013). Does mandatory adoption of IFRS guarantee

- compliance? *The International Journal of Accounting*, 48(3), 327-363.
- Moscariello, N., Skerratt, L., & Pizzoa, M. (2014). Mandatory IFRS adoption and the cost of debt in Italy and UK. *Accounting and Business Research*, 44(1), 63-82.
- Regulation, EC. (2002). Regulation (EC) No 1606/2002 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 July 2002 on the application of international accounting standards”, available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX:32002R1606/> (accessed 7 April 2014)
- Sahut, J.M., Boulerne, S., & Teulon, F. (2011). Do IFRS provide better information about intangibles in Europe? *Review of Accounting and Finance*, 10(3), 267-290.
- Soderstrom, N.S., & Sun, K.J. (2007). IFRS adoption and accounting quality: a review. *European Accounting Review*, 16(4), 675-702.
- Stent, W., Bradbury, M., & Hooks, J. (2010). IFRS in New Zealand: effects on financial statements and ratios. *Pacific Accounting Review*, 22(2), 92-107.
- Terzi, S., Oktem, R., & Sen, I.K. (2013). Impact of adopting international financial reporting standards: empirical evidence from Turkey. *International Business Research*, 6(4), 55-66.
- Trewavas, K., Redmayne, N.B., & Laswad, F. (2012). The impact of IFRS adoption on public sector financial statements. *Australian Accounting Review*, 22(1), 86-102.
- Unlucan, D. (2014). Jersey sponsors in football/soccer: the industry classification of main Jersey Sponsors of 1147 football/soccer clubs in top leagues of 79 countries. *Soccer and Society*, 15(3), 314-333.
- Varan, S., & Balsari, C.K. (2013). The adoption of international financial reporting standards (IFRS) and loss avoidance in Turkey. *Accounting in Central and Eastern Europe, Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies*, 13, 1-25.
- Wan Ismail, W.A., Kamarudin, K.A., Van Zijl, T., & Dunstan, K.L. (2013). Earnings quality and the adoption of IFRS based accounting standards: evidence from an emerging market. *Asian Review of Accounting*, 21(1), 53-73.

E-WOM OF FIVE STAR HOTELS IN CYPRUS: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CONSUMER PERCEPTION THROUGH TRIP-ADVISOR

Umut Ayman, Assist. Prof. Dr., Eastern Mediterranean University, Faculty of Communication
and Media Studies, Northern Cyprus. umut.ayman@emu.edu.tr

Anil Kemal Kaya, Assoc. Dr., Eastern Mediterranean University, Northern Cyprus, Faculty of
Communication and Media Studies, Northern Cyprus. anil.kemal@emu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

Social media has a kind of supremacy not only for the companies but also for the consumers as well. Consumers have a huge power on their fingertips to share their experiences, perceptions, and dis/satisfactions. With the use of social media, the user-generated content (UGC) has inevitably become popular for both consumers and companies. Especially, for tourism sector, the consumers' experiences and perceptions expand with UGC as e-WOM (electronic word of mouth) within new myriad consumer world. EWOM has a control mechanism from consumers to consumers. Also, it spread around the world that can highly affect the way of companies' future marketing communication strategies virtually and augmented reality.

The aim of the study focuses on to explore e-WOM of most viewed Five Star Hotels every city in Cyprus that are listed on Trip-advisor. The content analysis will used to understand how these hotels build up their marketing communication strategies and communicate with their consumers. There is some researches done about E-WOM uses in mostly developed countries but there is not such type of research done entitled E-WOM of five Star Hotels in Cyprus: A content analysis of consumer perception. Also, consumer generated content will be analyzed to understand consumer perceptions in this study. Thus, the comparative analysis will be used to discover projections of company's professional editor review and reactions of consumers on Trip-advisor. The research findings will create a pathway for marketing communication professionals and academicians understand better, the role of e-WOM importance under marketing communication perspective.

Keywords: Marketing Communication, e-WOM, Five Star Hotels, Cyprus **Introduction**

Service sector is growing in the world market and to differentiate themselves is more difficult than the production sector. As service is more intangible than the product itself, to persuade the company's customer needs more effort. In the campaigns, companies must touch their customer thought and feeling. In decision making process consumer care the experience of the customer and other people thoughts before they get persuaded that it is a right good.

Under service sector, tourism related topics; hotel booking, restaurants, cafes, flights, rents, places need to be visit are some important topic that need to be discussed. As there is a technological development people have more chance to get an information about hotel or plan their trips. Previously it was not like that, they were applying some travel agency asking them to arrange their trip get a flight and boking hotels.

Travel agencies act an intermediary in that process they are like an opinion leader “that affect consumers with accurate information in terms of trust and interpretation of meanings from consumers’ point of view.” (Lee, Law, & Murphy, 2011).

Changing consumer profile and medium usage

As we are living in this globalized world, the technological advances within the information society cause to changes customer profile. They know what they are looking for in their trips and they want to see all the alternative before they decide on while they are passing decision making process in the evaluation of alternative process. Social networks become essential for public in this global village, since group of people can easily express their ideas share their activities and interest easily.

Companies depend on their target audience profile they apply their marketing communication elements (advertising, public relations, direct marketing sales promotion and personal selling). Application of marketing communication elements is changing country to country product to product. For instance, in small island people trust more word of mouth communication than the other marketing communication tactics. “WOM is informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived noncommercial communicator and a receiver about a product, service, or organization” (Cheng et al., 2006) (Lee, Law, & Murphy, 2011). According to Ozturen (2013), he declared that, information on electronic trust through social network sites affect purchase behavior of consumers. Consumers expect truthful and trustful information and behavior. That causes the long-term relationship between consumers and the organizations. Also, Tuominen (2011) pointed out that the consumers prefer to more focus on cross-shopping and price checking, word of mouth communication, the on-line reviews information, incentives and service benefits and features affect

the consumers' online travel purchasing.

Thus, people read the other tourist review as a user generated content instead of other getting message from the traditional channel that the hotels send for them. User-generated contents on social media have reshaped the information processing and receiving of the consumers. Social network sites have started to dominate the holiday decisions, hotel selections and destinations as well. Tourists' travel decisions are affected by the other consumers' preferences, experiences, social network sites and consumer reviews from user-generated content such as Tripit, Tripcase, Tripeye, Tripadvisor, trivago, booking are some of them.

User-generated content such as Trip-advisor (www.tripadvisor.com) is the largest online network of traveler's reviews site (O'connor, 2010). Law (2006) mentioned that non- booking situation of the Trip-advisor however, Trip-advisor currently has booking option for millions of travelers (Trip-advisor, 2017). Law (2006) mentioned that TripAdvisor has considered an information source for online travel information. Also, according to reports, the millions of consumers prefer to visit and read review sites. About 88% of consumers' decisions are affected by the kinds of information and exposure on review sites (Tripadvisor.com).

Law (2006) mentioned as Trip-advisor has been projected outcome that affect 500 million pound of corporate travel expenditure yearly (Caterer, 2009)(Law 2006). Presently TripAdvisor has 465 million travel reviews and 390 million visitors per month comments or share their perception monthly within 49 different market. There was a research done in 2007 explore that 80% of consumers from UK checking social network sites before booking their hotel and at least 50% of them get influenced the reviewer comments if there is any negative WOM they hesitate to complete the booking process. The research also claimed that these consumers mostly checking the most information posted sites that is freely generated by its users.

The people who uses Trip-advisor they have a chance to see some photos or videos about the hotel that posted by reviewer, hotel responsible and/ or trip advisor. As TripAdvisor gives a chance to the consumer to load some multimedia elements such as photos and videos or maps of trips, discussion forums, web-based applications that allow users to post some material and discuss some specific topics (J. Miguens, R. Baggio, & C. Costa, 2008).

Reputation of Cyprus Hotels

Cyprus is a small developing island. After 1974 civil war, Cyprus dived into two part as South and North. Besides, tourism sector is one of the important sector that influences country economy for

both sides.

In accordance with Passenger Survey results related with South side, revenue from tourism was increased 11.9% in December 2016 by comparing 2015. Also by looking the periods January and February 2017 there was an increase 26.4% from the previous year and when it compared February 2016 and 2017 records show that there was an increase like 24.6% (Statistical service of the Republic of Cyprus, 17/03/2017).

Besides in 2014 North side, there was a 8.5% increase in tourism sector and according to capacity it seems Famagusta came first then Kyrenia and Nicosia it follow. According to, Ministry of Environment and Tourism in North Side, the first two month in 2017, hotels were 36% full where it was 28,1% in January-February 2016. In 2016 the occupancy rate was 48.6% and 48.8% was in 2015. Out of 48.6% occupancy rate 53.2% of this hotel has casino and the left 38.4% has no casino. (TRNC tourism planning Department, December 2016)

Table 1: Five Star Hotel

Hotel name	City	North/South	Own Casino	review
Hilton Cyprus	Nicosia	South	No	930
Golden Tulip Nicosia Hotel & Casino	Nicosia	North	Yes	92
Merit Lefkoşa Hotel & casino	Nicosia	North	Yes	56
The Ciao Stelio Deluxe Hotel	Larnaka	South	No	192
Golden Bay Beach Hotel	Larnaka	South	No	771
Alion Beach Hotel	Famagusta	South	No	738
Capo Bay Hotel	Famagusta(Protoras)	South	No	1517
Grecian Park Hotel	Famagusta(Protoras)	South	No	1006
Salamis Bay Conti	Famagusta	North	Yes	1847
Arkin Palm Beach Hotel	Famagusta	North	Yes	460
Grecian Bay Hotel	Famagusta	South	No	673
Adams Beach Hotel	Famagusta	South	No	1424
Constantinos the Great Beach	Famagusta	South	No	1577
Noah's Ark Deluxe Hotel & Spa	Famagusta(Protoras)	North	Yes	596

Kaya Artemis Resort & Casino	Famagusta	North	Yes	1175
Atlantica Aeneas Hotel	Famagusta	South	No	10
So White Boutique Suites	Famagusta	South	No	261
Merit Park Hotel & Casino	Kyrenia	North	Yes	486
Rocks Hotel Casino	Kyrenia	North	Yes	459
Merit Royal Hotel & Casino	Kyrenia	North	Yes	197
Arkin Colony Hotel	Kyrenia	North	Yes	465
Merit Crystal Cove	Kyrenia	North	Yes	362
Grand Pasha Hotel Casino & Spa	Kyrenia	North	Yes	72
Savoy Ottoman Palace	Kyrenia	North	Yes	67
Elysium Hotel	Paphos	South	No	3108
Olympic Lagoon Resort Paphos	Paphos	South	No	1337
Constantinou Bros Asimina Suites Hotel	Paphos	South	No	1045
The Annabella	Paphos	South	No	2352
Almyra Hotel	Paphos	South	No	1781
King Evelthon Beach Hotel & Resort	Paphos	South	No	2008
Azia Resort & Spa	Paphos	South	No	339
Venus Beach Hotel	Paphos	South	No	780
St Raphael Resort	Limassol	South	No	1300
Four Season Hotel	Limassol	South	No	1737
Amathus Beach Hotel Limassol	Limassol	South	No	1860
Londa Hotel	Limassol	South	No	647
The Royal Apollonia	Limassol	South	No	794
GrandResort	Limassol	South	No	761
St Raphael Resort	Limassol	South	No	1300
Parklane, A Luxury Collection Resort & Spa	Limassol	South	No	937
Olympic Residence Deluxe Apartments	Limassol	South	No	34

There are forty-one five star hotels in Cyprus. Where 13 of them are in the North side and the left 31 of them are in South part. In south side because of governmental rules and regulation none of the hotel have casino, however in North side all five star has casino. In south side Elysium Hotel has the greatest review and The Annabella comes second order. Both are located in Paphos. On the other hand in North side Salamis Bay Conti has the highest review Kaya Artemis Resort and Casino

comes second order. Both are located in Famagusta.

According to research limitation that focused on five star hotel that has at least 450 review seen that thirty out of forty one is in the short list according to 15/03/2017 data of Trip advisor.

Table 2: Criteria E-WOM

Hotel	Location	review	photo	evaluate	Manager respond every comment	Perception
Alion Beach Hotel	Fam.	738 Eng:487 Ger:118 Russ: 69 Ital:17 Fren:14	Traveller: 521 Manager: 44 Trip adv: 274	441 Excel. 52 V. Good 18Average 5 Poor 1 Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Brilliant Very good Lovely Great property Quality service Nice Romantic wonderful
Capo Bay Hotel	Fam.	1517 Eng:1298 Russ: 61 Ger: 58 Swed: 31 Greek:20	Traveller: 856 Manager: 11 Trip adv: 315	903 Excel. 291 V. Good 80Average 18 Poor 6 Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Excellent Very good Lovely beautiful Quality service Romantic Nice delight wonderful
Grecian Park Hotel	Fam.	1006 Eng:776 Russ:104 Ger:72 Ital:22 Fren:19	Traveller: 808 Manager: 3 Trip adv: 430	476 Excel. 198 V. Good 70Average 18 Poor 14 Terrible	No Response	Fabulous Very good Lovely beautiful Quality service Romantic Nice delight wonderful friendly best fantastic
Salamis Bay Conti	Fam.	1847 Eng: 696 Turk:782 Ger:162 Fren:35 Ita:28	Traveller: 1044 Manager: 127 Trip adv: 433	236 Excel. 231 V. Good 139Average 46 Poor 44 Terrible	Negati.:N Positive:Y	Excellent good beautiful Quality service Wonderful classic
Arkin Palm Beach Hotel	Fam.	460 Eng:353 Turk:75 Ita:14 Ger:7	Traveller: 306 Manager: 401 Trip adv: 22	216 Excel. 90 V. Good 24Average 15 Poor 8 Terrible	No Response	Weak management Fantastic Wonderful Location

		Fren:4				lovely renovation great beach 4*star level
Grecian Bay Hotel	Fam.	673 Eng:387 Russ:125 Ger:121 Fren:29 Ital:11	Traveller: 551 Manager: 9 Trip adv: 328	209 Excel. 102V. Good 54Average 13 Poor 9Terrible	No Response	Excellent Great Luxury Fabulous Best Relax Enjoy Winter Escape
Adams Beach Hotel	Fam.	1425 Eng:951 Russ:302 Ger:72 Greek:42	Traveller: 1157 Manager: 193 Trip adv: 387	530 Excel. 183V. Good 132Average 74Poor 32Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Beautiful Great Lovely Friendly Best Great Russian oriented
Noah's Ark Deluxe Hotel & Spa	Fam.	596 Eng:126 Turk:397 Ital:25 Russ:20	Traveller: 558 Manager: 23 Trip adv: 0	70Excel. 33V. Good 11Average 6Poor 6Terrible	No Response	Great Nice Peaceful Excellent Amazing Perfect Bad management
Kaya Artemis Resort and Casino	Fam.	1178 Eng:229 Turk:689 Ital:147 Slovak:25 Fren:21	Traveller: 1157 Manager: 73 Trip adv: 631	216Excel. 90V. Good 24Average 15Poor 8Terrible	No Response	Great Good Amazing Wonderful Fabulous Cypriot magic Winter sun Beautiful Maldives in Cyprus
Merit Park Hotel	Kyr.	488 Eng:157 Turk:280 Russ:18 Fren:9 Dutch:7	Traveller: 383 Manager: 41 Trip adv: 346	83Excel. 35V. Good 19Average 5Poor 15Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Great Good Best Luxury service Excellent Nice Friendly
Rocks Hotel Casino	Kyr.	459 Eng:296 Turk:148 Fren:3 Dutch:2 Ger:2	Traveller: 138 Manager: 53 Trip adv: 286	308 Excel. 109V. Good 25Average 11Poor 6Terrible	No Response	Great Good Quality Wonderful Service staff Amazing Marvellous Intersesting

						Air conditioning problem Best Not very human
The Arkin Colony Hotel	Kyr.	465 Eng:352 Turk:99 Ger:7 Ital:3 Span:2	Traveller:225 Manager: 18 Trip adv: 296	196 Excel. 103V. Good 35Average 13Poor 5Terrible	No Response	Beautiful Very Good Quality Service Friendly Excellent Wonderful
St Raphael Resort	Lim.	1300 Eng:1026 Russ:203 Greek:20 Ger:17 Fren:13	Traveller:763 Manager: 77 Trip adv: 379	595 Excel. 265V. Good 100Average 48Poor 18Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Service Friendly Great Perfect location
Four Seasons Hotel	Lim.	1738 Eng:1357 Russ:284 Ger:28 Fren:25 Greek:24	Traveller:1079 Manager: 54 Trip adv: 545	1150 Excel. 148V. Good 22Average 27Poor 10Terrible	No Response	Wonderful Fabulous Luxury Amazing Best Service Fantastic Great Excellent
Amathus Beach Hotel Limassol	Lim.	1860 Eng:1484 Russ:216 Ger:59 Greek:33 Fren:29	Traveller:763 Manager: 77 Trip adv: 379	1276Excel. 150V. Good 320Average 16Poor 10Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Best Family H Service Amazing Great Wonderful Excellent Classy Paradise Fantastic
Londa Hotel	Lim.	649 Eng:517 Russ:61 Ger:32 Swed:10 Fren:9	Traveller:352 Manager: 79 Trip adv: 201	363 Excel. 131V. Good 11Average 9Poor 3Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Very impressed Favourite Great Amazing Relaxing
The Royal Apollonia	Lim.	799 Eng:569 Russ:166 Fren:16 Ger:16	Traveller:667 Manager: 58 Trip adv: 239	365 Excel. 135V. Good 40Average 22Poor 7Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Lovely Great Fantastic Excellent Service Great location Staff Amazing Relaxing

						Aggressive manager
GrandResort	Lim.	761 Eng:595 Russ:105 Ger:30 Fren:14 Greek:11	Traveller:483 Manager: 26 Trip adv: 324	367 Excel. 133V. Good 53Average 25Poor 17Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Lovely Very nice Great service Amazing Perfect Children place Friendly Wonderful staff Bad personnel
St Raphael Resort	Lim.	1300 Eng:1026 Russ:203 Greek:20 Ger:17 Fren:13	Traveller:763 Manager: 77 Trip adv: 379	595 Excel. 265V. Good 100Average 48Poor 18Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Very pleasant Fantastic Service Amazing Perfect Great Friendly Enjoy Perfect Not a 5*hotel
Parklane, A Luxury Collection Resort & Spa	Lim.	937 Eng:789 Russ:87 Fren:31 Ger:13 Ital:10	Traveller:394 Manager: 81 Trip adv: 0	512 Excel. 164V. Good 72Average 28Poor 13Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Trendy Romantic Amazing Luxury Tranquillity Great Beautiful Very good Great place Good 4*hotel
Hilton	Nico.	930 Eng:747 Greek:49 Chin:38 Ger:36	Traveller: 350 Manager: 130 Trip adv: 0	747 391 Excel. 252 V. Good 77 Average 19 poor 8 terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	So friendly *Amazing staff *Great property *Quality Service
Golden Bay Beach Hotel	Larn.	771 Eng:603 Russ:83 Ger:26 Chine:20	Traveller: 432 Manager:31 Trip adv: 344	603 269 Excel. 184 V. Good 82 Average 40 poor 28 terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	*Excellent hotel *Friendly& attentive staff *High quality good value beach *Amazing experience

						*Great winter vacation
Elysium Hotel	Paphos	3108 Eng:2785 Russ:149 Ger:58 Chin:42 Dutch:41	Traveller:1916 Manager: 37 Trip adv: 0	2244 Excel. 386V. Good 97Average 34Poor 24Terrible	few response	Great Amazing Lovely Fantastic Paradise Best Perfect
Olympic Lagoon Resort Paphos	Paphos	1342 Eng:1253 Ger:26 Russ:26 Dutch:15 Greek:11	Traveller:1014 Manager: 55 Trip adv: 398	1014 Excel. 169V. Good 50Average 14Poor 6Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Fabulous Super stay Great Service staff Memorable experience Faultless Excellent Great
Constantino u Bros Asimina Suites Hotel	Paphos	1045 Eng:930 Ger:49 Russ:41 Dutch:19 Fren:15	Traveller:592 Manager: 40 Trip adv: 183	813 Excel. 163V. Good 44Average 18Poor 7Terrible	No Response	Relaxing Great service Excellent Fantastic Superb Luxury Disappoint.
The Annabelle	Paphos	2355 Eng:2248 Russ:34 Fren:25 Ger:23 Ital:9	Traveller:982 Manager: 70 Trip adv: 0	1438 Excel. 555V. Good 190Average 51Poor 14Terrible	No Response	Excellent Nice First class Superb Perfect Fabulous Lovely
King Evelthon Beach Hotel & Resort	Paphos	2023 Eng:1445 Russ:271 Fren:100 Greek:79	Traveller:1942 Manager: 74 Trip adv: 508	764 Excel. 382V. Good 186Average 71Poor 42Terrible	No Response	Best Lovely Very good Amazing Lovely Great staff Average Disappoint.
Almyra Hotel	Paphos	1782 Eng:1570 Ger:57 Fren:55 Russ:48 Ital:19	Traveller:921 Manager: 23 Trip adv: 0	951Excel. 409V. Good 134Average 50Poor 26Terrible	Negati.:Y Positive:Y	Great Best Fantastic Top class wonderful
Venus Beach Hotel	Paphos	780 Eng:621 Russ:73 Ger:27 Fren:21 Polish:12	Traveller:373 Manager: 23 Trip adv: 0	111Excel. 154V. Good 164Average 101 Poor 91Terrible	No Response	Enjoyable Not 5* Now 5* Clean Excellent staff Excellent

						Nice Good
Constantinos the Great Beach Hotel	Protaras	1580 Eng: 1235 Russ:243 Ger:37 Greek:35 Polish:21	Traveller:1129 Manager: 42 Trip adv: 250	576Excel. 307V. Good 226Average 87Poor 39Terrible	No Response	Great Good Amazing Great staff Very good Wonderful Pleasant

As it seen above table English, German. Russian are the ones who mostly visiting the island and giving their experience about the hotels that they stayed. considering city to city those are the findings;

According to Tripadvisor of E-WOM criteria of the Hotels displayed that, there is a tendency of the reviewers to share their photo shots, evaluate the hotels 5-point Likert scale and share their ideas positively and negatively. Also, the perceptions of the reviewers are categorized by the researchers.

Among Famagusta hotels, Capo Bay Hotel which is in South Cyprus, had 1517 reviews with 1182 number of photos posted by travelers, hotel management and Tripadvisor. Management responds positive and negative comments of the reviewers. Majority of the reviewers select Excellent on the rating scale of that hotel. On the other side, Salamis Bay Conti Hotel has 1847 reviews and 1604 number of photos posted by travelers, hotel management and Tripadvisor. However, the hotel did not respond negative comment but also hotel respond to the positive ones. Majority of the ratings are selected as excellent and very good. Mainly, English tourists are the reviewers both of the hotels.

Kyrenia hotels (North Cyprus) are considered low number of reviewers, posted photos, the number of ratings, and no comments for the comments of reviewers except Merit Park Hotel which respond positive and negative comments as well. There is 770 photos are posted by traveller, hotel and Tripadvisor. It can be seen that, majority of the tourists who prefer Kyrenia, they come from Turkey and Tripadvisor is not popular among them because the agency and tour operators and the casinos have trips to these hotels.

Limasol hotels are considered higher number of reviewers and Amathus Beach Hotel has 1860 reviews mainly English reviewers that 1219 number of photos and family orientation and positive perception available in Tripadvisor. 1276 people thought that this hotel is excellent and the hotel responds positive and negative comments.

Only Hilton hotel in Nicosia which is in South Cyprus meet the criteria. 930 reviews mainly

English, with 350 traveller photos, 130 management photos and there is no Tripadvisor photo. Also, in Larnaka (South Cyprus) only Golden Bay Beach Hotel meets the criteria. There is 771 reviews mainly English. There is 807 photos posted by management, traveler and Tripadvisor. Majority of the people thought that this hotel is excellent or very good with commented on positive and negative thoughts of the reviewers.

Paphos is the Aproveitamento's place is the most popular place in the island on Tripadvisor with highest number of reviews, photos and ratings in various hotels. Elysium Park hotel has the highest number of reviewers not only in Paphos but also in whole Island. 3108 reviews with 2785 English reviewers and 1953 number of photos and 2244 reviewers' rate as Excellent and they have few responses on comments.

Protaras has only Constantinos the Great Beach Hotel which meet the criteria. 1580 reviews which are 1235 of them belong to English visitors. 1421 photos are posted by traveler, management and Tripadvisor. Majority of the ratings are very good and excellent with no response to the comments.

As a conclusion. tourism sector is a dynamic sector and changing consumer profile, customers using a new media channel in the cognitive level. Thus, hotels must care about new media channels while their building up their marketing communication campaigns. During their campaign period responding customer and uploading picture create more chance for new customer. Therefore, companies shouldn't see marketing communication campaigns as a cost. They must see that they are doing investment for their customer

REFERENCES

- Peter O'Connor (2010) Managing a Hotel's Image on TripAdvisor Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 19:754-772, 2010 ISSN: 1936-8623 print/1936-8631 online DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2010.508007
- Pasi Tuominen (2011) The Influence of TripAdvisor Consumer-Generated Travel Reviews on Hotel Performance, University of Hertfordshire Business School Working Paper (2011) <https://uhra.herts.ac.uk/dspace/handle/2299/5549>
- Rob Law (2006) Internet and Tourism—Part XXI, Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 20:1, 75-77, DOI: 10.1300/J073v20n01_06
- Ali Ozturen (2013) Effects of Electronic Trust on Purchase Intentions in Online Social Review Networks: The Case of Tripadvisor.com. Life Science Journal 2013;10(2): 2002-2010]. (ISSN: 1097-8135). <http://www.lifesciencesite.com>. 282
- (J. Miguens, R. Baggio, and C. Costa) Social media and Tourism Destinations: TripAdvisor Case Study, IASK ATR2008 (Advances in Tourism Research 2008), Aveiro, Portugal, May. 26-28
- Statistical service of the Republic of Cyprus, 17/03/2017,

http://www.mof.gov.cy/mof/cystat/statistics.nsf/All/26D46A2FE70005BAC225803D003E78_A5?OpenDocument&sub=1&sel=1&e=&print

TRNC tourism planning Department, December 2016)

http://www.tpd.gov.ct.tr/Portals/_1075/Turizm%20%C4%B0statistikleri/2016%20%C4%B0statistikleri/Aral%C4%B1k/DOLULUK.pdf.

Tripadvisor (<https://www.Tripadvisor.com>)

THE ROLE OF LOCAL FOODS OFFERED AT RESTAURANTS IN THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF HATAY DESTINATION

Hulya Taştan

Mersin University/Faculty of Tourism/Department of Gastronomy and Culinary Arts

Yenisehir, Mersin, Turkey

Beril Dönmez

Mersin University/Faculty of Tourism/Department of Tourism Guidance

Yenisehir, Mersin, Turkey

Adem Yetim

Mersin University/Institute of Social Sciences/ Gastronomy and Culinary Arts Graduate Program

Yenisehir, Mersin, Turkey

Şerife Cıcık

Mersin University/Institute of Social Sciences/ Gastronomy and Culinary Arts Graduate Program

Yenisehir, Mersin, Turkey

ABSTRACT

The increase in the popularity of eating out and the related trips has enhanced the number of studies on determining the relationship between food and tourism. This has resulted in some studies on the role of food on the tourists' destination preferences. The aim of the study is to determine image perceptions for Hatay, the general satisfaction level for the meals, the relationship with the Hatay image and satisfaction, and the elements that stand out before visiting Hatay of the visitors who eat food at the restaurants that serve Hatay's culinary offerings. After the necessary information is given in the theoretical part of the study, the data to be analyzed in the study will be obtained via a questionnaire. In this context, the study includes a series of practical applications for both public and private organizations supporting the development of tourism in the city and tourism enterprises.

Key Words: Gastronomy tourism, local food, destination attractiveness

INTRODUCTION

Turkey has been described as a tourism paradise with its historical, cultural, and natural beauties. However, the majority of visitors to the country come for sightseeing, entertainment, or sea-sand-sun (Bucak & Araci, 2016). Until the recent years, all promotion, marketing, and investment policies were concerned with these factors. Alternative tourism types need to develop to increase tourism from other attractions that Turkey possesses, to save tourism from seasonality, and to take advantage of opportunities in terms of sustainability (Hacioglu & Avcikurt, 2011). Today, one of the most open areas of alternative tourism development is gastronomy tourism.

Various researchers have considered the development of local and regional cuisine as a new platform for tourist destinations. In other words, the culinary heritage that a region possesses has gained considerable strength as a tourist attraction in its own right and has come to the fore of tourist activities (Goker, 2011; Selwood, 2003). Gastronomy tourism or travel for food has become growing a trend in many countries of the world. Countries such as Italy, France, and Thailand, which are particularly popular with their meals, have a reputation for gastronomy tourism. Similarly, Australia and Canada have made their meals one of the reasons for visiting tourists visiting their country (Karim & Geng-Qing Chi, 2010). Turkey has taken its place among the developing countries in terms of gastronomic tourism with the activities it has organized and the entry of Gaziantep into the network of UNESCO creative cities (TURSAB Gastronomy Tourism Report, Access: 27.02.2017).

Gastronomy is becoming an important feature, especially in the development of small spaces. Although the literature supports the view that tourism is a link to gastronomy, very little is known about gastronomic tourists. For example, is there a segment called the gastronomy-tourism market segment? Does gastronomy contribute to the quality of tourists' experiences when visiting a destination? Do tourists go back to the destination to re-experience gastronomic activities? Nowadays, researchers have been seeking answers to these and similar questions. For example, Kivela and Crotts (2005) found that tourists prefer gastronomy as their basic travel motivation. In the continuation of their study, they found that gastronomic activities have an important place when the experience about the destination is positive or negative.

Image has been defined as the sum of all the beliefs, ideas, and impressions people associate with a goal. The image of a destination has been defined as the expression of all objective knowledge, prejudices, imagination, and emotional thoughts of an individual or group of a specific place (Ferreira Lopes, 2011). This study will attempt to detect the effects of local food and beverages on the visitor's perception of image. At the same time, we will try to determine what the main

motivation is for visiting a destination that is famous for its local food.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As in the rest of the world, tourism activities have grown in Turkey in recent years (Zengin, 2010). Turkey is the seventh country in terms of number of tourists and the ninth country in terms of tourism revenues in the world rankings. Destinations compete with each other in order to get higher in these rankings. Hence, destinations are using marketing strategies and a variety of promotional tools to achieve more revenue and attract more tourists. Destinations with the same kind of attractiveness are trying to differentiate from others with their cultures and infrastructures. One of the areas where these differences are most obvious is local food and beverages (Eren, 2012).

Researchers have defined local food and beverages as products produced using region-specific raw material and cooking techniques. Local foods perceived as part of the tourist experience are products that reflect the cultures of the region where they have been produced and, at the same time, are important in terms of tourist attraction. The menus have become a major tourist attraction and constitute the basic motivation of gastronomic tourism. Local foods have sometimes seen as a basic charm element for tourism destinations, but sometimes as a supporting element (Quan & Wang, 2004). The concept of gastronomic tourism emerges when local food and beverages are the main motivation to visit somewhere (Nummedal & Hall, 2006).

Gastronomy has been described as a study of where, when, how much, and how to consume food and drink (Santich, 2004). Gastronomy tourism, however, has been expressed as the attraction of local foods and beverages inherent to a destination (Eren, 2012). According to a more comprehensive definition, gastronomy tourism is a type of tourism offering the opportunity to experience food and drink that tourists cannot find elsewhere and to recognize, experiment, and learn local tastes (Akdag, Akgunduz, Guler, & Benli, 2015; Beşirli, 2010; McKercher, Okumuş, & Okumuş, 2008; Qalişkan, 2013). Wolf (2006) has defined gastronomy tourism as travel motivation and behavior that provides an unforgettable food and beverage experience for the individual. In other words, experiencing the taste of a special meal produced in that region, seeing the production stages of a meal, and visiting food festivals has been considered within the scope of gastronomy tourism (Deveci, Turkmen, & Avcikurt, 2013).

Food and beverages, which have been regarded as supportive products for many years in the tourism sector, were not seen as travel motivation alone among the attractiveness of destinations. However, the culinary heritage that a region today possesses has gained considerable strength as a touristic

product in addition to being a part of tourist products, and it has come to the fore of touristic activities (Goker, 2011; Selwood, 2003). Gastronomy tourism provides a significant benefit to a destination and creates a unique market. It is clear how important gastronomic tourism is in the attractiveness of destinations as an effective alternative for tourists who want to get away from mass tourism and for destinations that do not have the substructure of sea mass (Kivela & Crofts, 2005; Rand et al., 2003).

In recent years, studies have been conducted on destination images to better understand tourist behavior. According to these studies, perception of the image of tourist destinations directly affected the purchasing behavior (Ateşoglu & Turkish, 2013). In other words, it has emphasized that the image of a destination has been crucial in deciding which destination a visitor will go to, or will definitely not go, or what basic motivation is operative. Especially on the first visits to be made, tourists can make an assessment of the images of all alternatives and choose according to this (Beerli & Martin, 2004). The formation of the image had been described by Reynolds (1965) as a development of a mental structure based on several views selected from a stream of information. The destination image has many sources such as 'information bulletins', promotions (travel brochures, posters), others' opinions (family / friends, travel agencies) and general media (newspapers, magazines, television, books, movies). In addition, by visiting the destination, it is possible to influence or change the image of the destination based on first-hand knowledge and experience (Echtner & Brent Ritchie, 2003).

PURPOSE AND METHOD

The purpose of this study is to determine image perceptions for Hatay, the general satisfaction level for the meals, the relationship with the Hatay image and satisfaction, and the elements that stand out before visiting Hatay of the visitors who eat food at the restaurants that serve Hatay's culinary offerings. The scope of the research is gastronomy tourism, local dining experience, and destination image.

Tourist interest in local destinations in Turkey has allowed these destinations to come to the forefront of regional culinary culture. One of these destinations is Hatay, which has been home many nations with various beliefs throughout history, thanks to its position. UNESCO has declared Hatay 'Peace City' with this feature. Hatay, with its historical texture, rich culture, and natural beauties, is as important as it is with its cuisine. The variety of flavors stemming from the rooted past and the fusion of the cultures in this past constitute Hatay's kitchen richness. There are about 600 kinds of food in Hatay cuisine with its many unique features.

It is necessary to ask some questions about the personal characteristics of tourists visiting this tourist destination, their travel motivations, and their perception of the image of this destination. These questions will provide useful information for revealing the gastronomic tourism image presented by Hatay and the overlap of the perception of the tourists in the consumer position. In this context, the main research questions sought in the research are listed below.

Did the visitors travel to Hatay before eating a meal in restaurants serving Hatay's local food and drink?

What is the importance of Hatay's food and drinks in the image perception of Hatay?

Is there a meaningful difference between the groups that visited Hatay before and in terms of the importance level of Hatay's food and drinks in the perception of image towards Hatay?

What is the overall satisfaction levels of visitors who eat food in restaurants that offers Hatay's local food and drink?

Is there a meaningful difference between the groups that visited Hatay before and did not visit Hatay in terms of their overall satisfaction levels for the food they were eating at restaurants that offer Hatay's local food and drinks?

Is there a meaningful relationship between the general satisfaction levels for the foods that are eaten in restaurants serving Hatay's local food and drink and the importance of Hatay's food and drink in image perception for Hatay?

What are the factors for the visitor who eat in restaurants serving Hatay's local food and drink that attach importance to visiting Hatay?

The scope of our research consists of visitors who eat in restaurants serving Hatay's local food and drink. In the restaurants where the data were collected, there was no statistical data for the number of visitors who visited the restaurant, and it was assumed that the number of patrons was over 10,000 and the sample size was determined using the unlimited universe sampling formula ($n = \frac{p \cdot q \cdot z^2}{a \cdot e^2}$) 454 (Ural & Kilic, 2006). The sample size was determined as 384 persons with a 5% significance level and a 5% sampling error considering the variance of maximum variance ($p: 0.50$) ($n = \frac{p \cdot q \cdot z^2}{a \cdot e^2} = \frac{1,96^2 \times 0,5 \times 0,5}{0,072} = \frac{3,8416 \times 0,25}{0,0049} = 384$).

A part of the questionnaire used in the study is titled Gastronomy as a motivation tool: A research on travel motivations, food & beverage experiences and travel satisfaction of domestic tourists

visiting Hatay by Akdag, Gunduz, Guler, and Benli (2015). This was used as a data collection tool in the research. A sorting scale with a 5 - point scale measures expressions on the research. The survey was conducted between 1 February 2017 and 1 March 2017, with face-to-face interviews based on the sampling technique. At the end of the process, 364 participants were collected. Because there were no missing or incorrectly filled surveys, 364 questionnaires were used. Reliability analysis was applied to the ‘travel motivation’ scale included in the questionnaire. Cronbach’s alpha statistical test values were used to test the internal reliability of the 12-item travel motivation scale. As a result of the analysis made, Cronbach’s alpha reliability statistic was found as 0.924. As stated by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010), the value of 0.70 is the confidence value, and the scales on this value are reasonably reliable. Table 1 presents the results of the visiting situation of the visitors who eat in restaurants serving Hatay’s local food. According to Table 1, 77.7% of the participants have never visited Hatay before.

Table 1: The Results of the Visiting Situation

N=364	Yes	No	Mean	Standard deviation
	f(%)	f(%)		
Have you visited Hatay before?	283(77,7)	81(22,3)	1,2225	,41652

According to Table 2, 50.3% of the local foods served in image perceptions for Hatay are important and 30.2% are very important. That is why we can say that approximately 80.5% of the respondents said that food served in these restaurants have an important role in image perception for Hatay.

Table 2: The Importance of Hatay's Local Foods in the Perception of Visitors Towards Image of Hatay

	Very insignificant	Insignificant	Significant nor insignificant	significant	Significant	Mean	Standard deviation
	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)		
What is the significance of Hatay's local foods in your image perception for Hatay?	6(1,6)	6(1,6)	59(16,2)	183(50,3)	110(30,2)	4,0577	,82286

The arithmetic mean and standard deviation values of the scores of Hatay's local foods on the importance scale for the image perception of Hatay according to their previous visits to Hatay are

shown in Table 3. In addition, a t-test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the arithmetic mean and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 3: The Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation Values of the Scores of Hatay's Local Foods on the Importance Scale for the Image Perception of Hatay According to Previous Visits to Hatay

		IMAGE	
Visitation	N	X	SS
Yes	81	4,1235	,89976
No	283	4,0389	,80020

According to Table 4, there is no significant difference between the groups that visited Hatay before and the importance level of Hatay's local foods in the image perception towards Hatay ($t=0,415$; $p=0,158$).

Table 4: T-Test Results According to the Scores Received by Hatay Local Foods Importance Scale and the Image Perception of Hatay According to Visitors Visiting Hatay Previously

		Levene's Test of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Image	Equal variances	2,003	,158	-,815	362	,415	-,08459
	Equal variances not			-,764	118,597	,446	-,08459

Table 5 shows the frequency distribution for overall satisfaction levels of visitors for the local food that they eat. According to Table 5, 58.2% of the respondents stated that they were satisfied and 15.9% of the participants said that they were very satisfied with the food they had eaten. Of the remaining participants, 8.5% stated they were not satisfied with the food they had consumed, and 17.3% of participants used the expression 'neither satisfied nor dissatisfied'.

Table 5: The Frequency Distribution for Overall Satisfaction Levels of Visitors for the Local Food They Eat.

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Mean	Standard Deviation
	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)		
What is your overall satisfaction level for the food you eat at the restaurant you are currently at?	10(2,7)	21(5,8)	63(17,3)	212(58,2)	58(15,9)	3,7885	,87624

Table 6 summarizes the arithmetic mean and standard deviation of the scores they received from the general satisfaction level scale for the foods they have previously eaten while visiting Hatay. In addition, it was examined by t-test whether there was a significant difference between the arithmetic mean and the results are shown in Table 7.

Table 6: Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation Values of the Scores Received by the Scale of the Overall Satisfaction Levels for the Foods of the Visitors According to Their Previous Visits to Hatay

		Satisfaction	
Visitation	N	X	SS
Yes	81	3,7778	1,00000
No	283	3,7915	,83941

When Table 6 and Table 7 were examined, it was found that there was no meaningful difference between the groups that visited Hatay before and their general satisfaction levels for the foods they ate ($t=0,901$; $p= 0,061$).

Table 7: T test Results of the Scale of Hatay Local Food According to the Scores Obtained with General Satisfaction Levels

		Levene's Test		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig.	(2-Mean
Satisfaction	Equal	3,529	,061	,124	362	,901	,01374
	Equal			,113	114,204	,910	,01374

A correlation analysis was carried out to determine whether there is a meaningful relationship between the general satisfaction levels for the foods served and the significance level of Hatay's local foods in image perceptions for Hatay. Correlation analysis was applied for two variables: image and satisfaction. The results of the correlation analysis are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Analysis of the Correlation Between the Level of General Satisfaction and the Importance of Hatay's Local foods in Image Perception towards Hatay

	Satisfaction
--	--------------

Image	Pearson	,365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000
	N	364

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

Analysis of the correlation between the level of general satisfaction and the importance of Hatay's local foods in image perception towards Hatay shows there was a meaningful correlation between the level of general satisfaction and the importance of Hatay's local foods in image perception towards Hatay ($p < 0,01$). There is a relatively weak correlation between the variables ($r = 0.365$). As the level of general satisfaction towards the catered food of the visitors increases, the level of importance of Hatay's local foods also increases in the image perception towards Hatay.

Table 9 gives the ranking of the elements visitors attach importance to visiting Hatay. When the table is examined, the highest average expressions are 'Finding peace (4,1429),' 'Having fun (4,1264),' 'providing information about cultural and historical artefacts (4,0797),' and 'visiting for eating and drinking' (4,0495).

Table 9: Ranking of the elements that visitors attach importance to visiting Hatay

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	Mean	Standard Deviation
	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)		
Finding Peace	5(1,4)	17(4,7)	36(9,9)	169(46,4)	137(37,6)	4,1429	,87602
Having fun	3(0,8)	10(2,7)	50(13,7)	176(48,4)	125(34,3)	4,1264	,80663
Providing information about cultural and historical artifacts	5(1,4)	11(3,0)	54(14,8)	174(47,8)	120(33,0)	4,0797	,84744
Visiting for eating and drinking	6(1,6)	26(7,1)	53(14,6)	138(37,9)	141(38,7)	4,0495	,98349
Find health	5(1,4)	16(4,4)	77(21,2)	164(45,1)	102(28,0)	3,9396	,88866
Spending time with relatives, friends or colleagues	7(1,9)	21(5,8)	69(19,0)	160(44,0)	107(29,4)	3,9313	,94079

Visit for relaxation and rest	5(1,4)	27(7,4)	63(17,3)	164(45,1)	105(28,8)	3,9258	,93743
Living Adventure	4(1,1)	34(9,3)	90(24,7)	133(36,5)	103(28,3)	3,8159	,98567
Educational visit	7(1,9)	36(9,9)	83(22,8)	143(39,3)	95(26,1)	3,7775	1,00546
Visit for sea-sand-sun	14(3,8)	39(10,7)	91(25,0)	131(36,0)	89(24,5)	3,6648	1,07707
Business visit	7(1,9)	30(8,2)	118(32,4)	133(36,5)	76(20,9)	3,6621	,96128
Visit for sports and regeneration	14(3,8)	38(10,4)	120(33,0)	117(32,1)	75(20,6)	3,5522	1,04974

When Table 10 is reviewed again, it is possible to say the majority of participants think that the idea of tasting the food and drink is very important in the visitations to Hatay and that those who think that it is insignificant are very few.

RESULTS

The aim of the study was to determine the perception of the image of Hatay, the general satisfaction levels for the meals, the relationship between them, and the elements that stand out when visiting Hatay. In this context, the study includes a series of practical applications for both public and private organizations supporting the development of tourism in the city and tourism enterprises. First, most of the visitors who are in Istanbul and eat in Hatay local food restaurants did not visit Hatay before. This situation shows that visitors want to taste the Hatay's local food although they had never seen Hatay.

This study tried to determine the importance of Hatay's local foods in the perception of visitors towards image of Hatay. Analyses showed the food served at the restaurant is very influential in the perception of Hatay's destination image. Only 3.2% of the participants stated that the food was not important. For the most of the participants, when you said something about Hatay, the first thing that comes to their mind is Hatay's local food.

Another question that has been investigated about the image perceptions of the participants is whether there is a difference in the perception of the image of the Hatay between those who went

before and those who did not. Analyses made for this question showed there is no difference in perception of the image of the Hatay whether or not a visit Hatay is on the participant's mind.

Participants are generally satisfied about the food they ate. Nevertheless, according to the t-test, there is no meaningful relationship between their local food satisfaction and visiting Hatay. Correlation analysis reveals that as the satisfaction level of the visitors increases, the importance level of Hatay's image also increases.

Finally, this study ranked the elements visitors attach importance to when visiting Hatay. For this ranking, the first four elements are 'finding peace,' 'having fun,' 'providing information about cultural and historical artifacts,' and 'visiting for eating and drinking. ' These findings seem reasonable when considering the destination attractions of Hatay, an old settlement. It is a well-known observation that travels for peacefulness and enjoyment, taking the first two orders, are preminent for almost all travel except business travel. From this point of view, it is not surprising that the 'gastronomic' element is in second place. This is an important result for gastronomy authorities in Hatay. They are always emphasizing that Hatay is famous for its local food but, according to these results, Hatay's cultural and historical values are more in the minds of visitors than its meals.

These findings are remarkable for the city of Hatay, which wants to have widespread awareness throughout the world as Gastronomy City. There are important responsibilities for tourism enterprises and food and beverage operations, especially public organizations such as the Governorship, the Tourism Provincial Directorate and Municipality, non-governmental organizations such as Hatay Tourism Association, related tourism departments of the University, and so on, to increase the recognition of this destination's gastronomic values.

REFERENCES

- Akdag, G., Akgunduz, Y., Guler, O. and Benli, S. (2015). Bir seyahat motivasyon araci olarak gastronomi: Hatay'i ziyaret eden yerli turistlerin seyahat motivasyonlari, Yiyecek-igecek deneyimleri ve seyahat memnuniyetleri uzerine bir arastirma, *1. Eurisia International Tourism Congress: Current Issues, Trends and Indicators (EITOC-2015)*, 2015-05-28, 2015-05-30, Konya, Turkiye.
- Alpar, R. (2012). Spor, saglik ve egitim bilimlerinden orneklerle uygulamali istatistik ve gegerlik guvenirlik, *Ankara: Detay Yayincilik*.
- Ateşoğlu, i. and Turker A. (2013), Turkiye'yi ziyaret eden turistlerin algiladıkları ulke imaji ve olumsuz algılara ilişkin gozum önerileri, *Yeni Fikir Dergisi*, 10/ Ocak, 113-135.
- Beerli, A. and Martin, J. E. (2004). Factors influenceng deatination image, *Annals of TourismResearch*, 31(3), 657681.

- Beşirli, H. (2010). Yemek, kültür ve kimlik, *Milli Folklor Dergisi*, 22(87), 159-169.
- Bucak, T. and Araci, U. E. (2016). Türkiye’de gastronomi turizmi üzerine genel bir değerlendirme, *Balikesir Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitusu Dergisi*, 16(30), 203 - 216.
- Calışkan, O. (2013). Destinasyon rekabetçiliği ve seyahat motivasyonu bakımından gastronomik kimlik, *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 1(2), 39-51.
- Deveci, B., Turkmen, S. and Avcikurt, C. (2013). Kırsal turizm ile gastronomi turizmi ilişkisi: Bigadiç örneği, *International Journal of Social and Economic Sciences*, 3(2) 29-34.
- Eren, R. (2012). Destinasyon gecikiliği olarak gastronomi turizmi: Türkiye’nin gastronomi imajı, ziyaretçilerin bilgi kaynakları ve harcamaları üzerine bir araştırma. *Doktora Tez Önerisi*, T.C. Gazi Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Turizm İşletmeciliği Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Echtner, C. M. and J. R. Brent Ritchie, (2003). The meaning and measurement of destination image, *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(1), 37 - 48.
- Ferreira Lopes, S. D. (2011). Destination image: Origins, developments and implications, *Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 9(2), 305 - 315.
- Goker, G. (2011). *Destinasyon gecikilik unsuru olarak gastronomi turizmi: Balıkesir ili örneği*, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Balıkesir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Balıkesir.
- Güzel Şahin, G. and Ünver, G. (2015). Destinasyon pazarlama aracı olarak “Gastronomi turizmi”: İstanbul’un gastronomi turizmi potansiyeli üzerine bir araştırma, *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, 3(2), 63-73.
- Hacıoğlu, N. and Avcikurt, C. (2008). *Turistik Ürün Değerlendirme*. Ankara: Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Hair, J. F. Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. and Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Hjalager, A. M. (2002). Repairing innovation defectiveness in tourism, *Tourism Management*, 23 (5), 465-474.
- Karim, S. A. and Geng-Qing Chi, C. (2010). Culinary tourism as a destination attraction: An empirical examination of destinations’ food image, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19(6), 531-555.
- Kivela, J. and Crofts, J.C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 4(2-3), 39-55.
- McKercher, B., Okumus, F. and Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It’s all how you cook the numbers, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 25 (2), 137-148.
- Nummedal, M. and Hall, M., (2006). Local food and tourism: An investigation of the New Zealand South Island’s bed and breakfast section’s use and perception of local food, *Tourism Review International*, (9), 365-378.
- Quan, S. and Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism, *Tourism management*, 25(3), 297-305
- Rand, G. E. D., Heath, E. and Alberts, N. (2003). The Role of Local and Regional Food in Destination Marketing: A South African Situation Analysis, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 14(3-4), 97-112.
- Reynolds, W.H. (1965). The role of the consumer in image building, *California Management Review*, Spring, 69-76. Santich, B. (2004). The study of gastronomy and its relevance to hospitality education and training, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23(1), 15-

24.

Türkiye Seyahat Acentecileri Birliđi, Gastronomi Turizmi Raporu, İstanbul, Türkiye.

Ural, A. and Kiliç, İ. (2006). *Bilimsel araştırma süreci ve Spss ile veri analizi*, Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık
Zengin, B. (2010). Turizm sektörünün Türkiye ekonomisine reel ve moneter etkileri, *Akademik incelemeler Dergisi*, 5(1), 102 - 126.

THE IMPACT OF CREATIVITY ON TURNOVER AIM: MODERATING ROLE OF WORK STRESS AND WORK SATISFACTION

Servet Nasifoglu Elidemir

Mürüde Ertay

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism

Abstract

Creativity is the motivating aspect of being a chef when we consider how stressful their jobs. Previous studies show there is a link between creativity with turnover motive and also including testing the mediation effect of work stress and work satisfaction. Although the mediation effects of these two variables were tested, until now, the examination and moderation or interaction effect of work fulfilment and work strain on the link among artistry and turnover motive among hotel chefs. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap by testing the moderation and interaction effects of these two variables in order to explore moderating role of work stress and work satisfaction. Quantitative research methods will be utilized to test the hypothesis of the research. Chefs in Cyprus will be chosen as the sample population. The data will be collected between February and May 2017. The data analysis of this research will be conducted in three steps. First step demonstrate descriptive statistics in order to show the whole picture of all variables. Second step will conduct Pearson correlation analysis to test the relationship among creativity, turnover motive and control variables. Final step of this research will be hierarchical multiple regressions to test the hypotheses of research. To test all analysis, researchers will conduct IBM SPSS version 22.0.

Keywords: Work Stress, Turnover intention, Creativity, TRNC, Hotel's chef, Work Satisfaction

Introduction

A gourmet master's business gives the chance of practicing one's inventiveness, yet in an upsetting work atmosphere. Cooking can be delightful, which allows to the culinary specialists to make dishes which tastes surpass desires and increment their capability (Pratten, 2003b). Culinary specialists who work in the inns accepted to have love for cooking, an individual excitement for blending the fixings. In this way, the nature of work open the entryways for imaginativeness,

smugness through individual accomplishment and the satisfaction of setting up the dishes which was pleased by consumers as innate encouragement for performing the task. It is assumed that for culinary specialists obtaining the circumstances to be inventive may prompt to have occupation fulfillment and that business fulfillment would result to an unwillingness to switch the work (Chuang et al., 2009). Turnover aim is characterized practically as far as contemplations of stopping one's present place of employment as a culinary specialist, slant to contemplate an option work proposal and musings to start one's own particular eatery. In particular, it is normal to expect that among gourmet specialists artistry would foresee turnover goal, and also that occupation fulfillment is expected to interact the connection amongst imagination and turnover motive. As client requests come one after another, and should be prepared and supplied in a short period of time in a crowded kitchen, where everybody tries to do their best to supply the dishes in a short period of time, stress is unavoidable. It takes incredible devotion to wind up distinctly a culinary specialist (Pratten, 2003b); that is why more than half of the gastronomy doesn't attempt to be a chef. The enormous workload, absence of execution criticism and personnel shortages were stated as the three driving work related annoyance referred to by the individuals who stayed in this occupation (Murray-Gibbons and Gibbons, 2007); work strain was in this way characterized appropriately as inordinate workload and absence of input on execution. It is considered that practicing creativity as a gourmet expert would bring about occupation push and thus that employment stress would be connected with turnover aim. Particularly it is assumed that among culinary specialists work stress would interact the connection amongst innovativeness and turnover motive. Therefore, the researchers will create the conceptual model, which is shown in the following parts, to test the moderation effect of work fulfillment and work strain when in the connection among artistry and turnover motive. The study will be conducted in North Cyprus. 5 star hotel chefs and their teams will be taken as the sample population. The quantitative research techniques will be applied to test the hypothesis. The results will illuminate the managers of the hotels by underlying the importance of keeping the competent and creative chefs within their associations.

Theoretical Background

This piece of work will be established on "social cognitive theory" (Bandura, 1986), that states there are connections amongst human personality factors, surrounding factors and behavioral actions.

For this research, personal factors such as artistry, work fulfillment and occupation stress will be analyzed together with the behavioral attitude which in this case, turnover motive.

Literature Review and the Hypothesis

Creativity

Creativity implies the ability to deliver original ideas or compelling answers for issues (Amabile, 1988), and associations with creative workers can along these lines make additional esteem and keep up rivalry in a competitive environment (Amabile et al., 2005; George, 2007).

Workers' innovative practices have a fundamental significance for any association on the grounds that inventive and imaginative workers can assume a definitive part in achievement of the association and accomplishing its objectives. Creativity in the working environment can be included acknowledgments and imaginative practices which go further of people's standard practices and are as far as new strategies for performing business issues, creative utilization of tools and competences, and developing remedies of the problems which are troublesome for others (Aryee, Zhou, Sun, & Lo, 2009; Prabhu, Sutton, & Sauser, 2008). It is considered that inventiveness can be considered as a type of type novel practices (Appelbaum, Iaconi & Matousek, 2007). As hospitality sector mainly depends on human capital, it is important to have creative human capital to convey better and differentiated services to voyagers also, accomplish elevated amounts of satisfied consumers. (Mohsin & Lockyer, 2010; Robinson & Beesley, 2010)

The practice of artistry has been characterized as the way toward creating novel and better methods for getting things done; creativeness and novelty are considered the two parts of advancement procedure, production and execution of thoughts, (Anderson et al., 2014), and the impact of them can be combined (Barrere, 2013). In an eatery framework, inventiveness can be characterized as the production of thoughts by the head gourmet specialists, the generation of these new dishes by team of gourmets and come up with novel names for those novel dishes which inspire gastronomic encounters and feelings (Bouty & Gomez, 2013). Different patterns of cookery innovativeness, mainly assume inventive work as a two part method in view of creating and execution of thoughts, where the responsibility of the main gourmet expert is to initiate novelty and determine patterns (Albors-Garrigos et al., 2013).

In spite of the fact that no practical meaning of a cook's inventiveness or what comprise an innovative formula, there is by all accounts an agreement among famous gourmet specialists that concordance, magnificence (Stierand & Dorfler, 2012) and the satisfaction of the client's fantasies are vital (Balazs, 2001). Hence, the researchers in this work also characterize culinary innovativeness as the utilizing and mixing the components accordingly in the arrangement of meals which look delightful, taste flavorful and satisfy consumer's dreams.

Turnover Intention:

Turnover intentions explain a person's thoughts and behavioral approaches to quit an organization. Turnover on the other hand, defines the real action of a person being separated from an organization. (Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011).

Turnover aim is characterized as a worker's expectation to leave an occupation. Such motive may show up when workers talk negatively regarding to employee's positions, when they constrain their involvement into the institution, or when they really leave their employments (Jang and George, 2012; Karatepe, 2013). Worker turnover has both positive and negative angles. From the business' point of view, the turnover of competent workers is a misfortune to the organization. Nevertheless, the turnover of incompetent or grumbling workers is a favorable circumstance to contract new workers and balance the workforce of the association. From the worker's point of view, turnover might be viewed as a positive element in the event that it prompts to a superior position. On the other hand, turnover motive is an undesirable issue inasmuch as the workers stay disappointed with their present role or associations.

An increased turnover rate of workers can demolish the quality of the services offered by a business operating in tourism and hospitality sector. For example, if the experienced employees who worked for many years leave their positions, the association's misfortune is considerable as far as financial burden, time and exertion (Kim et al., 2009). Furthermore, turnover of skilled representatives comes lead devaluation of the prestige of the association and a decrease in the quality level of their services for clients (Kim & Brymer, 2011)

High level of turnover rate of the personnel is accepted as one of the critical problems the hospitality businesses experience. (Karatepe, 2012) High level of personnel turnover results in

higher financial burdens and additionally, affects the business's performance, reduces efficiency and reduction of the willingness of the personnel to work which eventually reduce the service quality and therefore, decrease in customer satisfaction. (Simons & Hinkin, 2001).

As such, extensive research has been done about the link between employment stress and inventiveness (Eisenberg & Thompson, 2011; Sacramento, Fay & West, 2013).

Notwithstanding how culinary artistry is cultivated and performed (Slavich et al., 2014) knowhow is maybe the most vital part of expert ability (Zopiatis, 2010) which also lead to employment fulfillment and profession improvement (Ko, 2012). Past research revealed that albeit extended and unsociable working style were result to unhappiness, they were not prompt turnover motive (Robinson, 2005). Adversely, creativity, which depends on innovation in the kitchen, was found a factor to decrease the turnover intention if the gourmet specialists have the capacity and knowledge to innovate novel recipes that increase their willingness of the gourmet to work in the kitchen. (Lee-Ross, 2002). There is confirmation that creativity is identified with employment and work fulfillment and therefore Turnover Intention. (Robinson & Beesley, 2010). Based on this knowledge, the first hypothesis mentioned below was developed.

Hypothesis 1: Creativity has a negative relationship with the turnover intention.

The moderating role of work strain in the connection among creativity and turnover motive.

Work stress is presently from one of those subjects, which have been discussed for the most part far and wide since it impacts the specialists' mental capacities, by which they are not prepared to perform and serve their affiliations sufficiently (Hon, Wilco, & Lin, 2012). Work push not simply impacts the delegates' execution, yet it can be the purpose behind versatile negative outcomes, for instance, weariness, less support towards work, agent turnover, unfaithfulness and less quickness (Glazer & Beehr, 2005). Stress at the workplace too minimizes the limit of fundamental administration, in light of this specialists don't have enough motivation to take exercises moreover, settle on decisions free from any other person which will prompt to abatement representatives' innovativeness in the association.

However, A few different examiners have discovered confirmation of negative impact of work stress on creativity (e.g., Talbot, Cooper, & Barrow, 1992). Farr and Ford (1990) contend that stress

reduce creativity. As indicated by them, push brings about all around practiced conduct examples and it meddles with novel or creative reactions.

Other words, when representatives are influenced by stress, they are probably going to turn to frequent activities and for purpose creativity activities. These discoveries are predictable with the distraction arousal theory which expresses that individuals have a constrained measure of mental assets, and when under stress, they dedicate a portion of the assets to take care of stressors. Regarding to Byron et al (2010), this makes a circumstance where in individuals who are under stress are left with less cognitive resources for different task, for example, creative considering. Along these lines, when individuals are under stress in their organization, their inventive considerations are probably going to suffer.

Then again, Anderson, De Dreu, and Nijstad (2004), who led a survey of writing on creativity and development, contended that stress may enhance inattentiveness. In light of their discoveries, stress expands arousal which empowers the utilization of creative contemplation. Anderson et al. (2004) declare that when individuals are presented to stress, they take part in an engaged critical thinking system that prompts to improved imagination. Thus, stress improves creativity by making an interest for creative arrangements and by giving intellectual incitement. In view of the above discoveries, stress may either enhance or hinder creativity.

Hypothetically it can be isolated between testing stress and impediment. Testing stress fuses stressors which individuals lead them as opportunities to create and redesign their aptitudes and limits. Extended commitments and time weight are instances of this anxiety. In the separation, impediment stress is a sort of stress that individuals evaluate them harming and damaging for creating and overhauling their aptitudes and limits.

In any case, it is sensible to expect that individuals under anxiety may show lesser inventiveness more especially among lodging gourmet specialists. Mandler (1979) expressed that, Individuals under anxiety are most likely going as far as possible focus and speculation responses, frustrating inventiveness. High occupation push that accomplishes a lessening in occupation inventiveness is considered as a segment that impacts the delegate turnover goal astonishingly (Tiyce et al., 2013), from this conditions, work stretch has solid negative impact on imagination and which prompt to build representatives' turnover aim. Furthermore, as demonstrated by Chiang et al (2009), there is

demonstrate from the inn business which supports the interest request low assets of occupation strain; elevated work requests merged with nonappearance of mastery have been seemed to realize a lot of stress. Part strife, part equivocalness and work over-burden have been antagonistically related to occupation execution (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008) which will realize to reduce agents' inventiveness and interpersonal weight at job have been related with nonattendance of business innovativeness and elevated turnover desire. Turnover aim has been introduced among the elements which occur after persistent presentation to occupation push and attitudinal and perceptual changes in delegates (Albattat & Som, 2013).

Hypothetically, work push, particularly part uncertainty, part strife, and work over-burden) make negative scholarly enthusiastic states to overpower on agents by putting them under the weight and a while later through this lead them to decrease singular innovativeness and lead them to settle on behavioral decisions, for instance, turnover expectation (El Shikieri & Musa, 2012).

On the premise of above recommendations, the specialists of this paper expect that comparative results will hold in the inn business in light of lodging culinary expert. The impact of innovativeness on turnover expectation will be more grounded for lodging culinary experts with work worry than without work stretch. At the point when lodging cooks have a work stress, which is proportionate to reduction work imagination which straightforwardly increment turnover expectation.

Hypothesis 2: Work stress moderates the connection between creativity and turnover motive.

3.4 The moderating role of work fulfillment on the connection between artistry and turnover motive.

Work fulfillment has been portrayed as an enthusiastic stacked attitude in the audits. Locke (1976) portrayed work fulfillment as the positive energetic state happening in view of the assessment of one's occupation or business experiences. Spector (1997) described work fulfillment as "the attitudinal variable reviewing how people feel about their occupation or parts of their business.

Robins and Judge (2009) moreover described work fulfillment as a positive feeling about one's business happening in view of an appraisal of its qualities. As demonstrated by Chuang et al (2009), Job fulfillment for lodging culinary expert has been described as the significance of fulfillment

with eight elements of one's available place of business: the work itself; one's level of obligation; open entryways for improvement and affirmation; supervision; interpersonal associations; working conditions; pay and association technique. Zopiatis et al (2011) likewise expressed that the five most indispensable work related issues among lodging gourmet expert were manager security; cash related prizes and accidental favorable circumstances; increment by top organization, get ready and change and the way of work environment. Work fulfillment was most dumbfounding among lodging culinary experts performing in the cuisines of fine eating organizations who were directing in the region of 21 and 30 delegates (Chuang et al., 2009), and there was a hard relationship among work fulfillment and inventiveness and capacity, recommending that occupation fulfillment intervene the link among innovativeness and turnover desire (Robinson, 2005). Thusly, this examination will distinguish the directing part of employment fulfillment amongst imagination and turnover expectation. As it said above, there are a few observational confirmations which demonstrate that innovativeness has solid negative association with turnover goal. At the point when work fulfillments go about as a mediator variable amongst innovativeness and turnover goal the scientists hope to improve this association with arbitrator. In this manner, when inn gourmet expert has work fulfillment about their work which will prompt to expand their own particular imagination which is proportionate to decline turnover goal.

Hypothesis 3: Work satisfaction moderates the connection between creativity and turnover motive.

Methodology

4.1 Sample and Data Collection

Sampling will be utilized in this research since regarding to Judd et al (1991), sampling terms refers to pick cases that are judged to commonplace of the populace in which are intrigued, accepting that mistakes of judgment in the determination will tend to balance each other (p.136). The respondents will be full-time chefs' experts in the five-star hotel industry in Northern Cyprus. Before starting to data collection the researchers will get consent from hotel administration to get required in this review. As indicated by the recommendation of Perrewe et al (2002), the surveys' questionnaires will be created in English and after that back-translated Turkish by two phonetic specialists. 5 or 6 chefs will take part in the pilot study with a specific end goal to show study is completely justifiable. As a next progress, thirty seven questionnaires will be circulated to the respondents

through their particular front office (Reception). Finished surveys will be sealed in envelopes to make reactions unknown and secret.

This will make to lessen the potential risk of basic technique inclination from the proposition of Podsakoff et al (2003). Moreover, data will be assembled from inn gourmet expert master using two particular overviews with a period slack of one month to diminish the conceivable danger of basic technique predisposition. That is, this review will use the Time I and Time II polls that involved information about issues of anonymity and mystery. Such practice is perfect with the principles gave by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and other similar surveys (Karatepe, 2013). 4.2

Conceptual Model

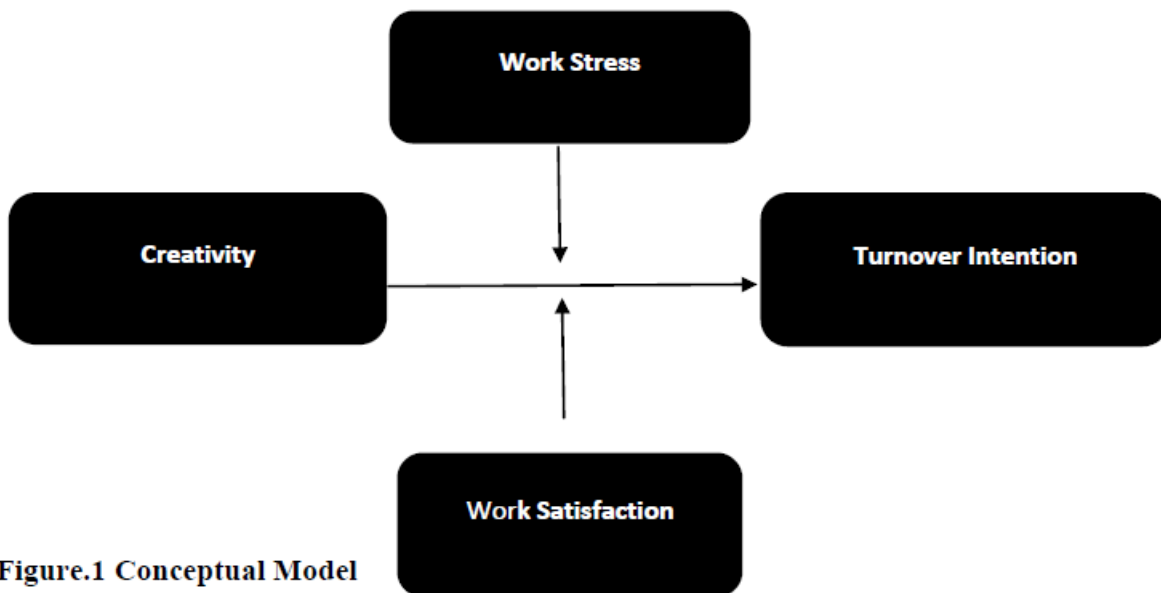


Figure.1 Conceptual Model

4.2 Measure

Figure 1 displays the theoretical model and theories to manage the present review. This applied model is produced and tried the impact of creativity on turnover intention among hotel chef in hotel industry. Furthermore, steady with this model, the directing part of work hindrance stress and work satisfaction are inspected in the relationship among creativity and turnover intention.

Innovativeness will be reviewed with a 13 thing culinary expert inventiveness scale (Murray-Gibbons & Gibbons, 2007) in light of past research (Tongchaiprasit&Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2014). The scale will consolidate of interpretations of innovativeness things relating four components: decision of occupation, socialization in one's occupation, work satisfaction and word related satisfaction (Robinson & Beesley, 2010). Appropriately, master delete three things from (1) absolutely differ to (7) thoroughly concur. Inventiveness scales with thing using a Likert scale going test things fuse 'innovativeness is invigorated'. Cronbach alpha coefficient for components ought to be more prominent than 0.70($\alpha > .70$). So as to test legitimacy and unwavering quality, specialists will apply exploratory element investigation with vital part of varimax turn with eigenvalue more noteworthy than 1.00 and cross-stacked can be drop amid EFA. Work satisfaction will be surveyed with an eight items work satisfaction scale. The scale incorporates intrinsic and outward parts of occupation satisfaction in the chef part, for example, work itself, obligation and development (Chuang et al, 2009). Respondents will make a request to show the degree to which they are happy with their employments from (1) very dissatisfy to (7) very satisfy.

Work stress will be overviewed with a 13-thing Chef Job Stress Scale. The scale is proposed to gauge parts of stress associated with the work of a culinary specialist (Murray-Gibbons & Gibbons, 2007). Respondents will make a demand to show how much everything was substantial for their occupation from (1) exceptionally untrue to (7) genuine. Work stress will score as the total of scores on each of the 13 things; high scores address high occupation stretch. Turnover intention will be evaluated by a two-item scale. These two items were taken from the Turnover Intention Scale (Ariya buddhiphongs & Marican, 2015);these asked how frequently the respondents contemplated leaving his or her present place of employment and how slanted he or she is leave this occupation in light of an option offer from an inn. Answers were given on Likert scales going from (1) always to (5) never.

Demographic variables will be used in this study contain gender, age, education, tenure, the researchers will use control variables because age or gender confound relationship among the study variables.

Data Analysis

The specialists of this paper will exhibit illustrative insights keeping in mind the end goal to

demonstrate the entire photo of all factors. What's more, this paper will lead Pearson connection investigation to test the relationship among autonomous, ward and control factors then direct various leveled numerous relapse to test hypotheses of this paper. The directing effects will test by method for the standards suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) and the scientists will bolster directing impact by Sobel test. Autonomous element will center going before to increase. In anticipating inventiveness, the control variable will enter in step 1, work stress will enter in step 2, work fulfillment will enter in step 3, and the intelligent term (innovativeness * work stress) and (imagination * work fulfillment) in step 4. With a specific end goal to make examine result more significant and simple to decipher, the specialists will focus constant variable first and after that register the collaboration term and gauge display.

Exploratory component examination (EFA) is utilized to "eviscerate interrelationships among a noteworthy number of factors and to clear up these components to the degree their typical basic estimations (fragments)" (Hair et al., 2010). In this overview, the measures were at first subjected to EFA utilizing key parts with varimax upset. Enduring quality for every component was assessed by technique for composite reliability (CR) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), (CR > 0.60). The internal consistency reliability was studied by technique for the generally perceived cut-off estimation of 0.70.

In supportive component examination (CFA), the ace must choose both the measure of parts that exist for a game-plan of components and which figure every variable will stack on before results can be enlisted (Hair et al, 2010). In the present review, all measures will be at risk to CFA through SPSS 22.0 to offer help for simultaneous and discriminant authenticity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981), fit records will be utilized to gage the model fit. The estimations of χ^2/df , GFI (Goodness of fit once-over), CFI (Comparative fit summary), RMSEA (Root mean square bumble figure), and SRMR (Standardized root mean square remaining) will be utilized to study the postponed outcomes of the fit bits of learning. The authorities will test essential methodology inclination issues. Consistent method slant will be checked with a validating segment examination way to deal with deal with Harman's singlecomponent test (Kandemir, Yaprak, & Cavusgil, 2006). With a particular ultimate objective to show data scattering, the researchers will apply skewness and kurtosis. Skewness insinuates symmetry of a scattering; kurtosis suggests peakedness of a transport.

This study would contribute the literature by providing the moderating effect of job satisfaction and work stress between the relationship of creativity and turnover intention. Also, this research is expected to add to the literature on the gourmet expert's positions and the way of the culinary expert's work and can be utilized to guide the management to enhance their working procedures in a way to appreciate the chef's efforts.

Conclusion

The review likewise would enthusiasm, as just few reviews directed among the culinary specialists working in the lodgings. The outcomes will give recommendations to directors by basic the significance of having fitness, innovative cooks fulfilled and keeping them inside their associations. Keeping great workers, will be valuable for the associations since discovering superb representatives is troublesome, exorbitant requires some serious energy, and furthermore it in the end prompts to consumer loyalty. This review will be helpful for the experts and for the experts working in culinary industry. For investigators this bit of work will demonstrate how work satisfaction and occupation affect the connection among imagination and turnover point. For directors, this audit will anticipated that would offer a demonstrate on the settings in which imagination is related to business satisfaction and lower turnover rationale and furthermore that work push debilitates the accommodating effects of innovativeness to quality the turnover point.

References

- Albattat, A. R.S., Albors-Garrigos, J., Barreto, V., Garcia-Segovia, P., Martinez-Monzo, J., Hervás-Oliver, J.L., (2013), Creativity and innovation patterns of haute cuisine chefs. *J. Culinary Sci. Technol.* 11, 19-35, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15428052.2012.728978>.
- Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 10, 123-167.
- Amabile, T. M., Barsade, S. G., Mueller, J. S., & Staw, B. M. (2005). Affect and creativity at work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 50(3), 367-403.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice e a review and recommended two step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411e423
- Anderson, N., De Dreu, C. K. W., & Nijstad, B. A. (2004). The routinization of innovation research: A constructively critical review of the state-of-the-science. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 147-173.
- Appelbaum, S.H., Iaconi, G.D., & Matousek, A. (2007). Positive and negative deviant workplace behaviors: causes, impacts, and solutions. *Corporate Governance*, 7(5), 586-598.

- Ariyabuddhiphongs, V., Marican, S., (2015), Big Five personality traits and turnover intention among Thai hotel employees. *Int. J. Hospitality Tourism Adm.* 16 (4),355-374, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15256480.2015.1090257>.
- Aryee, S., Zhou, Q., Sun, L. Y., & Lo, S. (2009). Perceptions of politics, intrinsic motivation and creative performance: Evidence from the service sector. In *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings* (pp. 1-6).
- Aydogdu, S. and Asikgil, B. (2011), An empirical study of the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intentions, *International Review of Management and Marketing*, Vol. 1 No. 3, pp. 43-53.
- Balazs, K., (2001). Some like it haute: leadership lessons from France's great chefs.*Organ. Dyn.* 30 (2), 134-148, [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616\(01\)00048-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0090-2616(01)00048-1).
- Bandura, A., (1986), *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Barrere, C., (2013), Heritage as a basis for creativity in creative industries: the case of taste industries. *Mind Soc.* 12 (1), 167-176, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11299-013-0122-8>.
- Byron, K., Khazanchi, Shalini, Nazarian, & Deborah. (2010). The relationship between stressors and creativity: A meta-analysis examining competing theoretical models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 201-212.
- Bouty, I., Gomez, M.-L., (2013), Creativity in haute cuisine: strategic knowledge and practice in gourmet kitchens. *J. Culinary Sci. Technol.* 11 (1), 80-95, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15428052.2012.728979>.
- Chuang, N.-K., Lei, S.A., (2011) Job stress among casino hotel chefs in a top tier tourism city. *J. HospitalityMark. Manage.* 20 (5), 551-574, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2011.570642>.
- Chuang, N.-K., Yin, D., Dellmann-Jenkins, M., (2009) Intrinsic and extrinsic factors impacting casino hotel chefs' job satisfaction. *Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage.* 21 (3), 323-340, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596110910948323>.
- Eisenberg, J., & Thompson, W.F. (2011). The effects of competition on improvisers' motivation, stress, and creative performance. *Creativity Research Journal*, 23(2), 129-136.
- El Shikieri, A. B., & Musa, H. A. (2012). Factors associated with occupational stress and their effects on organizational performance in a Sudanese university. *Creative Education*, 3(1), 134-144.
- Farr, J. L., & Ford, C. M. (1990). Individual innovation. In M. A. West, & J. L. Farr (Eds.), *Innovation and Creativity at Work*, (pp. 63-80), Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- George, J. M. (2007). Creativity in organizations. *Academy of Management Annals*, 1, 439e477. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/078559814>
- Glazer, S., & Beehr, T. A. (2005). Consistency of implications of three role stressors across four countries. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 467-487
- Hon, A. H., Wilco, W. C., & Lin, L. (2012). Overcoming work-related stress and promoting

- employee creativity in hotel industry: The role of task feedback from supervisor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 416-424. Retrieved 2015
- Horng, J.-S., Hu, M.-L., 2008. The mystery in the kitchen: culinary creativity. *Creativity Res. J.* 20 (2), 221-230, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10400410802060166>.
- Karatepe, O.M. (2012). The effects of coworker and perceived organizational support on hotel Employee outcomes: the moderating role of job embeddedness, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, Vol. 36 No. 4, pp. 495-516.
- Jang, J. & George, R.T. (2012), Understanding the influence of polychronicity on job satisfaction and turnover intentions: a study of non-supervisory hotel employees, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 588-595.
- Judd, C.M., Smith, E.R. & Kidder, L.H. (1991), *Research Methods in Social Relations*, 6th ed., Rinehart and Winston, Holt, Fort Worth, TX
- Karatepe, O.M. (2013). High-performance work practices, work social support and their effects on job embeddedness and turnover intentions, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 25 No. 6, pp. 903-921.
- Karatepe, O.M., & Uludag, O., (2008) Role stress, burnout and their effects on frontline hotel employees' job performance: evidence from Northern Cyprus. *Int. J. Tourism Res.* 10 (2), 111-126, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jtr.645>.
- Kim, H.J., Shin, K.H. & Swanger, N. (2009), Burnout and engagement: a comparative analysis using the big five personality dimensions, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 96-104.
- Kim, W., Brymer, R.A., (2011), The effects of ethical leadership on manager job satisfaction, commitment, behavioral outcomes, and firm performance. *IJHM* 30 (4), 1020-1026.
- Kline, R.B., (2005). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling*, seconded. The Guilford Press, New York, NY
- Ko, W.-H., (2012), The relationships among professional competence, job satisfaction and career development confidence for chefs in Taiwan. *Int. J. Hospitality Manage.* 31 (3), 1004-1011, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/uihm.2011.12.004>.
- Lee-Ross, D., (2002). An exploratory study of work motivation among private and public sector hospital chefs in Australia. *J. Manage. Dev.* 21 (8), 576-588, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02621710210437554>.
- Locke, E.A. (1976), 'The nature and causes of job satisfaction', in Dunnette, M.D. (Ed), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational psychology*, McGraw-Hill, New York, pp.1297-1349
- M., (2009) Intrinsic and extrinsic factors impacting casino hotel chefs' job satisfaction. *Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage.* 21 (3), 323-340, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596110910948323>.
- Mandler, G. (1979). Thought processes, consciousness and stress. In V. Hamilton & D.M. Warburton (Eds.), *Human Stress and Cognition*. (pp. 180-202). Chichester, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Mohsin, A., & Lockyer, T. (2010). Customer perceptions of service quality in luxury hotels in New

- Delhi, India: an exploratory study. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(2e3), 160e173. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596111011018160>.
- Murray-Gibbons, R., & Gibbons, C., (2007). Occupational stress in the chef profession. *Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage.* 19 (1), 32-42, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596110710724143>
- Peng, K.-L., Lin, M.-C., & Baum, T., (2013). The constructing model of culinary creativity: an approach of mixed methods. *Qual. Quantity* 47 (5), 2687-2707, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11135-012-9680-9>.
- Perrewe, P. L., Hochwarter, W. A., Rossi, A. M., Wallace, A., Maignan, I., Castro, S. L., & Deusen, V. C. A. (2002). Are Work Stress Relationships Universal? A Nine-Region Examination of Role Stressors, General Self-Efficacy, and Burnout. *Journal of International Management*, 8, 163-187.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 88 (5), 879-903.
- Prabhu, V., Sutton, C., & Sauser, W. (2008). Creativity and certain personality traits: Understanding the mediating effect of intrinsic motivation. *Creativity Research Journal*, 20(1), 53-66.
- Pratten, J.D., 2003a. The training and retention of chefs. *Int. J. Contemp. HospitalityManage.* 15 (4), 237, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596110310475702>.
- Pratten, J.D., 2003b. What makes a great chef? *Br. Food J.* 105 (7), 454-459, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00070700310497255>.
- Robbin, S. P. and Judge, T. A. (2009), *Organizational Behavior*, 13th Edition, San Diego state University, ISBN13:9780136007173
- Robinson, R.N.S., (2005) Tradesperson or artist? A critical exploration of chefs' job satisfaction and turnover. *Tourism: Int. Interdiscip. J.* 53 (4), 347-355.
- Robinson, R.N.S., Beesley, L.G., (2010) Linkages between creativity and intention to quit: an occupational study of chefs. *Tourism Manage.* 31 (6), 765-776, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.08.003>.
- Sacramento, C. A., Fay, F., & West, M. A. (2013). Workplace duties or opportunities? Challenge stressors, regulatory focus, and creativity. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 121(2), 141-157.
- Simons, T. and Hinkin, T. (2001), "Turnover on hotel profits: a test across multiple hotels", *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration*, Vol. 42 No. 4, pp. 65-69.
- Slavich, B., Cappetta, R., Salvemini, S., (2014), Creativity and the reproduction of cultural products: the experience of Italian haute cuisine chefs. *Int. J. Arts Manage.* 16 (2), 29-41.
- Som, A.P.M. (2013). Employee Dissatisfaction and Turnover Crises in the Malaysian Hospitality Industry. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8 (5): 62-71.
- Spector, P.E. (1997) *Job satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences*, Sage publication, Inc.,

- Stierand, M.B., Dorfler, V., (2012), reflecting on a phenomenological study of creativity and innovation in haute cuisine. *Int. J. Contemp. Hospitality Manage.* 24 (6), 946-957, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09596111211247254>.
- Stierand, M., Dorfler, V., MacBryde, J., (2014), Creativity and innovation in haute cuisine: towards a systemic model. *Creativity Innov. Manage.* 23 (1), 15-28, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/caim.12050>.
- Talbot, R., Cooper, C., & Barrow, S. (1992). Creativity and stress. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 1(4), 183-193.
- Tiyye, M, Hing, N, Cairncross, G & Breen, H (2013), Employee stress and stressors in gambling and hospitality workplaces, *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 126-154.
- Tongchaiprasit, P. & Ariyabuddhiphongs, V (2014), Creativity and turnover intention among hotel chef: The mediating effects of job satisfaction and job stress, *International Journal of Hospitality management*, Thailand, Bangkok.
- Zopiatis, A., (2010). Is it art or science? Chef's competencies for success. *Int. J. Hospitality Manage.* 29 (3), 459-467, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2009.12.003>.

THE POSITIONING OF SMALL- AND MEDIUM-SIZED RETAIL TRAVEL AGENCIES IN HONG KONG

Dr. [Barry Mak](#) School of Hotel and Tourism Management The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
19 Science Museum Road, TST East, Kowloon, Hong Kong.

Dr. [Edic Sun](#) The Compass College, 6-7/F, CIGNA Tower, 482 Jaffe Road, Causeway Bay, Hong
Kong.

ABSTRACT

Travel agencies are significantly affected by the changing economic, technical, and social environments. Are small- and medium-sized travel agencies in Hong Kong able to adopt and benefit from strategies suggested by Buhalis (1998) and Tse (2003)? 11 in-depth interviews with owners/managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) were conducted. Results revealed that micro-sized agencies mainly contribute to primary activities by adding value to sales, marketing, and servicing activities. The limited resources of such agencies restrict them from fully benefiting by adopting either a cost leadership or differentiation strategy under Porter's (1985) generic strategy framework.

Key Words: Travel Agency, Travel Management Company, Small- and Medium-Enterprise, Micro-sized Retailer INTRODUCTION

Distribution, transaction, and communication are the three fundamental marketing functions of an intermediary (Peterson et al., 1997). As intermediaries, travel agencies, particularly small- and medium-sized retail travel agencies, are significantly affected by the changing economic, technical, and social environments because their limited resources prevent them from responding to changes in a timely and flexible manner. The introduction of electronic distribution (e-distribution) channels has facilitated a change in the airline commission structure. Moreover, the increasing number of tourism products and changing customer preferences has forced travel agencies to adopt changes to survive in the marketplace. The gradual change in the role and structure of travel agencies has decreased the core commission income received by these agencies from airlines (Alamdari, 2002). This development has resulted in complexities to the business environment, particularly in terms of the

role and distribution function of travel agencies. Without the Internet, travel agencies act as intermediaries and provide technical functions in confirming and proceeding to book hotels, airlines, and other travel products (Clemons & Row, 1991). With the emergence of online systems and e-distribution networks, online travel companies have complicated the relationships among stakeholders in the traditional travel business setting. A high professional service level provided by travel agencies is believed to generate a high level of satisfaction among travelers. The success of travel agencies in responding to changes should enhance their role when they act as consultants instead of middlemen. The evolution of the travel business environment has been discussed extensively in research on disintermediation and reintermediation in the tourism industry (DiLeva, 2005; Lee et al., 2011; McCubbrey, 1999; Tse, 2003). Travel agencies still find means to survive in the market despite the rapid changes, particularly, the complexities brought by online travel.

On one hand, Porter's (1985) value chain framework serves as a good analytical tool to examine how travel agencies add value to the market, and consequently, obtain profit. On the other hand, Porter's generic business-level strategies are the dominant paradigm in business policy literature. Porter (1985) indicated that generic strategies represent fundamentally different approaches to creating and sustaining competitive advantage. A firm should focus its business direction by selecting the best option, thus avoiding stagnation. Could travel agencies strive either for overall cost leadership by minimizing their operation costs or for differentiation by providing professional services to gain product quality leadership? Furthermore, concentrating on market niches may yield a successful strategic position (Toyne & Walters, 1993). What are the best strategies for travel agencies? Buhalis (1998) suggested two strategic directions that travel agencies can follow. The first direction is to offer differentiation by designing high-quality, personalized travel arrangements for which consumers are willing to pay a premium. The second direction is to offer less expensive products through standardization, high volume, and consolidation. Similarly, Tse (2003) provided two directions for long-term development of traditional agencies. The first direction involves focusing on developing their strengths either by improving their efficiency as low-cost agencies through the Internet or by pushing hotel and airline bookings with their online platforms similar to other off-line agencies. The second direction involves developing a different business approach and being a professional. Tse (2003) suggested adding a value to the travel experience of clients by providing travel advice, enhancing loyalty through high customer satisfaction, and customizing tour products by bundling tourism services according to the personal needs of customers. However, travel agencies face

constraints and limitations in adopting the aforementioned options; will these approaches allow agencies to sustain long-term development?

A number of previous studies on travel agencies have used the generic term “travel agencies” or “traditional agencies” to conclude their findings. However, they did not specify the types of agencies involved. Such studies are believed to be referring to different types of agencies. For example, an incoming travel agency can be referred to or defined as an incoming agency, an inbound agency, an incoming tour operator, a ground operator, a handling agency, or a receiving agency (Buhalis & Laws, 2001).

One concern of agencies is ensuring the immediate availability of supplier products in the marketplace. Given that agencies have access to supplier stock through reservation systems, efficiency is important. Instant access to data or information allows agencies to share the booking process with customers to reinforce the buying decision of the latter. Travelers can purchase all-inclusive tours or any individual tourism service component from retail travel agencies, whose transactions with customers are purely based on the service of arranging required components such as airlines, hotels, or theme parks, however, retail travel agencies are not involved in the operation of the physical product. Hence, adding a value and facilitating transactions in an effective manner are the keys to their survival. A good business model that comprises several settings or strategies to generate business allows travel agencies to sustain their business for long-term development. Upgrading and retaining competitive strength in the marketplace can be achieved by deploying and building a mechanism to protect advantages, thus enhancing sustainability level. Within the entire value system, travel agencies focus on the operating cost and the final selling price of products or services because a certain value is available within the value chain. To obtain a desirable profit margin, travel agencies must determine how to spread cost and profit across suppliers, producers, distributors, customers, and other elements of the value system effectively and efficiently. This research primarily focuses on investigating the evolving travel business environment, as well as the issues and constraints related to the development of the travel agency industry in Hong Kong. This study also suggests a long-term strategic approach by formulating a business strategy for small- and medium-sized travel agencies in Hong Kong.

LITERATURE REVIEW

All travel companies must adapt and respond in a timely and flexible manner to technical, economic, and social changes to survive and operate effectively. Travel and tourism are fragmented, information-oriented industries, and thus, are highly receptive to the benefits of the Internet (Weaver & Lawton, 2007). Adopting e-business, which can be considered as a type of technological innovation (Srinivasan et al., 2002), poses both opportunities and challenges to inter-organizational relations (Lichtenthal & Eliaz, 2003) and business strategies (Varadarajan & Yadav, 2002). A sound business model, which comprises several settings or formulas to generate business, allows travel agencies to sustain their operations for long-term development similar to what other businesses do. Upgrading and retaining competitive strength in the marketplace can be achieved by deploying and building a mechanism to protect advantages, thus enhancing sustainability level. The extensive applications of the Internet and e-distribution systems have changed the nature of the business structure and the role of travel agencies. A number of small and artificially protected niche players are dislodged, whereas others that have entered new markets are performing well (Clemons, 1986). Many believe that changes and uncertainties will continue to occur.

A company that can differentiate its products or services is believed to be capable of exceeding the performance of its rivals. Creating a competitive advantage allows a company to deliver great value to customers, as well as create a comparable value at a lower cost, or both (Porter, 1985). Outperforming in terms of delivering great value does not only provide the opportunity to charge a high average unit price but also allows the company to increase the level of efficiency by reducing average unit cost, thus achieving a superior margin in return. The competitive positioning that a firm chooses to occupy reflects a combination of its choice of target market and the differential advantage it seeks to create as a means to secure that market (Chacko, 1996). Such process requires a clear view of the target market and customer requirements, along with creating unique products and services to offer to the target market.

Similar to other open system sectors, tourism and hospitality organizations commonly engage in strategic planning as a means to gain competitive advantage in an increasingly uncertain, dynamic, and complex world (Harrison, 2003; Jogaratnam & Law, 2006). The fundamental function or core value of a TC is to function as a middleman by providing value-added services to tourism service providers and customers. Travelers can purchase the entire tour product or any individual service

from a retail travel agency. Travel agencies have realized the increasing use of the Internet in place of traditional face-to-face contact and additional challenges resulting from the demise of commission-based businesses. The travel industry is a fragile business that can be affected by numerous factors such as the economy, seasons, and man-made or natural disasters. According to Stalk (1998), the effectiveness of an organization is significantly related to its operating cost. Operational effectiveness implies superior performance of similar activities that is not limited to efficiency. The term “efficiency” refers to utilizing organizational resources at the right time for the right product, thus reducing defects or developing improved products at a fast rate. By contrast, strategic positioning implies performing activities that differ from those of competitors or performing similar activities in different manners.

As stated in the introduction, small- and medium-sized retail travel agencies are significantly affected by the changing economic, technical, and social environments because of their limited resources prevent them from responding to changes in a timely and flexible manner. To look at how small retail business in utilizing organizational resources to create value for their clients at the right time for the right product, it is crucial to identify the competitive advantages of the small retail travel agency in Hong Kong by examining their available resources. A resource-based view emphasizes a firm utilizes its resources and capabilities to create a competitive advantage that ultimately results in superior value creation (Hughes & Morgan, 2007). According to the resource-based view, in order to develop a competitive advantage the firm must have resources and capabilities that are superior to those of its competitors. Without this superiority, the competitors simply could replicate what the firm was doing and any advantage quickly would disappear.

From the concept of competition advantages from resources based view, to further examine the appropriate strategies for the identified core competence, i.e. cost advantage or differentiation, Porter’s (1985) generic business-level strategies is an appropriate tool to further look at the two different strategic positions, Porter’s generic strategies are a dominant paradigm in business and a different approach to creating and sustaining competitive advantage. A firm should focus its business direction by selecting the best option, thus avoiding stagnation. Travel agencies may either strive for an overall cost leadership by minimizing their operational cost or may differentiate themselves by providing professional service to obtain product quality leadership. Concentrating on market niches may yield a successful strategic position (Toyne & Walters, 1993). Porter’s (1985) generic

competitive strategies have become the foundation of many successful businesses.

Cost leadership means enjoying the lowest operational cost by using high technology and producing highly standardized products in an industry. Cost leadership is driven by company efficiency, size, scale, scope, and cumulative experience.

Differentiation relies on the unique resources of a firm and the capabilities of a firm to produce products with unique features and characteristics that are difficult to imitate, thus allowing a firm to charge premium prices and earn above-average returns.

Focused niche (market segmentation) indicates focus on a few target markets with specialized needs. The choice of offering low prices or differentiated products depends on the needs of the selected segment, as well as on the resources and capabilities of a firm. A firm typically seeks to gain competitive advantage through product innovation or brand marketing rather than through efficiency.

These three strategies fall into two basic categories, namely, low cost and product uniqueness competencies. Cost leadership and differentiation are applicable in a broad market scope, whereas a focused niche is applicable in a narrow market scope; however, Porter (1985) said that success in a focused niche can be achieved either through cost leadership or differentiation. Thus, cost leadership and differentiation are the two basic strategies in Porter's typology. The following discussions focus on cost leadership and differentiation that are used to evaluate the adoption of each strategy by travel agencies.

METHODOLOGY

This research is a cross-sectional study conducted to examine the current operation environment of small- and medium-sized travel agencies and to evaluate the relationship between tourism service suppliers and retail travel agencies in Hong Kong. This study also aims to analyze value-adding activities in the travel agency industry and to examine the validity of the development framework suggested by Buhalis (1998) and Tse (2003). The methods used to access information and formulate business strategies are critical. The research targets include all 1,652 registered travel agencies in Hong Kong. Corroborating evidence from various methods is important to obtain a good picture that reflects the entire industry. A productive result is expected when data are obtained from experts who have accumulated both operational and managerial experiences from the industry.

According to Renzetti and Lee (1993), in-depth and relatively free-flowing interviews are mostly employed to investigate subjective feelings. One-on-one and face-to-face in-depth interviews are particularly appropriate to address sensitive topics that people may be reluctant to discuss in a group setting to obtain rich information effectively. Moreover, the objectives of the current study are based from a management perspective; therefore, probing questions are useful to uncover hidden issues that are occurring in the industry. The researchers conducted convenience sampling to identify the interviewees, followed by snowball sampling at a later stage to minimize researchers' bias. In purposive sampling, the researchers decided when sufficient participants or units have been sampled, which typically occurs when redundancy with regard to data is observed. This study initially targeted 8 to 10 interviews with experienced industry experts. The number could be increased when the outcomes of the pre-set targets failed to generate satisfactory results or produce quality findings. On one side, the convenience sampling might create bias. On the other side, to obtain a quality feedback from the interviewees is equally important for the study. With the previous industry experience, researchers were able to identify a number of interviewees that have a mutual trust, and they are able to discuss the related topics under a more open and trustworthy prospective, which enable to generate a more precise information that are reflecting the reality of the industry. At the meantime, several basic criteria must also be satisfied in recruiting qualified interviewees. These criteria are as follows: (1) Qualified interviewees should be currently involved in the travel agency business on a full-time basis; (2) they should have a minimum of five years experience in the industry, with at least three years in a managerial position; (3) they should be working in a small- or medium-sized travel agency; and (4) they can be the owner, an employee, or both.

All interviews were arranged in advance. The preferred venue was the office of the interviewee, and the interviews were conducted after office hours to minimize disturbance. The researchers explained the purpose of recording the discussion to the interviewees in detail. The interviewees were assured that the recorded information would only be used for the study. All interviewees were free to expand on the topic as they see fit and to relate their own experiences. Cantonese was the main language used during the interviews, and conversations during the interviews were audio recorded. Each semi-structured interview lasted for approximately 60 to 90 minutes. All dialogues were translated directly into English, and full transcripts were prepared after the interviews. Telephone calls to the interviewees were made when unclear or doubtful areas need to be clarified to ensure validity of information. The transcripts were further checked and verified by the interviewees when unclear areas

remained after the telephone calls. When all transcripts were verified and ready, content analysis was conducted. Eleven travel industry employees were interviewed between August 2012 and May 2013. Nine of the interviewees are from retail agencies, whereas two are from wholesalers. Two of the retail agency employees are managers, whereas the remaining seven assume a dual role of owner-manager. These nine interviewees are in micro-sized retail operations.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Incorporating value-added activities into the distribution system with minimal cost while obtaining a profit margin has become crucial in the travel agency business environment, Porter (1985) posited that firms can adopt cost leadership, differentiation, or niche strategies to build their competitive advantage, and that their core competence can be examined through value-added activities in the value chain. The findings of this paper confirm that the selling prices of micro-sized retail agencies for most tourism products are comparable with promotions from different sources in the Internet. With easy access to online information, customers are becoming increasingly knowledgeable regarding prices; therefore, travel agencies have to make compromises with their profit margin to keep up with the competitive market. Travel agencies should exert extra effort in improving their services to generate profit while coming up with possible means to minimize operational costs to sustain their businesses. It can be predicted that the situation will further put pressure on travel agencies in Hong Kong to adopt the fee-based model, at the meantime, to build a less professional status for the industry.

Micro-sized retail agencies are not involved in processing tourism products; moreover, creating support activities entails additional costs in operations. Thus, micro-sized retail agencies mainly add value to human resource management and procurement in support activities. Simultaneously, they contribute and add value to services, as well as to sales and marketing tasks in primary activities. Finding effective means to minimize cost in these areas can help increase profit. Small-scale operations allow micro-sized agencies to minimize their running cost; this observation most likely explains why over 90% of travel agencies in Hong Kong are micro-sized. A simple organizational structure enhances effective operations for owner-managers, and high flexibility in terms of recruiting TCs helps lower cost and maximizes productivity. Moreover, product development and innovation can be expensive and risky for travel agencies, particularly for micro-sized businesses. Most owner-managers are more involved in selling popular products from wholesalers than in launching their own

products. Some agencies have attempted to create unique segments that involve product development during their early stage. However, once the product themes and models were developed, they failed to push through because of lack of innovation. Micro-sized retail agencies are also not too involved in creating value-added services for tourism products. Instead, they benefit from minimizing operating costs by selling inventories of either existing or new products from wholesalers. The scenario for micro-sized retail agencies that mainly contribute in the primary activities also labeled them at the operation level, but not heavily involved in the strategic level from the industry prospective. Their role, to a certain extent, is fragile and replaceable if substitutions are available. This also illustrated why most of the interviewees claimed that there are more threats than opportunities for them in the near future.

Instead of creating and launching new products, retail agencies add value to tourism products in support activities through other means. Their clients typically require a wide range of services and products based on their specific needs. To a certain extent, each itinerary is unique, thus indicating that it is not a standard package that is available in the mass market. This scenario also provides many business opportunities for retail agencies. A TC has to know the preferences of their clients, determine the most suitable combinations from available options to match these needs, and input every detail for each booking based on the final decision of the client. This task is time consuming and tedious, and requires TCs with an eye for details to follow up and follow through because a small mistake can spoil the entire trip. For example, a single letter mistakenly typed in the guest name can result in problems during flight and hotel check-ins. Aside from flexibility in bookings, clients can also seek assistance from their travel agency if their bookings are made through TCs.

A great travel experience, particularly for leisure travel, is important to any traveler. Travel agencies or TCs can add value to this area the most. TCs for micro-sized agencies do not only ensure that tour elements are in order but also have to be on 24-hour stand by for their clients to provide service or emergency assistance. Although service is not a guarantee, TCs are willing to offer assistance to their clients through immediate communication with their mobile phone. Such instant human touch can be more helpful than going online to confirm bookings made through OTA platforms. When the number of elements or activities included in the itinerary of a traveler is high, then the chance for errors is also high; that is, travelers are at high risk of encountering a negative experience. TCs should exert additional effort to consolidate all required information for bookings, which entails interactive

communication with clients to fine-tune and finalize the itinerary. After noting client preferences, TCs can also add value to their services by sharing their personal experience and tourism knowledge. When TCs are knowledgeable, they become trustworthy to their clients. Moreover, TCs can establish a high level of professionalism. When rate structures, policies, procedures, and the global environment for tourism-related services and products are complicated, the value of TCs and the benefit of their consultative role to the distribution system increase. To enhance the capability in managing the client profiles, micro-sized retail agencies should develop a more effective system to manage their client's data, and consider the applications of the customer relationship management tactics by applying less expensive IT software programs.

As identified earlier, OTAs and TMCs are two business models that adopt cost leadership and differentiation strategies, respectively, to build their core competence. OTAs enjoy economies of scale and are cost-driven, thus allowing them to utilize IT, whereas TMCs focus on their professional services. The findings from the interviews show that micro-sized retail agencies do not minimize their cost by adopting IT, which may be related to their small-scale operations and limited resources. Instead, they minimize running cost by operating in small offices in second-tier commercial buildings and by recruiting TCs under consignee or profit-sharing modes. Micro-sized agencies also emphasize effective and quality services as their core competence in conducting business with their client base. To a certain extent, micro-sized retail agencies do not only focus on cost-driven strategy but also adopt differentiation or niche strategies to build their core competence, such as operating in a small office in a second-tier commercial building and serving a small number of clients. However, this method is not explicitly articulated in their operating strategy.

From Porter's (1980) generic strategies, Porter stressed the idea that only one strategy should be adopted by a firm and failure to do so will result in "stuck in the middle" scenario. Porter suggested combining multiple strategies is successful in only one case. Combining a market segmentation strategy with a product differentiation strategy was seen as an effective way of matching a firm's product strategy (supply side) to the characteristics of the target market segments (demand side). But combinations like cost leadership with product differentiation were seen as hard, but not impossible, to implement due to the potential for conflict between cost minimization and the additional cost of value-added differentiation. However, contrarily to the rationalization of Porter, Hambrick (1983) has shown evidence of successful firms practicing such a "hybrid strategy". The findings of the study

indicated that the limited resources of the micro-sized retail travel agencies in Hong Kong are not fully benefit from adopting either a cost leadership or differentiation strategy under Porter's (1985) generic strategy framework, but adopting the hybrid strategy to survive in the market place.

The findings confirm that although owner-managers do not have official written plans, most of them have already figured out and recognized opportunities in the marketplace and have set their business direction toward their target market based on their knowledge, experience, and available resources. Despite the increasing number of travel agencies as well as the evolving roles and functions of different agencies in the market, the role of middlemen remains and continues in the travel business. Micro-sized retail agencies still focus on serving their unique client base, with each agency occupying a tiny percentage in market shares. These agencies coordinate and work between wholesalers and end users for a profit, do not build a fiduciary relationship with either party, and gain a non-significant level of professional image in the tourism industry.

REFERENCES

- Alamdari, F. (2002). Regional development in airlines and travel agencies relationship. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 8(5), 339-348.
- Buhalis, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 19(5), 409-421.
- Buhalis, D. & Laws, E. (2001). *Tourism Distribution Channels: Practices, Issues and Transformations*, Continuum, London.
- Chacko, H. (1996). Positioning a tourism destination to gain a competitive edge, *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 69-75.
- Clemons, E. (1986). Information Systems for Sustainable Competitive Advantage, *Information & Management*, 11 (3), 131-136.
- Clemons, E.K. & Row, M.C. (1991). Information Technology at Rosenbluth Travel: Competitive Advantage in a Rapidly Growing Global Service Company, *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 8(2), 53-79.
- DiLeva, M. (2005). Coping with commoditization and disintermediation: Riding the second wave of the online booking life cycle requires differentiation, *Information Technology in Hospitality*, 4(2), 121-124.
- Harrison, J. (2003). Strategic analysis for the hospitality industry. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(2), 139-152.
- Hughes, P. & Morgan, R. (2007) "A resource-advantage perspective of product-market strategy performance & strategic capital in high technology firms", *Industrial Marketing Management*, 36(4) 503-517.

- Jogarathnam, G., & Law, R. (2006). Environmental scanning and information source utilization: Exploring the behavior of Hong Kong hotel and tourism executives. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 30(2), 170-190.
- Lee, C. H., Eze, U., & Nelson, O. (2011). Analyzing key determinants of online repurchase intentions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics* 23(2) 200-221.
- Lichtenthal, J. D., & Eliaz, S. (2003). Internet integration in business marketing tactics. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 32(1), 3-13.
- Mccubbrey, D. (1999). Disintermediation and reintermediation in the U.S. air travel distribution industry. *Communications of AIS*, 1(5), 3.
- Peterson, R.A., Balasubramanian, S., & Bronnenberg, B.J. (1997). Exploring the implications of the internet for consumer marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 25 (4), 329-346.
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *Competitive advantage*. New York: Free Press.
- Renzetti, C.M. & Lee, R.M. (1993). *Researching Sensitive Topics*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Stalk, G. (1998). Time - The Next Source of Competitive Advantage, *Harvard Business Review* p 41. (Online) retrieved Apr 15, 2012 from <http://www.rotman.utoronto.ca/~baum/workshop/Stalk%20--%20Time%20HBR%201988.pdf>
- Srinivasan, R., Lilien, G. L., & Rangaswamy, A. (2002). Technological opportunism and radical technology adoption: an application to e-business. *Journal of Marketing*, 66(3), 47-60.
- Toyne, B. & Walters, P.G.P. (1993). *Global Marketing Management: A Strategic Perspective* (2nd ed.), Allyn & Bacon, Boston, MA.
- Tse, A. (2003). Disintermediation of travel agencies in the hotel industry. *Hospitality Management* 22, 453 - 460.
- Varadarajan, P. R., & Yadav, M. S. (2002). Marketing strategy and the Internet: an organizing framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(4), 296-312.
- Weaver, D. B., & Lawton, L. J. (2007). Not just surviving, but thriving: perceived strengths of successful US-based travel agencies. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10(1), 41-53.

A QUALITATIVE STUDY ON ECOTOURISM EXPERIENCE IN CHINA

Ting Li, Fang Liu and Juanyi Liu
University of Western Australia

ABSTRACT

Creating positive tourist experience is vital for the tourism industry. A qualitative study was designed to reveal the memorable ecotourism experiences among Chinese ecotourists. The study has identified a number of key dimensions of ecotourism experience. The influence of ecotourism experience on future ecotourism visits is also discussed.

Key Words: tourism, ecotourism, experience, qualitative, China.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a complex phenomenon, involving a broad range of people seeking vastly different experiences for a variety of reasons (Cheal & Griffin, 2013). Experience has received considerable attention in marketing and tourism since the 1990s. Prior to this, research had focused on a product's functional attributes, rather than on its behavioral or psychological aspects, such as the consumption experience (Brakus et al., 2009). Functional attributes are often easily substituted and outperformed by competitors, whereas experience is hard to substitute, as it is unique and attached to each consumer (Schmitt, 1999). Indeed, some believe we have entered an experience economy and that organisations will fail if they cannot provide positive consumer experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). However, there is little agreement about what experience is, how it should be measured or what its outcomes are in marketing or in tourism.

Creating positive experience is vital for any industry, but especially for tourism, which provides mainly service offerings (Ryan, 1997, 2000). In the service sector, experience is extremely important as subjective personal experience leads to customer loyalty and satisfaction (Yuan, 2009). Ecotourism, which is a relatively new sector in tourism, has been defined as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains local development (International Ecotourism Society, 2016). Ecotourism also has an educational role that teaches environmental

protection (Blamey, 1997). Despite its importance, experience-related research in ecotourism is limited. One important study by Ryan et al. (2000) suggested ecotourism experience is more affective and hedonistic than it is cognitive. However, Staus and Falk (2013) argued ecotourism experience does have cognitive aspects, suggesting more research is needed to determine which the case is.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite the arguments over the definition of experience, it is generally agreed that experience is a multi-dimensional construct. Pine and Gilmore (1998) suggested there were four consumer experience aspects (entertainment, education, escapism, and aesthetic, or the 4Es). The four aspects are related to two dimensions (participation and connection). Entertainment and aesthetic are at the left end of the participation spectrum, so such experiences are “passive” participation and consumers engaged in these two types of experiences are observers or listeners. Consumers who experience education and escapism are called “active” participators. Further, aesthetic and escapist experiences are more closely linked to immersion (i.e. high connection), so consumers who are engaged more in aesthetic and escapist experiences are more immersed than those who are engaged in education or entertainment experiences. The escapist component, which is both active participation and immersion, is often referred to as a flow experience (McLellan, 2000). Pine and Gilmore’s (1998) paper was conceptual. However, measures have been developed to measure the four experience dimensions (Oh et al., 2007; Jeong et al., 2009).

Schmitt (1999) suggested another experience framework was that had sense, feeling, thinking and acting aspects. Schmitt’s (1999) framework is similar to Dewey’s (1938) suggestion that experience involves perceiving (through the senses), feeling and doing (acting). Schmitt (1999) extended Dewey’s framework by adding cognitive (thinking) and social (relating) aspects. Schmitt’s (1999) classification has attracted considerable attention (e.g., Brakus et al., 2009).

Both Pine and Gilmore’s (1998) experience framework and Schmitt’s (1999) experience framework have been applied in tourism (e.g., Hosany & Witham, 2009; Loureiro, 2014).

RESEARCH METHOD, ANALYSES & RESULTS

This study adopted a qualitative research method using in-depth interviews. Participants were recruited through a snowball method. A semi-structured questionnaire was used, including questions

on the subject's most memorial ecotourism experience, their ecotourism knowledge, and their tourism travel patterns. The study identified a number of ecotourism dimensions which are particularly important in the Chinese context. Results also revealed strong interactions among some dimensions of memorable ecotourism experience.

DISCUSSION

This paper has explored memorable ecotourism experience among Chinese ecotourists. By employing qualitative research methods it has revealed how a Chinese tourist's memorable ecotourism experience has been constructed and what influence the experience has had on their future visits. The influence of the experience on the tourists' knowledge about ecotourism has also been discussed.

REFERENCES

- Blamey, R. (1997). Ecotourism: The Search for an Operational Definition. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 5(2), pp. 109-130.
- Brakus, J., Schmitt, B. and Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand Experience: What Is It? How Is It Measured? Does It Affect Loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73(3), pp. 52-68.
- Cheal, F. and Griffin, T. (2013). Pilgrims and patriots: Australian tourism experiences at Gallipoli. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 7(3), pp. 227-241.
- Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and Education*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Hosany, S. and Witham, M. (2009). Dimensions of Cruisers' Experiences, Satisfaction, and Intention to Recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), pp. 351-364.
- Jeong, S., Fiore, A., Niehm, L. and Lorenz, F. (2009). The role of experiential value in online shopping. *Internet Research*, 19(1), pp. 105-124.
- Loureiro, S. (2014). The role of the rural tourism experience economy in place attachment and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 40, pp.1-9.
- McLellan, H. (2000). Experience design. *Cyberpsychology and Behavior*, 3(1), pp. 59-69.
- Oh, H., Fiore, A. and Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), pp. 119-132.
- Pine, B.J. and Gilmore, J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy, *Harvard Business Review*, 76(4), pp. 97-105.
- Ryan, C. (1997). *The Tourism Experience*. London: Cassell.
- Ryan, C. (2000). Tourism experiences, phenomenographic analysis, post-positivism and neural network software. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(2), pp. 119-131.
- Ryan, C., Hughes, K. and Chirgwin, S. (2000). The gaze, spectacle and ecotourism. *Annals of*

- Tourism Research*, 27(1), pp. 148-163.
- Schmitt, B. (1999). Experiential marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(1-3), pp. 53-67.
- Staus, N. and Falk, J. (2013). The role of emotion in ecotourism experiences. In R. Ballantyne and J. Packer (eds.) *International Handbook on Ecotourism*, Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Yuan, Y. (2009). *The Nature of Experience in Hospitality Settings*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Lubbock, TX: Texas Tech University.

DOES ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS FOSTER SOCIAL LOAFING THROUGH MORAL DISENGAGEMENT? AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY

Emre Erbaş

Gaziosmanpaşa University, School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Tokat, Turkey

ABSTRACT

A research model exploring moral disengagement as a mediator of the effects of organizational politics on social loafing was grown and examined. Data were collected from a sample of employees of hotels in the Cappadocia, the cultural destination in Nevşehir city of Turkey. The relationships were tested via hierarchical multiple regression analysis. All hypothesized relationships were supported. Particularly, the results revealed that moral disengagement partly mediated the effects of organizational politics on social loafing. Implications of the results are presented and directions for later research are proposed.

Key Words: Organizational politics, social loafing, moral disengagement, ethics, social exchange.

INTRODUCTION

Individuals' tendency to show less effort when working in groups is identified as social loafing (Latane, Williams, & Harkins, 1979). It is the tendency of people to withhold contributions to a task in a team setting (Alnuami, Robert, & Maruping, 2010). Besides teamwork success, social loafing has been proved to have several negative consequences. For instance, knowledge sharing and group cohesiveness is left to be jeopardized through social loafing (Bououd, Skandrani, Boughzala, & Makhlouf, 2016; Shiue, Chiu, & Chang, 2010). However, researchers have studied the phenomenon solely in laboratory settings and have not determined the extent to which those results generalize to ongoing work groups in organizational contexts (George, 1992). Hence, it is substantial to research antecedents of social loafing in organizations especially in service industries because of their team-intensive feature (Liden, Wayne, Jaworski & Bennett, 2004). On the other hand studies focusing on the effects of interpersonal relationships have been infrequent (i.e., Liden et. al., 2004; Shea & Guzzo, 1987) and based on the laboratorial settings (i.e., Karau & Hart, 1998). Because it is not easy to seize the magnificence of interpersonal relationships in lab experiments, field research examining

the effects of interpersonal relationships on social loafing is needed (Murphy, Wayne, Liden & Erdogan, 2003). It is argued that the exchanges employees form with their leaders (organizational policy makers) present social exchange relationships that are particularly prominent with reference to social loafing. Organizational politics is one form of this mutual relationship. Therefore, drawing from social-exchange theory, this study focuses on organizational politics which is when not balanced well in favour of employee and organization, is an important potential trigger for employees in tending to morally disengage and loaf socially. This balance is advocated in a study (Ferris, Buckley, & Allen, 1992) a balance between ‘pure politician’ and ‘demonstrated ability’. If the balance is shifted to negative side for employees, organizational politics are condemned since the moral dilemmas thickened with them and the workplace disagreements that are generated, while positive organisational politics results from the blending of common goals and stimulating collaboration (Gotsiz & Kortezi, 2010).

In this study, the relationship between organizational politics and social loafing through moral disengagement is examined. We center upon moral disengagement as a response of employees to organizational political behaviour of their leaders in context of social exchange theory (SET). Moral disengagement refers to “a process by which the individual may rationalize, by either excuse or justification, the harm and wrong that the behavior necessarily serves so that the deterrent mechanisms (e.g., guilt) regarding the behavior are neutralized.” (Fida, Paciello, Tramontan, Fontaine, Barbaranelli & Farnese, 2015, p. 133). It is argued here in this study that moral disengagement mediates the relationship between organizational politics and social loafing.

The current study contributes to the organizational politics, moral disengagement, and social loafing, literatures in different ways. First, taking into account that there are limited numbers of studies investigating social loafing in service organizations, one of the limitations of the literature by studying employees in hotels is addressed. Second, moral disengagement as the predictor of social loafing is examined that has not been studied in prior social loafing research. Third, organizational politics have been previously related to ethical dimensions (i.e. Lau, Tong, Lien,

Hsu, & Chong, 2017), but not to specific points such as moral disengagement especially given that moral disengagement is accepted as the predecessor of unethical behaviours such as organizational deviance (Christian & Ellis, 2014). In the light of SET, examining organizational politics perceptions

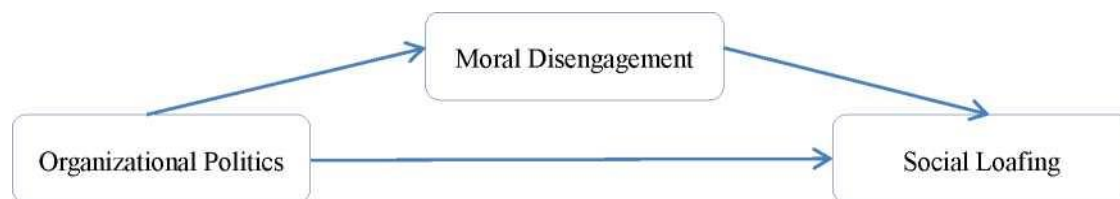
regarding moral disengagement clarifies the relationships between social loafing and organizational politics.

Review of literature and hypothesis

Conceptual model

The conceptual model and hypothesis developed using organizational politics and moral disengagement theories are illustrated in Figure 1. The emphasized question of the model is that employees with the perception of organizational politics in a negative manner are morally disengaged and therefore tend to loaf socially. In technical terms, moral disengagement plays a mediational role between organizational politics and social loafing.

Figure 1. Research Model



Hypothesis

The relationship between organizational politics and moral disengagement can be developed through the precepts of SET theory. Specifically, SET theory proposes that trust, loyalty, and mutual commitments are the three basic tenets of SET and individuals develop their relationships by abiding certain rules of exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to SET theory, reciprocity of the relationship between the parties sets the norms, and those who follow these norms are obligated to behave reciprocally (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and those who do not obey these norms are punished (Mauss, 1967) with different behaviours such as absenteeism in workplace (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). For example, exchange ideology strengthens employees' sensitivity to organizational politics in which employees are affected in their decision to stay in the organization (Andrews, Witt & Kacmar, 2003). In another example, Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) found that the relationship between abusive supervision and supervisor-directed deviance is stronger

when individuals hold higher negative reciprocity beliefs. When an employee feels deprived and unfairly treated because of political considerations, he/she will have tendency to respond initially by diminishing voluntary obligation and attachment to the organization (Vigoda, 2000).

Organizational politics refers to intimate organizational behaviour envisioned to shield or raise the self-interest of employees or teams when it is disagreed with the stakes of others (Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1983). Gandz and Murray (1980) discovered that as people were consulted to identify workplace politics they frequently labeled it as self-serving and deceptive actions that are not identified as positive. Similarly, Kacmar and Ferris (1991) pointed out that the more the perceptions of politics are felt by an organization member, the lower the members perceive the level of justice, equity, and fairness. The perceptions of politics are shaped within organizational, environmental, and personal factors and give birth to outcomes in organizations such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and job anxiety (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Specifically, Drory (1993) found that lower status employees perceived organizational politics as a source of disappointment and reacted to an atmosphere of politics by demonstrating progressively negative positions against the organization.

When some employees abuse politics to actualize self-interest, and thereby break basic fairness and justice norms, the effect on teammates is unavoidable (Vigoda, 2000). Employees who see themselves hurt by such tour de force activities may respond in various manners. One response may be an intention to morally disengage. As discussed by Mouli and Subbarayudu (2014) the influence of organizational politics is superior on deviant behaviors at workplace. For example, when members perceive that their performance ratings were evaluated in an unfair way, they may react with poor performance (Cowherd & Levine, 1992). Why employees and other related parties make a decision to team up and make strategies blocking them from selling out, perpetuating, or aggravating a state of contradictory interests can be explained within deontological (ethics of duties) framework (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010). Davis (2003) posits that some of these duties are not pragmatic; people who use “we” intentions and “we” language frequently perform with a sense of moral responsibility. However, organizational politics are said to be distinct from ethics (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010). Therefore it appears that the presence of organizational politics enables employees to be more involved in moral disengagement. Underpinned by these information and limited empirical evidence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Organizational politics is positively related to employees' moral disengagement.

The relevant literature includes various empirical studies that demonstrate that organizational politics boosts social loafing especially using the tenets of social exchange theory. For example, according to the findings of a study conducted with a sample of manufacturing employee, social loafing as a balance strategy is used by employees with low-quality exchanges with their leaders (Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). Similarly, Othman, Ee and Shi (2010) reported that because of dysfunctional leader-member exchange, out-group members of teams engaged in social loafing. In a study of Kim and Jeung (2015), it was found that the effects of perceived organizational politics on social loafing behaviors were offset by high level of perceived organizational politics. Therefore, the obstacle in organizations is to compose an effective group within the constraints of organizational politics or policies (Goltz, 1998). Accordingly the following hypotheses are advanced:

H2: Organizational politics will be positively related to social loafing.

The relevant literature includes various empirical studies, though limited, that demonstrate a relationship between moral disengagement and social loafing is evidenced. For instance, Alnuami, Robert, and Maruping (2010) revealed that different dimensions of moral disengagement mediated relationships between team size and social loafing. Similarly, Anesi (2009) found that moral hazard had a substantial effect on social loafing (referred as free-riding). Santanen, Briggs, and de Vreede (2004) unveiled the significance of team members' cognitions on their performance and productivity. Therefore, a focus on the cognitions that potentially underlie social loafing in team context is a *cum terminus a quo* for revealing mediating mechanisms. In context of negative political behaviour, it could also be illustrated employing the certain mandatory, if every employee resorted to blaming (attribution of blame as a referred to the moral disengagement theory) or assaulting others, then the concept of team work would once for all be bereft of any message (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2010). Accordingly the following hypotheses are developed:

H3: Moral disengagement will be positively related to social loafing.

H4: Moral disengagement will mediate the effect of organizational politics on social loafing.

METHODOLOGY

Data collection. Data for this study were collected from frontline employees (e.g., front desk officials, servers, bell staff and their directors) in the hotel industry in Turkey, specifically in the Cappadocia region. Hotel's human resources management was contacted to explain the purpose of the study and asked for permission for data collection. 450 self-completion questionnaires were then dropped to directors and collected later on.

Sample characteristics. 320 questionnaires were returned in total, representing a response rate of 71%. 22 respondents were excluded because of unfinished or missing data, leading to a usable sample with 298 respondents. Demographic profiles is as follows: In terms of gender of the sample, 207 (69%) respondents were male and 91 (31%) were female. 154 (51,7%) respondents were between the ages of 18-25. 110 (36,9%) respondents were aged between 26-33 years. 30 (10,1%) respondents ranged in age between 34-41 years and the four respondents were older than 41. 124 (41,6%) respondents had primary and secondary school education. 174 (58,3%) had college education.

Measures. Given the latent character of variables considered in this study, multi-item Likert-type scales of five points were administered (1= "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree"). After positively worded items in perceptions of organizational politics had been reverse scored, hence higher scores also demonstrated higher perceptions of organizational politics as well as the other two constructs. Through confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS, by means of successive estimations based on the modification indexes, the models for each constructs were chosen presenting the best fit. The results of models fit statistics are as on Table 1. *Organizational politics* Individuals' perceptions of organizational politics were measured using 12 items adapted from Kacmar and Ferris (1991). *Moral disengagement* was measured with seven items using the Turkish adapted version (Erbaş and Pergin, of Moore, Detert, Trevino, Baker and Mayer's (2011). Lastly, *Social Loafing* was measured via 10 items adapted from George (1992). All of the constructs are unidimensional. Since the data was collected in Turkish, the questionnaires were prepared based on back-translation method. That is, all items were originally prepared in English and translated into Turkish through this technique (Parameswaran and Yaprak, 1987).

Table 1. Model Fits of Measures

Constructs	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	AGFI	CFI	IFI	RMSEA
Organizational politics	32.17	18	1.785	0.94	0.99	0.99	0.05
Moral disengagement	4.821	4	1.20	0.97	1.00	1.00	0.02
Social loafing	4.15	3	1.38	0.97	0.99	0.99	0.03

As shown in Table 1, the results of fit statistics were acceptable for good fit based on the commonly accepted values of fit statistics.

RESULTS

Measurement properties. Several items were dropped because of correlation measurement errors or low standardized loadings (< 0.30). That is, two items from the moral disengagement, four items from organizational politics, and five items from social loafing measures were removed from subsequent analysis. The items equaled to each scale were totaled and averaged so as to acquire a composite score standing for that construct. Table 2 shows descriptive statistics and correlations for all of the variables covered in current study. In parallel with previous work, the relationships between organizational politics, moral disengagement, and social loafing, are significantly positive. Coefficient alphas were as follows: organizational politics .90; moral disengagement .86; and social loafing .85. All coefficient alphas exceeded the commonly accepted minimum value of .70.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and correlations for all variables (N=298)

Variable	Mean	S.D.	α	1	2	3	4	5
1. Education	2.58	.61	-					
2. Gender	1.30	.46	-	0.07				
3. Age	3.02	1.4	-	-0.11	-0.05			
4. Organizational politics	3.10	.74	.90	0.06	-0.06	-0.11*		
5. Moral disengagement	2.49	.97	.86	-0.11	-0.03	0.05	0.33**	
6. Social Loafing	2.60	.85	.82	-0.19**	0.00	-0.03	0.25**	0.36**

♦Correlations are significant at the .05 level. **Correlations are significant at the .01 level.

Hypotheses Tests

To test for mediation, the following four-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used: (1) whether there is a significant relationship between independent variable and dependent variable, (2) whether there is a significant relationship between independent variable and mediator variable, (3) whether there is a significant relationship between mediator and dependent variable, and (4) controlling for the influence of mediator, whether the original relationships between independent variable and dependent variable are reduced to nonsignificance or becomes smaller, which provides evidence for full or partial mediation.

Test I and II shows that organizational politics is significantly related to social loafing ($\beta=.25$, $p<.001$) and to moral disengagement ($\beta=.33$, $p<.001$). Test III demonstrates that moral disengagement is significantly related to social loafing ($\beta=.36$, $p<.001$). Therefore, Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 are supported.

Table 3. Hierarchical Regressions Results: Direct and Mediating Effects

	<i>P</i>	
	Moral Disengagement	Social Loafing
Test I		
Organizational Politics		.25**
R^2		.06
ΔR^2		.06
Test II		
Organizational Politics	.33**	
R^2	.11	
ΔR^2	.10	
Test III		
Moral Disengagement		.36**
R^2		.13
ΔR^2		.12
Test IV		
Organizational Politics		.14*
Moral Disengagement		.31**
R^2		.15
ΔR^2		.14

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

The results for mediation effects are also presented in Table 3. The results reveal that including moral

disengagement in the model reduces the size of the effect of organizational politics on social loafing and this effect significantly reduced. The results also shows a significant increment in R^2 of the model ($\Delta R^2=.15$, $p<.001$). A significant Sobel test result for moral disengagement as a mediator between organizational politics and social loafing is observed ($t = 4.08$, $p<.001$). These results suggest that moral disengagement partially mediates the effect of organizational politics on social loafing. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported as well.

CONCLUSION

When building and sustaining productive and effective teamworks in service industries as hotels, factors pushing employees to socially loaf in team settings should be examined. There are evidences supporting this belief through empirical studies as discussed above. In this study, using organizational politics and social loafing theories in context of SET theory as the theoretical framework, it is observed that moral disengagement has a role of mediator in the effects of organizational politics on social loafing. According to these results, hypotheses of the research are supported. Results give substantial hints on hotel employee's motivation for the decision makers in the hotels. Preventing negative politics in hotel is important in preventing negative behavioral exchanges of employees with their supervisors and team mates. For an effective teamwork, organizational politics should be handled with care and should be communicated to subordinates through positive manner in which why such politics are necessary for the benefit of employees and organizations alike. Because, perception, rather than the reality, is the cues that individuals look for in reciprocating their actions according to SET theory. In addition, individuals are known to be restrictedly self-seeker, this much that as their response depend on the chasing of common goals and patterns that echo a sense of trust, reciprocal concern, and citizenship behavior. If organizations internalise the qualities of moral communities in which humanity and concern for the other can affect decision-making, then there [doubtlessly](#) exist the convenient ethical building blocks of a 'vision-centric' behavior oriented to the achievement of common good in an organization, e.g., of greater well-being both for the organization and its members (Gotsiz & Kortezi, 2010: 507). Hence, as Velasques, Moberg and Cavanagh (1983) indicates, managers should be aware of the tools to determine whether a certain political act is morally unacceptable or morally sound. Future studies may take into consideration to evaluate the same model with different data set such as cross-national samples in developed or developing countries which will present a detailed understanding about the

relationship assessed in the model.

REFERENCES

- Lau, P. Y. Y., Tong, J. L. Y. T., Lien, Hsu, B. Y., & Chong, C. L. (2017). Ethical work climate, employee commitment and proactive customer service performance: Test of the mediating effects of organizational politics. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 35, 20-26.
- Alnuami, O. A., Robert, L. P., & Maruping, L. M. (2010). Team size, dispersion, and social loafing in technology- supported teams: A perspective on the theory of moral disengagement. *Journal of Management Information System*, 27(1), 203-230.
- Anesi, V. (2009). Moral hazard and free riding in collective action. [*Social Choice and Welfare*](#), 32, 197-219.
- Andrews, M. C., Witt, L. A., & Kacmar, K. M. (2003). The interactive effects of organizational politics and exchange ideology on manager ratings of retention. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62(2), 357-369.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bououd, I., Skandrani, S. R., Boughzala, I., & Makhoul, M. (2016). Impact of object manipulation, customization and social loafing on competencies management in 3D Virtual Worlds. [*Information Systems Frontiers*](#), 18(6), 1191-1203.
- Christian, J. S., & Ellis, A. P. J. (2014). The Crucial Role of Turnover Intentions in Transforming Moral Disengagement Into Deviant Behavior at Work. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 119(2), 193-208.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Cowherd, D. M., & Levine, D. I. (1992). Product quality and pay equity between lower-level employees and top management: An investigation of distributive justice theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37(2), 302-320.
- Drory, A. (1993). Perceived political climate and job attitudes. *Organizational Studies*, 14(1), 59-71.
- Duffy, M. K., & Shaw, J. D. (2000). The Salieri syndrome: Consequences of envy in groups. *Small Group Research*, 31(1), 3-23.
- Davis, J. B. (2003). *The Theory of the Individual in Economics: Identity and Value*. London: Routledge.
- Eisenberger, R., Cotterell, N., & Marvel, J. (1987). Reciprocity ideology. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 53(4), 743-750.
- Erbaş, E., & Pergin, N. ş. (2015). Ahlaki gözulmenin (*moral disengagement*) kiş-i-gevre uyumu üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesi: Kayseri'deki yiyecek-iğecek işletmeleri örneğ-i. 23. *Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi*, Bodrum-Muğla.

- Ferris, G. R., & Kacmar, K. M. (1992). Perceptions of organizational politics. *Journal of Management*, 18(1), 931-116.
- Ferris, G. R., M. R. Buckley, & G. M. Allen (1992). Promotion systems in organizations. *Human Resource Planning*, 15(3), 47-68.
- Fida, R., Paciello, M., Tramontan, C., Fontaine, R. G., Barbaranelli, C., & Farnese, M. L. (2015). An integrative approach to understanding counterproductive work behavior: The roles of stressors, negative emotions, and moral disengagement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 130(1), 131-144.
- Gandz, J., & Murray, V. V. (1980). The experience of workplace politics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23(2), 237-251.
- George, J. M. (1992). Extrinsic and intrinsic origins of perceived social loafing in organizations. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 35(1), 191-202.
- Gotsiz, G. N., & Kortezi, Z. (2010). Ethical considerations in organizational politics: expanding the perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93(4), 497-517.
- Goltz, S. M. (1998). *Composing a team*. Developments in Business Simulation and Experiential Learning, 25, 194-200.
- Kacmar, K. M., & Ferris, G. R. (1991). Perceptions of organizational politics scale (POPS): Development and construct validation. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51, 193-205.
- Karau, S. J., & Hart, J. W. (1998). Group cohesiveness and social loafing: Effects of a social interaction manipulation on individual motivation within groups. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(3), 185-191.
- Kim, J. Y., & Jeung, W. (2015). Social loafing behaviors: The role of trust in supervisor and perceived organizational politics. *Academy of Management Proceedings*.
- Latane, B., Williams, K., & Harkins, S. Many hands make light the work: The causes and consequences of social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1979, 37(6), 822-32.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Jaworski, R. A., & Bennett, N. (2004). Social loafing: A field investigation. *Journal of Management*, 30(2), 285-304.
- Shea, G. P., & Guzzo, R. A. (1987). Groups as human resources. *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 5, 323-356.
- Mauss, M. (1967). *The gift: Forms and functions of exchange in archaic societies*. New York: Norton.
- Moore, C., Detert, J. R., Trevino, L. K., Baker, V. L. & Mayer, D. M. (2011). Why employees do bad things: Moral disengagement and unethical organizational behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(1), 1-48.
- Mouli, G. V. C. & Subbarayudu, Y. (2014). Managing group behavior- a study of personality factor role in the creation of effective teams. *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 4(1), 49-64.
- Murphy, S. M., Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., & Erdogan, B. (2003). Understanding social loafing: The

- role of justice perceptions and exchange relationships. *Human Relations*, 56(1), 61-84.
- Parameswaran, R., & Yaprak, A. (1987). A cross-national comparison of consumer research measures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 18(1), 35-49.
- Porter, L. W., Allen, R. W., & Angle, H. L. (1983). The politics of upward influence in organizations. In R. W. Allen and L. W. Porter (eds.), *Organizational influence processes* (pp. 408-422). Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Santanen, E. L., Briggs, R. O., & de Vreede, G. (2004). Causal relationships in creative problem solving: Comparing facilitation interventions for ideation. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 20(4), 167-198.
- Shiue, Y., Chiu, C., & Chang, C. (2010). Exploring and mitigating social loafing in online communities. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26(4), 768-777.
- Othman, R. Ee, F. F., & Shi, N. L. (2010). Understanding dysfunctional leader-member exchange: antecedents and outcomes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(4), 337-350.
- Velasques, M., Moberg, D. J., & Cavanagh, G. F. (1983). Organizational statemanship and dirty politics: Ethical guidelines for the organizational politician. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12(2), 65-80.
- Vigoda, E. (2000). Organizational politics, job attitudes, and work outcomes: Exploration and implications for the public sector. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57(3), 326-347.

UNDERSTANDING THE FUNCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEAM PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL, AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE INCIVILITY: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Hasan KILIC, Tourism Faculty, Eastern Mediterranean University/Famagusta/North Cyprus

Turgay AVCI, Tourism Faculty, Eastern Mediterranean University/Famagusta/North Cyprus

Huda MEGEIRHI, Tourism Faculty, Eastern Mediterranean University/Famagusta/North Cyprus

Abstract: This paper proposes a theoretical framework, grounding on social contagion theory, that help to understand the proposed alternative conceptualization of collective psychological capital (PsyCap) , called “team PsyCap” (Dwakins, 2015).It identifies the significant theoretical and empirical issues have been existed in the literature associated with developing the concept of psychological capital at *team level*. It designs theoretical model to understand the mechanisms of the moderating role of team psychological capital on the relationship between authentic leadership and workplace incivility. Our future next step is to empirically investigate the concept validity in the hospitality industry within Middle East context.

Keywords: Authentic Leadership, collective/team Psychological Capital, Workplace Incivility, Social contagion theory

Introduction

In the current era, it is evident that intangible organizational resources are more likely to contribute in getting the competitive advantage in the market (Barney, 1991). Competitive advantage as a goal for all organizations is considered to be stemmed from human capital and not from economic capital. And this has brought renewed research attention to human capital. This interest has made the role of the leaders crucial. The business environment today is turbulent and dynamic and as a result it is easy for the organizational leaders to fail to recall their core values and beliefs. Thus, moral and ethical issues have come to the fore in the last decades, there has been a demand for leaders who are transparent, consistent, balanced and have integrity (Avolio & Luthans, 2006).

Authentic Leadership (AL) emerges under the positive organizational behavior paradigm, can deal

with turbulences and challenges. Thus AL has attracted considerable research attention in the past decade (i.e., Walumbwa, Luthans, Avey, & Oke, 2011; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).

With most organizations today experiencing unprecedented levels of change, we propose that authentic leaders who possess psychological strengths and develop the same in themselves and their employees will be more effective and influential and also more successful in reducing undesirable attitudes and behaviors of the employees.

Psychological capital (PsyCap) is another positive organizational behavior construct and is an emerging area of research. Researchers (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) suggest that it can be added value in understanding the concepts of deviance - both positive and negative as well as other individual and organizational outcomes. This makes PsyCap an interesting construct to explore. The initial call for research in the area of PsyCap has been made to study the possibility of exploring the PsyCap construct at a higher level, as a collective in teams and large groups (Youssef & Luthans, 2011) in terms of the concept of collective PsyCap (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Peterson & Zhang, 2011; Vanno et al., 2014). Since organizations today primarily have team based functions, the call for research is in alignment with the way organizations are currently mobilized (Glassop, 2002).

The current study answers the call by Dawkins et al. (2015) for more empirical research in the area of collective PsyCap and Avey et al. (2011) called for a research that explores more outcomes of collective PsyCap. It attempts to establish the validity of a proposed alternative conceptualization of collective PsyCap, called “team PsyCap”. Overall, this study endeavors to answer the following question; *can the dynamics of AL and team PsyCap - as they advance a social context reduce the workplace incivility, through some form of contagion influence in the hospitality industry?*

First we provide a balanced and comprehensive theoretical grounding from positive psychology, positive organizational behavior, authentic leadership, social contagion theory, collective PsyCap using a multilevel-multi- referent framework, and then carefully define the study variables and concepts. Finally the paper proposed that AL can have a contagion effect with moderating role of team PsyCap to reduce negative employees’ outcome (i.e., workplace incivility) utilizing a Middle Eastern sample in Jordan.

Theory and Hypotheses

Theoretical framework

PsyCap has largely been studied as an individual level construct conceptually (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) and empirically (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010).

It includes the dimensions of hope (perseverance towards goal achievement and redirection undertaken if required), resilience (ability to bounce back in the face of adversity and go a step beyond to achieve success), self-efficacy (confidence to take on and succeed in challenging tasks) and optimism (positive orientation towards the future).

However, recently Youssef and Luthans (2011) urged scholars to address the construct at the team level. The reason is that these days most organizations are team based and there is interdependency between team members which expose them to “emotional contagion”. This “contagion” leads to the development of collective PsyCap (Martin, O’Donohue, & Dawkins, 2011).

This gap has drawn some research attention to the emerging construct of collective PsyCap and its relationship to important outcomes, an area that has remained untapped. There are only a handful of studies that have looked at collective PsyCap, it has been defined explicitly in just one study (Peterson & Zhang, 2011) as the team’s shared positive appraisal of their circumstances and probability for success under those circumstances based on their combined motivated effort and perseverance. This definition suggests that collective PsyCap is a result of synergistic effect with teams (Dawkins, 2014).

There are five types of collective PsyCap i.e. summated PsyCap, assimilated PsyCap, team PsyCap, PsyCap strength and team PsyCap strength. In the current study the term of “team PsyCap” has been selected as it is theoretically established and also affiliated with a proper measurement approach (Dawkins et al., 2015).

Theoretically, social contagion theory, can contribute to the emergence of PsyCap as a higher level construct in terms of the social process. In essence, individuals are influenced by others when they form attitudes and beliefs. Social contagion can be defined as the process of communication and the exchange of information among members, follow-on in shared perceptions about aspects related to the team (Degeoy, 2000). Social contagion has received increased research attention and has even been applied in different disciplines and various situations (Brett & Stroth, 2003; Dawkins et al., 2015; Levy & Nail, 1993; Luthans, Norman & Hughes, 2006; Pastor & Mayo, 1994).

Chan (1998) proposed that a change in the referent can result in the emergence of a distinct form of the construct. One that is conceptually different from the original construct. Thus in the case of referent-shift approach, this is to say that an individual with high individual-level PsyCap could have high or low team-level PsyCap. Even though the approach utilizes individual-level responses of the team members, the responses are with reference to team aspects and so the approach links team level theory and measurement. This is leveraged by researchers and so it is an approach of choice for measurement of team-level constructs, like collective efficacy (Arthur et al., 2007).

Clapp Smith, Vogelgesang, and Avey (2009) argued that collective PsyCap can exist at the group level citing an extension of the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) and social contagion theory (Meindl, 1995). This makes collective PsyCap an emergent construct with theoretical basis.

The employee's social context is provided by the team's members interactions.. On this basis, the social contagion theory contributes to the emergence of the construct of collective PsyCap (Dawkins et al., 2015). The team members share their perceptions on all the four dimensions of PsyCap. For example, goal design contributes to the hope development dimension of PsyCap, therefore when team members have goal-oriented discussions; there is an opportunity for exchange of perceptions on how the team can best achieve their goals. By engaging in these goal oriented discussion, team members' foster shared perceptions about hope and thus this facilitate the emergence of collective hope. Similarly, when team members share their perceptions about goal pathways and obstacle planning, they are able to share positive expectations (optimism). Sharing this information increases the expectation that goals will be achieved (Luthans et al., 2010), and thus shared optimism increases. Also with social interactions on past performance and goal attainment perceptions of shared resilience also increase.

Research has shown that feedback from colleague helps the employee to identify personal resources and this increases the likelihood of success, and therefore contributes to development of individual resilience (Luthans et al., 2010). When the team together identifies resources for the team, team resilience is built. Finally, self-efficacy is transferred between team members with reflective social exchanges. As team members share experiences of success the other members also begin to believe that the team has the ability to succeed with the available resources. Therefore, reflective communication among team members can promote congruency of efficacy perceptions, thus facilitating collective efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

2.2 Hypotheses

Authentic Leadership and Workplace Incivility

Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson defined AL as “*a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development*” (2008:94). Authentic leaders serve as role models of high moral/ethical standards and integrity, since transparency is maintained in decision making process (Avolio et al. 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; George, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2010). This in turn increases the positive expectations, trust and co-operation among the followers (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Gardner et al., 2005; Kernis, 2003). This paper is grounded on social contagion theory, that is when employees perceives the leader as being hopeful, resilient, genuine, reliable, ethical and their behavior is consistent over time, a contagion effect occurs diminishing the tendency of negative attitudes and behaviors (Luthans, Norman, & Hughes, 2006).

Employees working under authentic leaders have the tendency to attribute solid positive qualities to those leaders; not only this they also internalize these values and beliefs and behave in accordance. Consequently they believe they are fair and honest in dealing with others (Avolio et al., 2004). This perception of the employees puts the leaders in a position to stimulate (contagion effect) shared values among other employees. Ultimately the result is that employees feel motivated to display positive behaviors, and have a sense of self-worth and also feel obligated to interchange (Ilies et al., 2005; Yukl, 2002).

Leaders play a crucial role in the creation of the work environment for the employee (Kane-Urrabazo, 2006; Kuoppala, Lamminpaa, Liira, & Vainio, 2008). When leaders are not able to provide employees with a supportive and good work environment, it affects the performance and the wellbeing of the employees (Stouten, Baillien, Van den Broek, Camps, Dewitte, & Euwema, 2010). Wendt, Euwema, and Van Emmerik (2009) and Kuoppala, Lamminpaa, Liira, and Vainio (2008) have shown that relationally focused leadership styles like AL are more effective than autocratic styles in terms of their impact on the employee.

Workplace incivility is an important research area and very common (Cortina, Magley, Williams, &

Langhout, 2001) and can affect organizations adversely and also affect the psychological and physical well-being of employees (Pearson & Porath, 2009). Incivility in the workplace is shown to be related to a number of affective, attitudinal, cognitive and behavioral outcomes. It results in decreased organizational commitment and motivation (Sakurai & Jex, 2012), lower levels of perceived fairness (Lim & Lee, 2011) and work withdrawal (Pearson & Porath, 2009). It is also associated with decreased work engagement (Chen, Ferris, Kwan, Yan, Zhou, & Hong, 2012) and turnover intentions (Griffin, 2010), the employee spends less time on work related tasks, takes longer breaks, more sick leaves, (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2004). Ultimately it is expected that the quality of work or service of the employee is reduced and this can result in disruptions of service for the organization in particular in hospitality industry where the quality of services is very sensitive to negative work climate.

Research has shown that leadership plays an important role in both promoting and preventing incivility at work (e.g., Cortina, 2008; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Harold & Holtz, 2014; Pearson & Porath, 2004; Porath & Pearson, 2010, 2013). Cortina (2008, p.62) pointed out that “leaders set the tone for the entire organization, and employees look to them for cues about what constitutes acceptable conduct”. Based on this, we argue that AL is an important situational factor that has effect on workplace incivility. AL is an essential environmental factor that can prevent the spread of workplace incivility. Leader’s/manager’s tolerance of incivility is a kind of environmental factors. This study proposes that when employees have an authentic leader they could perceive their workplace to be less tolerant to uncivil behavior. Managers need to set clear norms which dictate acceptable behavior. They also need to reinforce the importance of not deterring from norms by correcting deviations or punishing offenders (e.g., Porath & Pearson, 2013).

In order to deter employees from workplace incivility, it is important that leaders should be taking the initiative and clearly state that rude and uncivil behavior is unacceptable and will not be tolerated. And also need to reinforce the consequences of uncivil (Pearson & Porath, 2004). If this is not done, then employees may perceive that such behavior is acceptable. This is how the leader is able to influence employees’ workplace behaviors (Loi, Lohand, & Hine, 2015). Therefore, the authentic leader may intervene in the workplace by punishing and rectifying incivility. In most cases authentic leaders will communicate expectations of interpersonal treatment related behavior normatively. Robinson and O’Leary-Kelly (1998) also found that employees were more likely to engage in bad behavior (e.g. anti-social behavior, theft) if they felt they would not be punished for it. Thus, AL and

incivility are expected to have a negative relation. Drawing from this theoretical, empirical, and practical literature, we derive the following hypothesis:

H1: Authentic leadership is negatively related to workplace incivility.

The processes and mechanism of team psychological capital as a moderator, AL and employees' negative outcomes

The dynamics of team PsyCap & AL

Laschinger and Fida (2014) stated that PsyCap can play a protective role against negative consequences. Each of the four components of PsyCap is characteristic of the positive psychological resources that ultimately result in positive organizational outcomes (*see* Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007). Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre, (2011) in their meta-analysis showed that PsyCap had a significant influence on desired employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Previously, Luthans and Avolio (2003) also posited that positive psychological resources lead to authentic leaders' behaviors. And it is this behavior that not only results in self-development for the leader but also in the development of other employees (also *see* Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Yammarino, Dionne, Schriesheim, & Dansereau, 2008). Authentic leadership fosters the employees' positive psychological capacities and this in turn results in positive employee outcomes (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004; Wang et al., 2012).

Authentic leaders encourage employees to share their views and these ideas are used in enhancing team cohesion (Gardner et al., 2005). Kirkman and Rosen (1999) added that when leaders ask employees for ideas, the employees gain confidence in their abilities. So this method of exchange of information gives employees a chance to develop their collective intuition and to learn from each other (Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Hartnell, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2011). This in turn helps raise the collective efficacy (Jones & George, 1998), a key component of collective psychological capital (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007).

Qualitative research has shown that leaders affect employee hope by communication of performance expectations and structuring of the task environment (Thompson, Lemmon, & Walter, 2015). Authentic leaders can remain realistic (Luthans & Avolio, 2003) and hopeful (i.e., agentic rational) even when faced with adversity, also they have a future orientation. We propose that authentic leaders usually prefer objective information when they are passing on hope to the employees. So, with time,

when problems arise employee believe that these leaders are a more credible source of input and feedback... Therefore, these characteristics and actions of the authentic leaders are vital in fostering collective hope and in turn this builds PsyCap.

Optimism can be obtained by modeling (Peterson, 2000) and so authentic leaders can have an influence on employee optimism by increasing awareness and understanding of the employees about the importance of team goals and accomplishment. In this way an authentic leader can model favorite behavior. Leaders are also more likely to motivate employees to adopt positive approaches to problem solving by adopting the same approach (Peterson, 2000). The results in high collective optimism and in turn collective PsyCap also increases.

Authentic leaders should also be able to increase employee resilience by bringing positive goals to the forefront (Masten & Reed, 2002). This over time will build the credibility of the leaders and they will be able to gain access to the reserves of psychological resources (Masten & Reed, 2002) that can sustain employees through adverse and challenging times. Thus, leaders are able to increase employee resilience and in turn their collective PsyCap.

A careful examination of the aforementioned theoretical arguments suggests that there might be an interactive effect between the AL and collective PsyCap. Therefore, it would be interesting to explore how team PsyCap moderates the relationship between AL and the other variables.

Team PsyCap & TWI

Most research has focused on the relationship between PsyCap and positive outcomes like job satisfaction and organizational commitment, etc. (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008). This study expands the boundaries of research in this area by studying the relationship of team PsyCap with behaviors that are relevant to workplaces today(i.e. TWI) .There has been no research that has explored team level PsyCap as a moderator (Dawkins, Martin, Scott, & Sanderson, 2015).

It can be argued that when individuals have an authentic leader they have a positive attitude towards their organization and co-workers (Ghosh, Dierkes & Falletta, 2011). Roberts, Scherer, & Bowyer (2011) found that PsyCap moderated the effect that stress had on the employee's tendency to exhibit incivility i.e. employees with high PsyCap displayed less workplace incivility. In addition, when the PsyCap of the group is high, there is a further positivity that results in lower workplace incivility.

Drawing from this theoretical, empirical, and practical literature, we derive the following hypothesis:

H2: Team PsyCap moderates the relationship between authentic leadership and workplace Incivility such that the relationship will be strengthened when Team PsyCap is high

Next Future Phase of the study

Data will be collected from team members of employees from international hotels in Jordan. The empirical study will draw on insights from multiple streams of research to test the effect of AL and collective PsyCap on tolerance workplace incivility, in the hospitality industry in Jordan, an Arabic speaking country. The empirical study is motivated by a desire to understand the moderating role of collective PsyCap on the relationship between AL and tolerance workplace incivility.

References

- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for tat? The spiraling effect of incivility in the workplace. *Academy of Management Review*(24), 452- 471.
- Arthur, W. Jr., Bell, S. T., & Edwards, B. D. (2007). A longitudinal examination of the comparative criterion-related validity of additive and referent-shift consensus operationalizations of team-efficacy. *Organizational Research Methods*,10, 35- 58.
- Avey, J. B., Reichard, R. J., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. H. (2011). Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22, 127-152
- Avey, J. B., Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2010). The additive value of positive psychological capital in predicting work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 36 (2), 430- 452. DOI: 10.1177/0149206308329961
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 315-338.
- Avolio, B., & Luthans, F. (2006). The high impact leader: Moments matter for accelerating authentic leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, O., F., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 801-823
- Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Brett, J.M., & Stroh, L.K. (2003). Working 61 plus hours a week: Why do managers do it? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(1), 67-78.
- Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 83(2), 234-246. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.2.234>

- Chen, Y., Ferris, D. L., Kwan, H. K., Yan, M., Zhou, M., & Hong, Y. (2012). Self-love's lost labour? A selfenhancement model of workplace incivility. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56, 1199-1219.
- Clapp Smith, R., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avey, J. B. (2009). Authentic leadership and positive psychological capital: The mediating role of trust at the group level of analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 15(3), 227-24
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64-80.
- Cortina, L. M. (2008). Unseen injustice: Incivility as modern discrimination in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 33, 55-75.
- Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management*, 39, 1579-1605.
- Dawkins S, Martin A, 'Enhancing the psychological capital of teams: Adapting an individual-level intervention for multilevel delivery and evaluation', Corporate wellness programs: Linking employee and organizational health, Edward Elgar, R Burke & A Richardsen (ed), United Kingdom, pp. 79-100. ISBN 978-1783471690 (2014) [Research Book Chapter].
- Dawkins, S., Martin, A., Scott, J., & Sanderson, K. (2015). Advancing conceptualization and measurement of psychological capital as a collective construct. *Human Relations*, 68(6), 925-949.
- Degoey, P., (2000) "Contagious justice: Exploring the social construction of justice in organizations", Research in organizational behavior, 22,51-102.
- Gardner, W., Avolio, B., Luthans, F., May, D., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 343-372. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.003>
- Gardner, W. L., & Schermerhorn, J. R. (2004). Unleashing individual potential: Performance gains through positive organizational behavior and authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33, 270-281.
- George, W. (2003). Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value. San Francisco7 Jossey- Bass.
- Ghosh, R., Dierkes, S., & Falletta, S. (2011). Incivility spiral in mentoring relationships: reconceptualizing negative mentoring as deviant workplace behavior. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13(1), 22-39.
- Glassop, L. (2002). The organizational benefits of teams. *Human Relations*, 55(2), 225-249.
- Griffin, B. (2010). Multilevel relationships between organisational-level incivility,justice and intention to stay. *Work & Stress*, 24(4), 309-323.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). Multivariate data analysis (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Harold, C., & Holtz, B. (2014). The effects of passive leadership on workplace incivility. *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1), 16-38. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.1926>
- Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudemonic well-being:

- Understanding leader-follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 373-394.
- Jones, G. R., & George, J. M. (1998). The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 531-546
- Kane-Urrabazo, C. (2006). Management's role in shaping organizational culture. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 14(3), 188-194.
- Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, 14, 1 - 26.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. 1999. Beyond self-management: The antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42: 58 -74.
- Kuoppala, J., Lamminpaa, A., Liira, J., & Vainio, H. (2008). Leadership, job well-being, and health effects—a systematic review and a meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 50(8), 904-915.
- Laschinger, H.K.S., Fida, R., 2014. New nurses' burnout and workplace wellbeing: the influence of authentic leadership and psychological capital. *Burnout Res.* 1 (1), 19-28.
- Levy, D. A., & Nail, P. R. (1993). Contagion: A theoretical and empirical review and reconceptualization. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 119, 233-284.
- Loi, N.M., Loh, J.M.I. & Hine, D.W. (2015). Don't rock the boat. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 34 Iss 2 pp. 169 - 186.
- Lim, S., & Lee, A. (2011). Work and non-work outcomes of workplace incivility: Does family support help?
- Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 16(1), 95-111.
- Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Authentic leadership development. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Luthans, F., Norman, S., & Hughes, L. (2006). Authentic leadership: A new approach for a new time. In R. J. Burke & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Inspiring leaders* (pp. 84-104). London: Routledge.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 541-572.
- Luthans, F., Avey, J.B., Avolio, B.J., & Peterson, S.J. (2010). The development and resulting performance impact of positive psychological capital. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 21, 41-67. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20034>
- Luthans, F., Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Avey, J. B. (2008). The mediating role of psychological capital in the supportive organizational climate-employee performance relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 219-238
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C.M., & Avolio, B.J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Martin A, O'Donohue W, Dawkins S, 'Psychological capital at the individual and team level: Implications for job satisfaction and turnover intentions of emergency services volunteers', *Proceedings of the 2011 ANZAM Conference*, 6th-9th December 2011, Wellington, pp. 1-17

- Masten, A. S., & Reed, M. G. J. (2002). Resilience in development. In C. R. Snyder, & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 74-88). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press
- Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 329-341.
- Pastor, J., & Mayo, M. (1994). An empirical test of the social Contagion theory of Charismatic Leadership. *Academy Of Management Proceedings*, 1994(1), 259-263. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.1994.10344763>
- Pearson, C. M., & Porath, C. L. (2009). *The cost of bad behavior: how incivility is damaging your business and what to do about it*. NY: Portfolio
- Peterson, S. J., & Zhang, Z. (2011). Examining the relationships between top management team psychological characteristics, transformational leadership, and business unit performance. In M. Carpenter, *Handbook of Research on Top Management Teams* (pp. 127-149). New York: Edward Elgar.
- Peterson, C. (2000). The future of optimism. *American Psychologist*, 55, 44-55
- Porath, C. L. & Pearson, C. M. (2010). The cost of bad behavior. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39, 64-71.
- Porath, C. L. & Pearson, C. M. (2013). The price of incivility: Lack of respect hurts morale —and the bottom line. *Harvard Business Review*, January-February, 115-121.
- Roberts, S. J., Scherer, L. L., & Bowyer, C. J. (2011). Job stress and incivility: What role does psychological capital play? *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18, 449-458. doi:10.1177/1548051811409044
- Robinson, S., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. (1998). MONKEY SEE, MONKEY DO: THE INFLUENCE OF WORK GROUPS ON THE ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR OF EMPLOYEES. *Academy Of Management Journal*, 41(6), 658672. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256963>
- Sakurai, K., & Jex, S. M. (2012). Coworker incivility and incivility targets' work effort and counterproductive work behaviours: The moderating role of supervisor social support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 17(2), 150-161.
- Stouten, J., Baillien, E., Van den Broek, A., Camps, J., Dewitte, H., & Euwema, M. (2010). Discouraging bullying: the role of ethical leadership and its effect on the work environment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95(1), 17-27.
- Thompson, K., Lemmon, G., & Walter, T. (2015). Employee Engagement and Positive Psychological Capital. *Organizational Dynamics*.
- Vanno, V., Kaemkate, W., & Wongwanich, S. (2014). Relationships between Academic Performance, Perceived Group Psychological Capital, and Positive Psychological Capital of Thai Undergraduate Students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 3226-3230.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89-126.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Wang, P., Wang, H., Schaubroeck, J., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly* (21), 901-914.

- Walumbwa, O.F., Luthans, F., Avey, J.B., and Oke, A. (2011). Authentically leading groups: The mediating role of collective psychological capital and trust, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 4-24
- Wang, H., Sui, Y., Luthans, F., Wang, D., & Wu, Y. (2012). Impact of authentic leadership on performance: Role of followers' positive psychological capital and relational processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(1), 5-21.
- Wendt, H., Euwema, M., & Van Emmerik, I. (2009). Leadership and team cohesiveness across cultures. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20(3), 358-370.
- Yammarino, F.J., Dionne, S.D., Schriesheim, C.A., & Dansereau, F. (2008). Authentic leadership and positive organizational behavior: A meso, multi-level perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 693-707. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.004
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle Creek, N.J.7 Prentice-Hall.
- Youssef, C.M., & Luthans, F. (2011). Developing psychological capital in organizations: Cognitive, affective and conative contributions to happiness and wellbeing. In K. Cameron & G. Spreitzer (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of happiness*. New York: Oxford University Press.

IS THERE ROOM IN HOSPITALS FOR HOSPITALITY

Sofia Lopes

Instituto Universitario de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL), Business Research Unit (BRU-IUL) and
Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

Frederic Vidal

Instituto Universitario de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL) and CRIA, Lisbon, Portugal

Ana Brochado

Instituto Universitario de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL) and Business Research Unit (BRU-IUL), Lisbon,
Portugal

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the concept of hospitality in hospitals. Hospitals and hotels are excellent environments in which to study hospitality given the frequency and importance of interactions between service providers and clients. The research results reported are based on data gathered in in-depth interviews conducted with hospital managers, doctors, nurses and patients. In this way, deeper insights were gained into areas of convergence between the tourism and health sectors. A content analysis of the interviews revealed the main dimensions of hospitality in the context of hospitals and healthcare.

Key Words: hospitality, hospitals, service provision, in-depth interviews, content analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Although the concept of hospitality has been extensively studied in the context of the hospitality and tourism sectors, studies on hospitality in the health industry are still rare. Therefore, this research focused on the importance of hospitality in hospitals by seeking to understand the experiences of hospital professionals and patients.

As a term, hospitality usually includes a vast spectrum of items, including accommodation, nourishment, leisure, protocols, travel and attraction. This concept can also be used to explain the form in which individuals behave to other people (Crick & Spencer, 2011). A broad concept is needed

in order to cover analyses of hospitality activities in their social, private and commercial aspects. The social side of hospitality includes the broader social contexts, in which it occurs, as well as the social forces producing and consuming lodging, drinking and eating facilities. The private sphere, in contrast, is focused on the effects of host-guest relationships and the items connected to these. The commercial domain regards hospitality services as an economic activity and comprises both private and public sphere activities (Lashley, 2000).

Establishing a relationship or endorsing an existing one is the essence of hospitality. Actions related to hospitality are present during host-guest interchanges of services and goods (Lashley, 2000; Selwyn, 2000). Hospitality is based on the satisfaction of clients' demands, which is achieved via host-guest interactions. These relationships are defined by hospitableness that, although initiated by hosts with guests, can later become reciprocal. Hospitality comprises a welcoming attitude and atmosphere that provide more than just outstanding service and memorable experiences (Severt, Aiello, Elswick, & Cyr, 2008).

Hospitality has mainly been researched based on businesses within the tourism and hospitality fields, such as restaurants and hotels (Suess & Mody, 2017), but much can also be obtained from studying hospitality in different contexts not associated with these facilities. For instance, the philosophy of hospitality is crucial for any business in which exchanges occur between employees, consumers or providers. Hospitality, thus, has been recognised as relevant in healthcare services (Bunkers, 2003; Gilje, 2004; Kelly, Losekoot & Wright-StClair, 2016).

Several studies of patients' hospital experiences have paid attention to customer service in regard to service provision systems, measuring quality across a variety of structures and procedures. Given hospitality's relevance to the proper management of day-to-day hospital functions, researchers have also verified that different aspects play a part in determining patients' expectations, namely, hospital amenities and interpersonal relationships (Kelly et al., 2016).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hospitality in Tourism

Although tourism can be defined in several ways, most researchers agree that tourism is, to some extent, fragmented since it is composed of several spheres including, among others, transport, lodging, attractions, facilities, catering and entertainment, as well as eating and drinking

establishments. As a result, tourism is a blend of services and products that different subsectors offer to tourists. Those supplying this offer rely on connections between different areas and their shared interactions. A firm connection exists between tourism and hospitality because an important focus of both is supplying services and goods (Reisinger, 2013). To determine whether tourism is successful, researchers look at the capacity of particular destinations to improve the comfort of its residents. The best destinations, according to this definition, are the ones that improve all stakeholders' general well-being through hospitality (Richie, Crouch, & Hudson, 2001).

The existing research on both hospitality and tourism shares several essential questions and concepts concerning the ways in which hosts and guests relate to each other. This is a power relationship because of the dynamics of these interactions. Furthermore, the concepts of both hospitality and tourism have been applied to represent symbolically much wider social and cultural experiences and practices (Bell, 2009). However, as mentioned previously, the most fundamental element of any understanding and knowledge regarding hospitality within tourism research is the apparently simple but intricate interrelationships between guests and hosts (Bell, 2009; Molz & Gibson, 2007).

Customer satisfaction and good quality service have often been much sought after results in competing facilities within the hospitality industry, especially in hotels (Paryani, Masoudi, & Cudney, 2010). Hotel guests' contentment is mainly based on the quality of services and products offered by hotels. Mutual long-term guest-host relationships are essential given the mainly positive connection between guests' general level of satisfaction and their likelihood to return to particular hotels (Ariffin, Maghzi, & Aziz, 2011). Therefore, hotel organisations must accurately understand what guests actually want to obtain from their service experiences (Crick & Spencer, 2011). Taking into account that both the healthcare sector and hotel industry have the objective of achieving higher customer satisfaction, the latter industry's practices and improvements have been quite naturally assimilated into healthcare systems (Wu, Robson, & Hollis, 2013).

Hospitality in Hospitals

Many hospital activities revolve around clinical results, as well as bettering these processes. Patients, however, perceive the quality of service provided according to their own subjective perspective, which cannot be analysed in the same way as objective clinical data because patients view their experiences in hospitals as a whole and not as separate services (Kelly et al., 2016).

Hospitality, Brotherton (1999) asserts, can be classified according to characteristics into three types: exchanges between hosts and guests, interactions between providers and receivers and mixtures of different factors based on how hosts provide for the security and psychological and physiological comfort of guests. However, the unique experiences of hospital ‘guests’ should not be ignored because these experiences can be related to clients’ emotions, which can be intensified due to illness, fear and other factors.

Hospitality in hospitals is a factor contributing to the satisfaction of human needs - in this case, socialisation. However, most times, hospitalised clients find themselves in a situation of major physical and emotional instability and, therefore, need assistance and understanding from healthcare professionals (Oliveira, Gomes, Racaneli, Velasquez, & Lopes, 2013). The importance of hospitality is magnified in the context of hospitals because it is related to treating and caring for sick guests. Severt et al. (2008) report that ‘hospital[s] aim . . . to offer hospitality to patients on a par with the hospitality experience offered to hotel guests’. According to Pizam (2007, p. 500), ‘the difference between hospitals and hospitality is “ity”, but that “ity” can make a significant difference in the recovery and stay of hospital patients. ’

Hospital service quality research has defined three essential aspects - technical care, relationships between individuals and quality of hospital facilities and atmosphere - out of which the non-medical aspects are crucial to matching patients’ general expectations. Enhancing the provision of support services appears to endorse patients’ safety, care, health recovery and sense of general comfort. The hospital atmosphere itself is also regarded as a crucial to the experiences of patients, so some hospitals have adopted the service design used by the hospitality sector to attract and support patients (Kelly et al., 2016).

The hotel industry’s influence on health service provision begins with the transplanting of hotel facilities into hospitals, as well as supplying services similar to those provided in hotels. The design of some hospitals has been based on hotels in order to match the expectations of patients and families and monetary and regulatory requirements. Researchers have found proof of the growing importance of physical surroundings, which enhance healing and determine consumer decisions (Suess & Mody, 2017; Wu et al., 2013). This new guest-service approach embodies the idea that, when ‘hospitality meets healthcare’, this affects not only the image projected by spaces and facilities but also the efficacy of processes and relationships between staff (Suess & Mody, 2017).

Hospitals that have an atmosphere more closely related to hotels appear to retain their staff longer and have higher levels of staff satisfaction than the levels reported for those working in less appealing hospitals. Essential aspects of the hospitality industry such as good quality food, dedicated employees and an enjoyable atmosphere have an important role in creating hospital demand. Patients appreciate hotel-like characteristics, such as private and family- friendly rooms, views and meals brought in like room service, in the same way that these patients place importance on hospitals' good name and status when making their choice of healthcare facilities (Wu et al., 2013).

Hospital hospitality based on the hotel business has brought the concept of humanisation to the healthcare sector, resulting in a new image of hospitals as facilities that provide patients with comfort and safety and create a feeling of exclusivity. The concept of humanisation has been used in the hospital hospitality, so patients are approached as a healthcare customers who have special needs. Thus, healthcare institutions are implementing the concept of service provision seeking to humanise services (Oliveira et al., 2013).

The practice of hospital hospitality also requires resources to be used to satisfy patients' needs and provides healthcare institutions with strategies that amplify service options in order to appeal to more potential customers (Oliveira et al., 2013). Since hospital administrators are currently becoming aware that patients are usually involved in the choice of their inpatient care hospital, these managers are starting to treat patients as consumers. The quality of healthcare services relies on the combined effects of human components, processes and technology, as well as hospital staff's professional skills and quality and hospitality management (Paraschivescu, Cotarlet, & Puiu, 2011). Hospitals and hotels have in common the task of projecting purposeful and profitable facilities that support these organizations' mission. However, when determining where to assign resources in regard to hospitality-oriented goals, hospitals cannot forget that their main objective is to provide high-level clinical services (Wu et al., 2013).

Although several studies have already addressed topics connected to hospitals and customer service, there is still a void in the literature regarding the impact of hospitality in inpatient care (Kelly et al., 2016; Severt et al., 2008). Based on the above literature review, the following research questions were defined:

- Is hospitality compatible with healthcare service provision in hospitals?

- How can hospitality improve the quality of these services?

METHODOLOGY

Research Context

The data were collected in three hospitals located in a European capital. Hospital A is private, and it has 127 beds, 47 medical consultation offices, 7 surgery blocks, 3 delivery blocks and an intensive care unit. Hospital B is private, and it has 145 beds distributed throughout individual rooms and nurseries, a surgery block with 9 rooms, an intensive care unit and 70 medical consultation offices. Hospital C is public, and it has 13 medical specialties and 7 functional areas.

Data Collection

The data collection was divided into two phases: field observations and interviews. Before starting, we requested authorisation from the various hospital management entities of the city in question. As health sector research involves ethical and privacy issues, authorisation to observe healthcare provision was difficult to get, and this was denied by several hospitals. We started with in-person observations of the surgery inpatient service of Hospital A, the outpatient orthopaedic consultations of Hospital B and the outpatient surgery consultations of Hospital C.

In the data collection, the first step was to conduct intensive observations of social interactions in these hospitals using an ethnographic fieldwork method with descriptive and explanatory power. By using this method, it was possible not only to observe the interactions between healthcare professionals and patients ‘closely and from the inside’ (Magnani, 2002) but also to capture other elements and practices that opened up new perspectives on hospitality in the context of hospital dynamics. This method also facilitated the construction of a framework for analysis based on field observations and data collection, following a grounded theory approach that included the perspectives of the subjects studied (Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

The second step was to prepare the interviews. The observations made over several months in these hospitals provided an understanding of which people needed to be interviewed and which questions would be the most pertinent. This meant that the interview guide was created based on the data

collected through observations and subjective assessments of everything observed in the hospitals.

The resulting blend of both observations and interviews permitted an enhanced analysis of hospital discourses and attitudes, and this guaranteed that interviews were carried out only after the research team obtained a clear understanding of the setting of hospitality-related actions through regular observations. While this choice brought more clarification than innovation to qualitative research in health, this approach undeniably facilitated a more precise empirical analysis in regard to individual reflexivity, which was connected to an epistemological relativism backed by critical realism. Actions were thus understood in specific settings and connected with the discourses of interviewees concerning their actions. This choice also meant that the way that interviews developed could be adjusted in line with the information collected in observations, which made it easier to connect real situations and discourses through interviewees' mental reconstructions of previous events (Correia, 2016).

Interview Guide

As this research focused on hospitality, interviews were needed in order to gather objective evidence for analysis. In this way, deeper insights were gained into any convergence between the tourism and health sectors. The interviews also contributed to an understanding of how the hospitals' structure and organisation function and how these contribute to the implementation of the concept of hospitality.

The interview guides were created to establish the order of questions and the group of individuals to be interviewed. The interviews lasted between 20 and 80 minutes each and took place in different sections of the hospital and always privately. The interviews were confidential, and interviewees agreed that they be recorded after being informed that a full transcript of the audio records would be created. The guide was divided in groups by interview location and subgroups by the individuals interviewed and topics covered.

The interviews were, therefore, divided into the following groups:

- Private Hospital A inpatient services
- Private Hospital B outpatient services
- Public Hospital C outpatient services
- Within each of these, the following subgroups were created:
- Administration

- Clinical staff (i.e. doctors or nurses)
- General services
- Clients (i.e. patients)

For each subgroup, appropriate topics were selected for questions, including:

Interviewees' career path in order to relate the answers given with the roles and duration of service of those interviewed in the hospitals

Definition of hospitality from a strategic point of view and service provision in order to understand interviewees' opinions of the concept of hospitality and its importance in hospitals, as well as to understand in which way the technical aspects of medical care are compatible with the implementation of hospitality Importance of hospitality for hospitals and for their clients to assess the relationship between hospitality and levels of satisfaction among hospital professionals and users

Relationship between hospitality in hospitals and hotels in order to understand interviewees' opinion regarding the concept of hospitality that exists in hotels and the ways this can be implemented in hospitals

Participants

Interviewees were selected based on the importance of different hospital sections and services in the implementation of hospitality. The objective was to gather the opinions not only of the administration (i.e. directors of clinical operations and directors of nursing) but also of other healthcare professionals (i.e. doctors and nurses), patients and individuals connected to the health sector in more indirect ways, such as the president of a hospital hospitality association, the director of a hospital hospitality magazine and the public relations manager of Hospital A.

Table 1

Interviewees' career paths

Position held	Function	Duration of service (years)
Clinical director	Gastroenterologist and director of clinical operations	8

General surgery physician	General surgery specialist	8
Director of nursing	Nurse	8
Nurse responsible for inpatient surgical services	Nurse	8
Nurse coordinating inpatient surgical services	Nurse	8
Orthopaedist	Orthopaedic assistant working mainly on knees and	14
Public relations manager of a hospital	Manager of client and family support services	2
Patient	Hotel industry manager	0.02
Director of a hospital hospitality magazine	Hospital manager	4
President of a hospital hospitality association	Hospital manager specialising in hotel	6

To satisfy the requirements for the construction of a theoretical sample defined by its own analysis and not selected previously and randomly, an appropriate procedure is to analyse the interviews while these are conducted. This analysis finishes when the categories found begin to stabilise and new cases do not offer anything new to the researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Data Treatment

All interviews were put into Excel sheets to be analysed using a Leximancer programme. This software allows researchers to process observation data in the form of diagrams, showing visually the diverse ways in which ideas and themes interrelate. Leximancer has been used to do qualitative data analysis in academic research in, among others, business, public sector, social, cultural and education studies (Crofts & Bisman, 2010). This software was used in the present study to translate interview data from natural language into semantic patterns (Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh & Callan,

2016).

In addition, Leximancer identifies and creates themes that might have been otherwise forgotten or overlooked. Thanks to these software generated themes, investigators can engage directly with their data and, thereby, continue exploring and interpreting the defined texts (Crofts & Bisman, 2010). Leximancer has been known to have benefits that other techniques for qualitative content analysis do not offer, which allow researchers to derive a list of codes and rules for connecting these themes to the data (Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, & Cretchley, 2015).

Concepts in Leximancer are groups of words that usually appear together throughout texts. These are assigned a certain weight depending on how often they appear in sentences that encompass the concepts, in comparison to how commonly they appear anywhere else. The meaning of these concepts is naturally derived from the surrounding text. Concept seed words consist of the first item that conveys the concepts' meaning when each concept's definition has one or more seeds. After Leximancer completes this learning process and generates a list of concepts present in the text and their interconnections, the data are offered through a concept map (Leximancer, 2016).

Concept maps are split into two parts: a visualisation of concepts and the connections among each and report tabs to help read the concept map. When the map is created, the concepts are grouped into high-level themes. Concepts appearing together - commonly in same section of text - relate to each other strongly and, therefore, have a tendency to group together on the map. These themes aid interpretation by bunching into groups of concepts, and they are displayed as colourful spheres on the map (Leximancer, 2016). In the present study, the analysis of interviews was biphasic, which meant that, first, quantitative analysis was done using Leximancer and, second, qualitative analysis was conducted comparing the results obtained with Leximancer with narratives in the interview transcripts.

RESULTS

This section presents the preliminary results of the content analysis regarding the research questions, namely, the definition of hospital hospitality from a strategic point of view in terms of service provision. The main themes obtained from the Leximancer analysis of the concept of hospital hospitality are 'hospitality', 'hospital', 'patient', 'health', 'client', 'doctor', 'nurse', 'relationship' and 'traineeship'.

Through the observation and interview analyses, hospitality was defined as the way individuals receive and know how to treat people and, thus, as a form of encouraging well-being through hospitality mechanisms. Hospitality influences the supply of quality services, resulting in clients' satisfaction and well-being and contributing to hospital users' trust and loyalty. Medical competence, nurses' empathy and patients' comfort are the most important factors for a positive hospital experience. The nurses are the personification of hospitality. However, a lack of communication and information leading to potential medical malpractices is the biggest obstacle to quality experiences.

Concerning the existence of differences between the themes of patient and client, the results depend on the interviewee. The administration considers hospital users to be clients while healthcare professionals regard users as ill people who need treatment (i.e. patients). Even though users perceive differences in the quality of treatment and infrastructure between public and private hospitals, healthcare professionals state that medical procedures are the same in both sectors.

The organisation of services within hospitals should be based on how hotels implement hospitality. However, the interviewees made a clear distinction between hotels and hospitals. They conceded it was possible to think of a hospital as a hotel in regard to the type of facilities (i.e. reception and rooms), meals and ways staff act as hosts and communicate with users. Despite these similarities, interviewees felt it was not possible to disassociate these aspects from the idea that, in hospitals, users are a different type of guest conditioned by pathologies. Patients want to stay the shortest time possible, contrarily to hotel guests, who want to stay as long as they can and take advantage of all facilities.

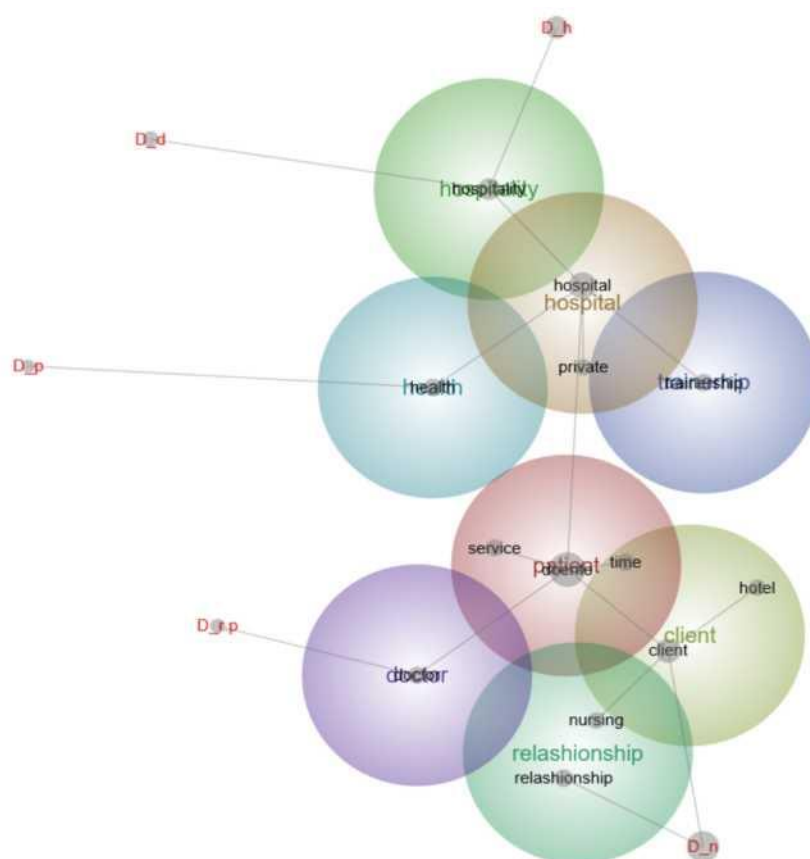


Figure 1

Concept map of hospital hospitality

CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to identify the nature of hospitality in hospital settings. This research on hospitality in healthcare provision revealed that there is clearly room in hospitals for service delivery using hospitality mechanisms. In this context, hospitality is seen as more than good service and an essential part of hospitals' service provision.

For this study, a combination of professionals and patients in three hospitals were interviewed regarding their perceptions of hospitality and its importance in healthcare service provision. Although some conclusions can be drawn based on the results of this study, data from more hospitals and patients would help to provide a fully standardised answer.

REFERENCES

- Ariffin, A. A. M., Maghzi, A., & Aziz, N. A. (2011). Understanding hotel hospitality and differences between local and foreign guests. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 7(1), 340-349.
- Bell, D. (2009). Tourism and hospitality. In T. Jamal, & M. Robinson (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of tourism studies* (pp. 19-32). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Brotherton, B. (1999). Towards a definitive view of the nature of hospitality and hospitality management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(4), 165-173.
- Bunkers, S. S. (2003). Understanding the stranger. *Nursing Science Quarterly*, 16(4), 305-309.
- Correia, T. (2016). Doctors' reflexivity in hospital organisations: The nexus between institutional and behavioural dynamics in the sociology of professions. *Current Sociology*. doi:0011392116641478
- Crick, A., & Spencer, A. (2011). Hospitality quality: New directions and new challenges. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(4), 463-478.
- Crofts, K., & Bisman, J. (2010). Interrogating accountability: An illustration of the use of Leximancer software for qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 7(2), 180-207.
- Gilje, F. L. (2004). Hospitality: A call for dialogue. *Nursing Forum*, 39(4), 36-39.
- Kelly, R., Losekoot, E., & Wright-StClair, V. A. (2016). Hospitality in hospitals: The importance of caring about the patient. *Hospitality & Society*, 6(2), 113-129.
- Lashley, C. (2000). Towards a theoretical understanding. In C. Lashley & A. J. Morrison (Eds.), *In search of hospitality: Theoretical perspectives and debates* (pp. 5-15). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Leximancer. (2016). *Leximancer User Guide. Release 4.5*. Brisbane, Australia: Leximancer Pty Ltd. Retrieved from <http://doc.leximancer.com/doc/LeximancerManual.pdf>
- Magnani, J. G. C. (2002). De perto e de dentro: Notas para uma etnografia urbana [Close up and inside: Notes for na urban ethnography]. *Revista Brasileira de Ciencias Sociais*, 17(49). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0102-69092002000200002>
- Molz, G. J., & Gibson, S. (2007). Mobilizing hospitality: The ethics of social relations in a mobile world. *Aldershot: Asgate*.
- Oliveira, C., Gomes, E. F., Racaneli, F. C., Velasquez, G. G., & Lopes, M. R. (2013). A hotelaria hospitalar como uma nova perspectiva de atuaqao em organizaqoes de saude [Hotel hospitality as a new perspective on healthcare organizations]. *Revista Turismo: Estudos e Praticas*, 1(2). Retrieved from <http://periodicos.uern.br/index.php/turismo/article/view/341>
- Paraschivescu, A. O., Cotarlet, A., & Puiu, T. (2011). Achieving excellence through professionalism, management and hospitality in a hospital. *Economy Transdisciplinarity Cognition*, 15(2), 123-125.
- Paryani, K., Masoudi, A., & Cudney, E. A. (2010). QFD application in the hospitality industry: A hotel case study. *The Quality Management Journal*, 17(1), 7.
- Pizam, A. (2007). Editorial: The 'ity' factor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(3),

499-501.

- Resinger, Y. (2013). Concepts of tourism, hospitality and leisure services. In C. Mok, B. Sparks, & J. Kadampully (Eds.), *Service quality management in hospitality, tourism, and leisure* (pp. 1-12). New York and London: Routledge.
- Richie, J. R. B., Crouch, G. I., & Hudson, S. (2001). Developing operational measures for the components of a destination competitiveness/sustainability model: Consumer versus managerial perspectives. In A. G. Woodside, G.
- I. Crouch, & J. B. Ritchie (Eds.), *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality, and leisure* (Vol. 2) (pp. 1-18). Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing.
- Robinson, R. N. S., Kralj, A., Solnet, D. J., Goh, E. & Callan, V. J. (2016). Attitudinal similarities and differences of hotel frontline occupations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(5), 1051-1072.
- Selwyn, T. (2000). An anthropology of hospitality. In C. Lashley, & A. J. Morrison (Eds.), *In search of hospitality: Theoretical perspectives and debates* (pp. 19-21). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Severt, D., Aiello, T., Elswick, S., & Cyr, C. (2008). Hospitality in hospitals? *International Journal Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(6), 664-678.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research* (1st ed.) London: Sage.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 17, 273-285.
- Suess, C., & Mody, M. (2017). Hospitality healthscapes: A conjoint analysis approach to understanding patient responses to hotel-like hospital rooms. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 61, 59-72.
- Tkaczynski, A., Rundle-Thiele, S. R., & Cretchley, J. (2015). A vacationer-driven approach to understand destination image: A Leximancer study. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(2), 151-162.
- Wu, Z., Robson, S., & Hollis, B. (2013). The application of hospitality elements in hospitals. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 58(1), 47-63.

THE FACTORS INFLUENCING SENIOR TOURISTS' HOTEL PREFERENCES

Salim AKÇAY

Mugla Sitki Kogman Universitesi, Turizm Fakultesi, Turizm işletmeciliği Ana Bilim Dalı,
Mugla/Turkiye

Burhan KILIÇ

Mugla Sitki Kogman Universitesi, Turizm Fakultesi, Mugla/Turkiye

Funda ON ESEN

Mugla Sitki Kogman Universitesi, Turizm Fakultesi, Mugla/Turkiye

Nisan YOZUKMAZ

Mugla Sitki Kogman Universitesi, Turizm Fakultesi, Mugla/Turkiye

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to determine the factors which are effective in hotel preferences of Senior tourists visiting Marmaris in Turkey. In this study in which a quantitative research method is applied, questionnaire technique is used as data collection method. Research results indicate that the factors influencing Senior tourists's hotel preferences are hotel ambiance, atmosphere, hotel prices, reviews on the internet about cleanliness, photographs of the hotel on the internet, brochures and/or social media, proximity to the beach and cleanliness of it, reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety, Wi-Fi and All-Inclusive concept.

Key Words: Third Age Tourism, Hotel Preferences, Third Age Tourists

INTRODUCTION

Old age population in the world has been increasing in parallel with the extension of human life with the impact of developments especially in the field of health and there are currently many more opportunities with the help of increasing old population. Such developments as higher income levels of old age population, socializing and extension of retirement spans based on expanded life span enable this group to involve in tourism movements further and makes third age group tourists an important market for tourism sector (Bai et. al., 2001; Gundogdu, 2006; You et. al., 2000).

Third age tourism made 593 million international holiday purchases in 1999 as a growing niche market, while it is expected to make more than 2 billion holiday purchases in 2050 (Pattersen, 2006). Higher level of old age population especially in developed countries increases the importance of this group for health sector as well as entertainment and tourism sectors (Nikitina & Vorontsova, 2015). In accordance with the expert report of European Commission regarding

demographic changes and the increasing number of third age group tourists (ec.europe.eu), 22 of 100 international tourists are 60 years old and above in Europe in 2010 while this number is expected to increase regularly and 29 of 100 international tourists will be 60 years old and above by 2030. This data emphasizes the importance of this research which is conducted regarding the comprehension of factors which are effective in hotel preferences of third age tourists for accommodation enterprises operating under severe competition conditions especially today.

In accordance with the data of Ministry of Culture and Tourism, among the countries which send tourists to Turkey, Germany ranks first with 5 million 580 thousand tourists in 2015 while Russian Federation ranks second with 3 million 649 thousand tourists and England ranks third with 2 million 512 thousand tourists [5]. England sends the highest number of visitors to Mugla Region with 1 million 262 thousand tourists which is 41 % of the total number [3]. England has 14 million 889 thousand old age people who is 60 and above in 2015 which is 23 % of the total number while this number is expected to increase as 17 million 862 thousand people by 2025 which is 26 % of the total number and 23 million 159 thousand people by 2050 which is 31 % of the total number [2]. In this regard, this study aims at determining the factors which are effective in hotel preferences of third age group English tourists who visit Marmaris which is one of the favorite tourism destinations in Turkey.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The word “old” is defined as a person who consumes more than s/he produces in economic terms (Duru & Ozdemir, 2009). It literally means “leaving long years ahead” [4]. Old age can also be defined as chronologically, socially, physiologically and psychologically aging (Cengiz, 2012). In another definition, old age is a complicated process which involves such variants as genetics, life style and chronic disease (Mazzeo et. al., 1998). There are no commonly accepted exact numbers in literature regarding who is accepted as old-age and which age group is defined as third age group (Pesonen et. al., 2015). In some studies (Chen & Shoemaker, 2014; Smith et. al., 2010), 55 years old and above is regarded as third age group (Horneman et.al.,2002; Jang and Wu, 2006; Lee and Tideswell, 2005) while 60 years old and above is regarded as third age group in other studies. In some other studies regarding third age group (Nikitina and Vorontsova, 2015; Sun and Morrisson, 2007; Norman et. al., 2001) 65 years old and above are defined as third age group. In this study, third age group tourists include 65 years and above travelers.

Third age group or Senior tourists are defined as people coming from various demographic origins who have had many holiday experiences in the past as well as different travelling motivations, different psychographics, different lifestyles, different education levels, different backgrounds and different income levels; the concept of third age is also used for the retirement span (Pesonen et.al,

2015). On the other hand, third age tourism is defined as travels of people who are in specific age levels, most of whom are already retired, towards various destinations which are far away from their residences (İgoz et.al., 2007). Third age group tourists pay attention to such potentials as suitable climate conditions, availability of health care services, affordability and easy transportation in destinations and such potentials as the availability of physical and sport activities, easy shopping opportunities and organized daily tours in holiday regions and facilities are very effective factors in holiday durations and hotel preferences of third age group tourists (Alen et. al., 2014; İgoz et.al., 2007).

RESEARCH METHOD

Main objective of the research is to put forward the factors which affect hotel preferences of third age group tourists visiting Marmaris. Additionally, this research aims at determining whether the expressions regarding hotel preferences of tourists vary or not depending on demographic characteristics and hotel experiences of the participants. Using quantitative research method, this research also uses survey technique as a data collection tool. Scope of this research is limited to accessible literature and tourists participating in the surveys. Population of the research is composed of foreign tourists in third age group who visit Marmaris. It is determined that the highest number of foreign tourists visiting Marmaris come from England, so survey form was prepared in English [3]. Research was conducted in April- September 2016 summer season in Marmaris. English tourists visiting Marmaris were subjected to face-to face surveys during their holidays at the hotels. Having being applied in three separate hotels, the study aimed at giving necessary information to the participant tourists regarding the survey and its aims. After invalid surveys were disregarded, sample size was composed of 220 surveys. Data which was collected through surveys was uploaded to the computer in order to create a database; analyses were carried out by using a statistical package program.

Survey form designed in order to collect research data is composed of two sections. First section includes factors which affect hotel preferences of the participants while second section includes questions regarding holiday experiences of the participants as well as such demographic characteristics as their gender, education, age, marital status, nationality, accompanying person, holiday budget, accommodation duration and travel frequency. Scales and items in the studies of Cengiz (2012), Emir and Pekyaman (2010) were applied in order to determine the factors which affect hotel preferences of the tourists. Moreover; English tourists spending their holidays in Marmaris were asked to write the factors which affect their hotel preferences during holiday purchase processes. Common expressions were gathered and added to the scale. All the expressions were combined, repetitive expressions were excluded and the scale was finalized by depending on experts' opinions. Expressions in the scale were evaluated through five-point Likert

scale as 1= Not important, 2= Slightly important, 3= Fairly important, 4= Important and 5= Very important.

DATA ANALYSIS

First of all, research provides demographic information of the tourists with frequency and percent distribution. Then, it provides arithmetic mean and standard deviation values regarding the factors which are effective in hotel preferences of the tourists participating in the research. Scale reliability was measured and “Cronbach’s Alpha” reliability coefficient was found as $\alpha = .87$. This result shows that the scale is highly reliable (Kalayci, 2016).

Data was tested through “Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test” in terms of its conformity with normal distribution in order to determine which tests are required to be conducted in the analyses which will be made in the following phases of the study and it was determined that there was not a normal distribution among data in accordance with 0,05 significance level. For this reason, findings were evaluated by using MannWithney U and Kruskal-Wallis H tests among Non-Parametric tests. In accordance with Table 1, 114 of third age group tourists participating in the research (52%) are female while 106 of them (48%) are male. 180 of them (82%) are in 65-69 age group while 27 of them (12%) are in 70 - 74 age group. 80 of them (40%) are graduated from high school while 46 of them (21%) are graduated from college and 26 of them (12%) are graduated from post-graduate school. 72 of them (33%) have a budget of 1.000-2.000 Sterling while 59 of them (27%) have a budget of 500-1.000 Sterling, and 20 of them (9%) have a budget of more than 2.000 Sterling. Considering annual travelling frequency of the tourists participating in the research, it is seen that 91 of them (41%) travel twice a year while 59 of them (27%) travel three times a year and 26 of them (12%) travel four times and more a year. It is also seen that 110 tourists (50%) prefer 14 days holiday while 41 tourists (19%) prefer 8-13 days holiday and 50 tourists (23%) prefer 7 days holiday. Among the tourists participating in the research, 162 of them (74%) are married while 26 of them (12%) are single. 129 tourists (59%) travel with their partners while 56 tourists (26%) travel with their families and 20 tourists (9%) travel with their friends.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics and Holiday Experiences of the Participants

Gender	Number (n)	Percent (%)	Age	Number (n)	Percent (%)
Female	114	51,8	65 - 69	180	81,82
Male	106	48,2	70 - 74	27	12,27
Total	220	100	75 +	13	5,91
Education Level	Number (n)	Percent (%)	Total	220	100
Primary School	11	5	Budget (Sterling)	Number (n)	Percent (%)
High School	88	40	Less than 500	5	2,27

College	46	20,9	500 - 1000	59	26,82
University	18	8,2	1001-2000	72	32,73
Postgraduate	26	11,8	2001 and more	20	9,09
Missing	31	14,1	Missing	64	29,09
Total	220	100	Total	220	100
Travel Frequency	Number (n)	Percent (%)	Holiday Duration	Number (n)	Percent (%)
Once	40	18,2	7	50	22,73
Twice	91	41,4	8 - 13	41	18,64
Three times	59	26,8	14	110	50
Four times and more	26	11,8	15 +	8	3,63
Missing	4	1,8	Missing	11	5
Total	220	100	Total	220	100
Travel With	Number (n)	Percent (%)	Marital Status	Number (n)	Percent (%)
Alone	8	3,6	Single	26	11,82
Family	56	25,5	Married	162	73,64
Friends	20	9,1	Partner	14	6,36
Partner	114	51,8	Divorced / Widow	15	6,82
Other	15	6,8	Missing	3	1,36
Missing	7	3,2	Total	220	100
Total	220	100			

Means and standard deviations of statements which the tourists give for each item are indicated in Table 2. It was determined in accordance with Table 2 that “Preferring a small/large hotel” (2,20) is the expression which least affects hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group in their holiday purchase processes. “Variety of the activities and facilities for the children at the hotel” (2,40), “Health & Beauty center at the hotel.” (2,44), “Recreational facilities around the hotel” (3,10) are the other expressions having the lowest means. It was determined that the expression of “Hotel ambiance and atmosphere” (4,41) has the highest mean among the factors which affect hotel preferences of foreign tourists in third age group. Other expressions having the highest means are “Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget” (4,25), “Reviews on the internet about cleanliness” (4,21), “Security” (4,20), “Reviews on the internet about the hotel in general” (4,15). “Photographs of the hotel on the internet, brochures and/or social media” (4,02), “Proximity to the beach and cleanliness of it.” (4,01), “Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety” (3,96), “Wi-fi access in the hotel” (3,95), “All- inclusive concept” (3,91) are the other suggestions having the highest means of the scale.

Table 2

Arithmetic Mean and Standard Deviation Values Regarding the Factors which Affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants

Expressions	Mean	Std. Dev.
Hotel ambiance and atmosphere	4,41	,69361
Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget	4,25	,89836
Reviews on the internet about cleanliness	4,21	,97212
Security	4,20	1,03633
Reviews on the internet about the hotel in general	4,15	,93156
Photographs of the hotel on the internet, brochures and/or	4,02	1,07255
Proximity to the beach and cleanliness of it	4,01	1,32582
Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality	3,96	1,00162
Wi-fi access in the hotel	3,95	1,22632
All-inclusive concept	3,91	1,40479
Reviews on the internet about the comfort level of the hotel	3,90	1,04027
Previous hotel and holiday experiences	3,90	1,11567
Discounts and packages.	3,89	1,17758
Recommendations from friends/family or relatives	3,88	1,26362
Recommendations about the hotel from travel agencies.	3,81	1,18853
Reviews on the internet about hotel staff members	3,78	1,04144
Star rating of the hotel	3,73	1,04067
Adult-only practice of the hotel	3,67	1,58346
Adequacy of medical facilities	3,65	1,15815
Suitable weather temperature for health/medical conditions	3,62	1,34458
Hotel entertainment and activities	3,60	1,17624
Location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers	3,45	1,04783
Preferring a small hotel	3,36	1,49372
Ease of travel distance from airport to hotel	3,35	1,29337
Ease of booking online	3,35	1,37450
Accessibility of hotel building for elderly and disabled people	3,30	1,50827

Ease of access to city center and interconnecting cities	3,29	1,21437
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and	3,16	1,08420
Local natural beauties in the surrounding area to the hotel	3,15	1,13344
Variety of the payment options	3,15	1,41200
Recreational facilities around the hotel	3,10	1,11157
Health & Beauty center at the hotel	2,44	1,24642
Variety of the activities and facilities for the children at the	2,40	1,53943
Preferring a large hotel	2,20	1,31829

Table 3 includes expressions which significantly differ in accordance with the results of Mann - Whitney-U test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their genders. In accordance with the results of Mann - Whitney-U test, it was determined that the expressions of “Security” (U=4977.000, p=.014) and “Previous hotel and holiday experiences” (U=4640.000, p=.002) significantly differ in hotel preferences of the tourists based on their genders. Comparing the statements of males and females to the expression of “Security”, it is seen that females have a mean rank of 119,84 while males have a mean rank of 100,45. In other words, importance level of the “Security” expression for

female tourists is higher than the male tourists and the difference between them is statistically significant. In accordance with the statements of the participants for the expression of “Previous hotel and holiday experiences”, it is seen that female tourists have a mean rank of 98,20 while male tourists have a mean rank of 123,73. In other words, importance level of the “Previous hotel and holiday experiences” expression for male tourists is higher than female tourists and the difference between them is statistically significant (Table 3).

Table 3

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Genders

Differing Expressions	Gender	n	Mean rank	U	p
Security	Female	114	119.84	4977.000	,014*
	Male	106	100.45		
Previous hotel and holiday experiences	Female	114	98.20	4640.000	,002*
	Male	106	123.73		

Table 4 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their education levels.

Table 4

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Education Levels

Differing Expressions	Education	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget	Primary School	11	72.73	13.658	,008*
	High School	88	102.99		
	College	46	94.35		
	University	18	110.28		
	Postgraduate	26	67.96		
Adult-only practice of the hotel	Primary School	11	104.18	20.089	,000*
	High School	88	108.25		
	College	46	83.67		
	University	18	54.33		
	Postgraduate	26	94.46		
Variety of the activities and facilities for the children at the hotel	Primary School	11	147	13.182	,010*
	High School	88	91.59		
	College	46	94.86		
	University	18	82.11		
	Postgraduate	26	93.73		
	Primary School	11	134.77		,007
	High School	88	83.53		

Previous hotel and holiday experiences	College	46	94.02	14.025	*
	University	18	108.78		
	Postgraduate	26	109.19		
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment	Primary School	11	89	10.158	,038*
	High School	88	107.76		
	College	46	84.63		
	University	18	76.14		
	Postgraduate	26	85.75		
Preferring a small hotel.	Primary School	11	128.64		
	High School	88	105.90		
	College	46	81.49	17.469	,002*
	University	18	64.19		
	Postgraduate	26	89.12		

In accordance with the results of Kruskal- Wallis H test which is carried out in order to determine the significance between education levels of the tourists and their hotel preferences, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists who are university graduates to the expression of “Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget” is higher than the others and the difference between them is statistically significant ($H=13.658$, $p=.008$). Moreover; mean of the statements of tourists who are primary school graduates to the expressions of “Variety of the activities and facilities for the children at the hotel” ($H=13.182$, $p=.010$), “Previous hotel and holiday experiences” ($H=14.025$, $p=.007$) and “Preferring a small hotel” ($H=17.469$, $p=.002$) is higher than the others and the differences between them are statistically significant. On the other hand; mean of the statements of tourists who are high school graduates to the expressions of “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” ($H=10.158$, $p=.038$) and “Adult-only practice of the hotel” ($H=20.089$, $p=.000$) is higher than the others and the difference between them is statistically significant.

Table 5 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their marital status.

Table 5

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Marital Status

Differing Expressions	Marital	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
Reviews on the internet about the comfort level of the hotel	Single	26	131,98	10,528	,032*
	Married	162	105,35		
	Partner	14	107,71		
	Divorced	7	69,43		
	Widow	8	145,19		

Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety	Single	26	132,19	12,705	,013*
	Married	162	102,36		
	Partner	14	104,75		
	Divorced	7	126,00		
	Widow	8	160,63		
Reviews on the internet about cleanliness	Single	26	153,19	21,098	,000*
	Married	162	99,86		
	Partner	14	122,93		
	Divorced	7	106,93		
	Widow	8	126,13		
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment	Single	26	104,69	12,165	,016*
	Married	162	108,46		
	Partner	14	153,48		
	Divorced	7	99,36		
	Widow	8	64,56		
Recreational facilities around the hotel	Single	26	103,19	10,451	,033*
	Married	162	108,37		
	Partner	14	149,52		
	Divorced	7	111,36		
	Widow	8	67,19		
Ease of travel distance from airport to hotel	Single	26	85,92	10,376	,035*
	Married	162	108,30		
	Partner	14	145,52		
	Divorced	7	126,43		
	Widow	8	113,31		
Recommendations about the hotel from travel agencies	Single	26	134,04	11,415	,022*
	Married	162	102,66		
	Partner	14	105,55		
	Divorced	7	158,64		
	Widow	8	118,13		
Recommendations from friends/family or relatives	Single	26	134,04	12,898	,012*
	Married	162	101,47		
	Partner	14	127,46		
	Divorced	7	103,57		
	Widow	8	152,50		

In accordance with the results of Kruskal - Wallis H Test, it is seen that mean of the statements of single tourists to the expression of “Reviews on the internet about cleanliness” ($H=21.098$, $p=.000$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For partner tourists, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” ($H=12.165$, $p=.016$), “Ease of travel distance from airport to hotel” ($H=10.376$, $p=.035$) and “Recreational facilities around the hotel” ($H=10.451$, $p=.033$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For divorced tourists, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expression of “Recommendations about the hotel from travel agencies” ($H=11.415$, $p=.022$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant just as the fact that mean of the

statements of widow tourists to the expressions of “Reviews on the internet about the comfort level of the hotel” ($H=10.528$, $p=.032$) “Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety” ($H=12.705$, $p=.013$) and “Recommendations from friends/family or relatives” ($H=12.898$, $p=.012$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant.

Table 6 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their travel partners.

Table 6

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which Affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Travel Partners

Differing Expressions	Travel with	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
All-inclusive concept	Alone	8	112,69	13,967	,007*
	Family	56	84,69		
	Friends	20	100,50		
	Partner	114	115,76		
	Other*	15	129,37		
Previous hotel and holiday experiences	Alone	8	69,81	12,279	,015*
	Family	56	114,39		
	Friends	20	79,23		
	Partner	114	107,08		
	Other*	15	135,67		
Ease of booking online	Alone	8	116,00	12,062	,017*
	Family	56	95,61		
	Friends	20	127,10		
	Partner	114	103,02		
	Other*	15	148,20		
Preferring a small hotel	Alone	8	85,25	11,764	,019*
	Family	56	87,75		
	Friends	20	100,90		
	Partner	114	116,10		
	Other*	15	129,47		
Adult-only practice of the hotel	Alone	8	110,38	18,789	,001*
	Family	56	78,79		
	Friends	20	124,25		
	Partner	114	116,70		
	Other*	15	113,80		
Security	Alone	8	62,94	18,172	,001*
	Family	56	91,58		
	Friends	20	141,50		
	Partner	114	109,38		
	Other*	15	124,00		
Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality	Alone	8	90,94	11,257	,024*
	Family	56	121,75		
	Friends	20	121,43		

and variety	Partner	114	102,88		
	Other*	15	72,57		
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment	Alone	8	91,94	10,432	,034*
	Family	56	91,92		
	Friends	20	100,18		
	Partner	114	119,04		
	Other*	15	88,90		
Recreational facilities around the hotel	Alone	8	72,88	10,419	,034*
	Family	56	103,85		
	Friends	20	96,08		
	Partner	114	116,82		
	Other*	15	76,87		

Ease of access to city center and interconnecting cities	Alone	8	127,00	12,469	,014*
	Family	56	87,67		
	Friends	20	116,33		
	Partner	114	116,53		
	Other*	15	83,63		
Accessibility of hotel building for elderly and disabled people	Alone	8	142,69	14,830	,000*
	Family	56	89,51		
	Friends	20	141,60		
	Partner	114	108,49		
	Other*	15	95,83		
Ease of travel distance from airport to hotel	Alone	8	148,56	16,618	,000*
	Family	56	83,77		
	Friends	20	132,40		
	Partner	114	111,43		
	Other*	15	104,07		
Adequacy of medical facilities	Alone	8	127,88	9,665	,046*
	Family	56	95,29		
	Friends	20	140,50		
	Partner	114	106,21		
	Other*	15	100,97		
Recommendations about the hotel from travel agencies	Alone	8	140,00	13,668	,008*
	Family	56	97,50		
	Friends	20	144,83		
	Partner	114	104,95		
	Other*	15	90,03		
Recommendations from friends/family or relatives	Alone	8	83,25	10,039	,040*
	Family	56	105,13		
	Friends	20	142,75		
	Partner	114	102,08		
	Other*	15	116,37		
*Other: 10 Wife, 5 Husband					

In accordance with the results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is carried out in order to determine the significance between travel partners of the tourists and their hotel preferences, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists who travel alone to the expressions of “Ease of access to city

center and interconnecting cities” ($H=12.469$, $p=.014$), “Accessibility of hotel building for elderly and disabled people” ($H=14.830$, $p=.005$) and “Ease of travel distance from airport to hotel” ($H=16.618$, $p=.002$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who travel with their friends, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “Security” ($H=18.172$, $p=.001$), “Adult-only practice of the hotel” ($H=18.789$, $p=.001$), “Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety” ($H=11.257$, $p=.024$), “Adequacy of medical facilities” ($H=9.665$, $p=.046$), “Recommendations about the hotel from travel agencies” ($H=13.668$, $p=.008$) and “Recommendations from friends/family or relatives” ($H=10.039$, $p=.040$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who travel with their partners, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” ($H=16.307$, $p=.007$) and “Recreational facilities around the hotel” ($H=10.419$, $p=.034$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who travel with “other” people, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “All-inclusive concept” ($H=13,967$, $p=.007$), “Previous hotel and holiday experiences” ($H=12,279$, $p=.015$), “Ease of booking online” ($H=12,062$, $p=.017$) and “Preferring a small hotel” ($H=11,764$, $p=.019$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant.

Table 7 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their holiday budgets. In accordance with the results of Kruskal-Wallis H test, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists who have a holiday budget less than 500£ to the expressions of “All-inclusive concept” ($H=8.953$, $p=.030$), “Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety” ($H=8.560$, $p=.036$), “Location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers” ($H=10.212$, $p=.017$) and “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” ($H=12.369$, $p=.006$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who have a holiday budget between 500£ and 1000£, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expression of “Ease of booking online” ($H=7.908$, $p=.048$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant.

Table 7

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Holiday Budgets

Differing Expressions	Holiday	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
-----------------------	---------	---	-----------	----------------	---

All-inclusive concept	Less than 500	5	118.00		
	500 -1000	58	71.72		

	1001-2000	76	77.14	8,953	,030*
	2001 and more	17	96.09		
Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety	Less than 500	5	107.50	8,560	,036*
	500 -1000	58	66.82		
	1001-2000	76	85.21		
	2001 and more	17	79.82		
Ease of booking online	Less than 500	5	73.00	7,908	,048*
	500 -1000	58	90.97		
	1001-2000	76	69.59		
	2001 and more	17	77.41		
Location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers	Less than 500z	5	114.00	10,212	,017*
	500 -1000	58	81.31		
	1001-2000	76	69.68		
	2001 and more	17	97.91		
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment	Less than 500	5	124.80	12,369	,006*
	500 -1000	58	78.71		
	1001-2000	76	70.57		
	2001 and more	17	99.65		

Table 8 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their holiday durations.

Table 8

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Holiday Durations

Differing Expressions	Holiday	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
Reviews on the internet about cleanliness.	7 Days	50	112,34	16,082	,001*
	8 - 13 Days	41	129,07		
	14 Days	109	94,19		
	15 Days and	8	70,00		
Reviews on the internet about the hotel in general	7 Days	50	114,01	8,816	,032*
	8 - 13 Days	41	119,59		
	14 Days	109	96,61		
	15 Days and	8	75,25		
Recreational facilities around the hotel	7 Days	50	106,05	9,663	,022*
	8 - 13 Days	41	102,37		
	14 Days	109	109,08		
	15 Days and	8	43,31		
Preferring a large hotel	7 Days	50	120,70	8,195	,042*
	8 - 13 Days	41	106,06		
	14 Days	109	99,04		

Recommendations from friends/family or relatives	15 Days and 8	69,63	11,084	,011*
	7 Days	50 113,83		
	8 - 13 Days	41 124,94		
	14 Days	109 93,26		
Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget	15 Days and 8	94,63	12,656	,025*
	7 Days	50 106,65		
	8 - 13 Days	41 129,93		
	14 Days	109 94,97		
	15 Days and 8	90,63		

In accordance with the results of Kruskal - Wallis H Test, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists who have a holiday duration of 7 days to the expression of “Preferring a large hotel” ($H=10.212$, $p=.017$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who have a holiday duration of 8-13 days, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “Reviews on the internet about cleanliness” ($H=16.082$, $p=.001$), “Reviews on the internet about the hotel in general” ($H=8.816$, $p=.032$), “Recommendations from friends/family or relatives” ($H=11.084$, $p=.011$) and “Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget” ($H=12.656$, $p=.025$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who have a holiday duration of 14 days, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expression of “Recreational facilities around the hotel” ($H=9.663$, $p=.022$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant.

Table 9 includes results of Kruskal-Wallis H test which is used in order to determine whether or not there is a significant level of difference in factors which affect hotel preferences of the foreign tourists in third age group participating in the research depending on their travel frequency.

Table 9

Analysis Results for Comparison of Factors which affect Hotel Preferences of the Participants Depending on Their Travel Frequency

Differing Expressions	Travel	n	Mean rank	X ²	p
Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget	1 time	40	99,35	17,427	,001*
	Twice	91	108,81		
	3 times	59	128,98		
	4 times and	26	75,02		
All-inclusive concept	1 time	40	88,58	17,314	,001*
	Twice	91	105,25		
	3 times	59	133,17		
	4 times and	26	94,56		
	1 time	40	60,29		
	Twice	91	114,43		

Adult-only practice of the hotel	3 times	59	130,04	36,392	,000*
	4 times and	26	113,02		
Discounts and packages	1 time	40	94,51	10,443	,015*
	Twice	91	115,01		
	3 times	59	119,58		
	4 times and	26	82,10		
Location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers	1 time	40	91,95	8,644	,034*
	Twice	91	113,13		
	3 times	59	120,75		
	4 times and	26	89,94		
Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment	1 time	40	87,29	8,909	,031*
	Twice	91	118,12		
	3 times	59	113,75		
	4 times and	26	95,56		
Ease of access to city center and interconnecting cities	1 time	40	88,39	10,577	,014*
	Twice	91	115,06		
	3 times	59	120,63		
	4 times and	26	88,96		
Preferring a small hotel	1 time	40	79,81	13,216	,004*
	Twice	91	119,05		
	3 times	59	115,98		
	4 times and	26	98,71		
Suitable weather temperature for health/medical conditions	1 time	40	84,11	14,264	,003*
	Twice	91	105,57		
	3 times	59	129,98		
	4 times and	26	107,54		
Recommendations from friends/family or relatives	1 time	40	105,75	7,872	,049*
	Twice	91	100,29		
	3 times	59	126,65		
	4 times and	26	100,27		

In accordance with the results of Kruskal - Wallis H Test, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists who travel 3 times a year to the expressions of “Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget” ($H=17.427$, $p=.001$), “All-inclusive concept” ($H=17.314$, $p=.001$), “Adult-only practice of the hotel” ($H=36.392$, $p=.000$), “Discounts and packages” ($H=10.443$, $p=.015$), “Location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers” ($H=8.644$, $p=.034$), “Ease of access to city center and interconnecting cities” ($H=10.577$, $p=.014$), “Suitable weather temperature for health/medical conditions” ($H=14.264$, $SD=3$, $p=.003$) and “Recommendations from friends/family or relatives” ($H=7.872$, $p=.049$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant. For the tourists who travel twice a year, it is seen that mean of the statements of tourists to the expressions of “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” ($H=8.909$, $p=.031$) and “Preferring a small hotel” ($H=13.216$, $p=.004$) is higher than the others and differences between them are statistically significant.

RESULT, DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

It is seen that the factors which affect hotel preferences of third age group tourists participating in the research are Hotel ambiance and atmosphere, Hotel prices suitable for holiday budget, Reviews on the internet about cleanliness, Photographs of the hotel on the internet, brochures and/or social media, Proximity to the beach and cleanliness of it, Reviews on the internet related to food and beverage quality and variety, Wi-fi access in the hotel and All-inclusive concept. Based on this fact, it is understood that participants use internet much and consider price, cleanliness and reviews on the internet in their hotel preferences. Similarly, Ozkan (2014) has also reviewed third age group tourists within the scope of thermal tourism and suggested that the most important factors affecting hotel and facility preferences of the tourists are front-office services, cleanliness, thermal pool and food and beverage quality.

Considering that most of third age group tourists who are 65 years old and above travel with their spouses or partners without taking their children with them, it is seen inevitable that such factors as the availability of health and beauty centers or availability of recreational areas and activities for children or the size of hotel are less preferred by them in their hotel preferences. Research results also show that tourists travelling with their spouses or partners pay much attention to such factors as “Location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” and “recreational activities around the hotel”. On the other hand, transportation issue is very important for third age group tourists who travel alone. Emir and Pekyaman (2010) have researched the factors which affect hotel preferences of the families with children and suggested that such factors as security, availability of beds and cupboards which are suitable for children in the rooms, availability of menus which are suitable for children in the restaurants, availability of children’s pool and safety rails for staircases as well as cleanliness are highly considered in their hotel preferences.

It is also suggested that female tourists consider the factor of security while male tourists consider previous holiday and hotel experiences in their preferences. Considering Turkey’s current status and preference of going abroad for holiday, it can be said that female tourists consider the factor of security while male tourists consider holiday experiences since they lead a much more comfortable life compared to females. Third age group tourists who are graduated from primary schools consider children activities, previous holiday experiences and preference of a small holiday in their hotel preferences while third age group tourists who are graduated from high schools consider entertainment and adult-only concept and third age group tourists who are graduated from universities consider the issue of price.

It is seen that only 5 participants save less than 500 sterling for their holiday budget and these people consider the factors of “All-inclusive concept”, reviews on the internet about food and beverage variety”, “location of hotel to outside restaurants and shopping centers” and “location of hotel to outside tourist attractions and entertainment” in their hotel preferences. It shows that

participants prefer spending their time close to the hotel instead of spending money for transportation. Similarly, Bernini and Cracolici (2015) suggest that elderly group have a high level of tendency of travelling much but a very low level of tendency of spending for tourism.

Moreover; it is seen that among third age group tourists, the ones who stay for 7 days consider the size of hotel while the ones who stay for 8-13 days consider budget and reviews on the internet about the hotel and the ones who stay for 14 days consider recreational activities around the hotel. It shows that participants' preferences change as the accommodation duration increases. Similarly, there is a direct proportion between tourists who travel twice a year and tourists who travel three times a year. Tourists who travel twice a year consider only the preferring a small hotel and entertainment centers around the hotel while tourists who travel three times a year consider the factors of budget, All-inclusive concept, adult-only concept, promotions, temperature and recommendations. Similarly, Alen et al (2014), has emphasized that third age group tourists have a higher level of tendency of travelling throughout the year although it is short term. Authors have researched factors which determine accommodation durations of third age group Spanish tourists and put forward that such factors as age, travelling objection, climate, accommodation type, group size and activities in destination are determining factors. On the other hand, You and O'Leary (2000) have researched third age market in Japan and addressed to the issue of behavioral changes and travelling tendencies of travelers as well as group comparison of Japanese tourists in third age group in terms of activity participation in destinations and travelling views. They have also suggested that third age travelling market is much more active compared to 10 years ago and travelling characteristics of this market have been gradually changing.

Research results indicate that hotel preferences of third age group tourists vary depending on their holiday experiences and such demographic characteristics as their gender, age, marital status, income level, education status, travel partner and travelling frequency. Similarly, Losada et al. (2016) have also researched the variables which affect travelling frequency of third age group Spanish tourists and concluded that such demographical variables as gender, income level and time affect their travelling frequencies. In this regard, Hotels providing service to third age group tourists must carry out their promotion, sales and marketing activities by considering demographical characteristics of target market, they must also respond to the expectations of third age group tourists and diversify their tourism products.

It should be noted that this study has some restrictions. First restraint is the fact that data collection is limited to the region and hotel. Data has been collected from third age group tourists staying in three hotels which are located in Marmaris District which is one of the leading holiday resorts of Mugla. Restricted research area prevents generalization of the results. Second restraint of the study is the fact that sampling is composed of only English tourists. Despite restraints in the study, it is

expected to make contributions to the literature and sector in terms of third age tourism. Further studies can be carried out among different groups and nationalities in different regions. Interviews can also be conducted with touristic enterprises which provide service to third age group tourists. Using such variables as his/her occupation before retirement, his/her house's being rental or his/her own, his/her partner's having income or not, more detailed studies can be conducted.

REFERENCES

- Alen E., Nicolau, J.L., Losada, N. and Dominquez T.(2014). Determinant Factors Of Senior Tourists' Length Of Stay, *Annals Of Tourism Research*, 49, 19-32.
- Bai, B., Jang, S., Cai, L. and O'Leary J.(2001). Determinants of travel mode choice of senior travelers to the United States. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*. 8(3), 147-168.
- Bernini C. and Cracolici M. F.(2015). Demographic Change, Tourism Expenditure And Life Cycle behaviour, *Tourism Management*. 47, 191-205.
- Cengiz, F.(2012). Uguncu Yaş Turistlere Yonelik Turistik Urun Analizi: Alanya uygulaması (Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi). Akdeniz Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Turizm işletmeciliği ve Otelcilik Ana Bilim Dalı, Antalya.
- Chen, S.C. and Shoemaker S.(2014). Age And Cohort Effects: The American Senior Tourism Market. *Annals Of Tourism Research*. 48, 58-75.
- Duru G. and Ozdemir L.(2009).Yaşlı intiharları, Nedenleri ve Onleyici Uygulamalar. *Saglik Bilimleri Fakultesi Hemşirelik Dergisi*.34-41
- Emir, O. and Pekyaman A.(2010). Qocuklu Ailelerin Otel işletmesi Segiminde Etkili Olan Faktorler: Afyonkarahisarda Bir Uygulama. *Yonetim ve Ekonomi*. 17(2), 159-181.
- Gundogdu, H. (2006).Yaşlılıkta Beslenme Durumu ve Nutrisyon Destegi. *Turkiye Klinikleri Dergisi*. 2(44), 10-19.
- Horneman, L., Carter, R., Wies, W. and Ruys, H. (2002). Profiling The Senior Traveler: An Australian Perspective. *Journal of Travel Research*. 41(1), 23-37.
- İgoz, O., Gunlu E., Yilmaz B.S., Aktaş G., Ozdogan O.N., Oter Z., Yilmaz D., Şahin N. (2007), "Genel Turizm" Turizmde Temel Kavramlar ve ilkeler. Ankara: Turhan Kitapevi.
- Jang, S. and Wu, C.(2006). Seniors' travel Motivation And the influential Factors: An Examination of Taiwanese Seniors. *Tourism Management*. 24, 561-574.
- Kalaycı Ş. (2016). SPSS Uygulamalı QokDeğişkenli istatistik Teknikleri. Ankara: Asil Yayınevi.
- Lee, S. H. and Tideswell C.(2005). Understanding Attitudes Towards Leisure Travel And Constraints faced By Senior Koreans. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*. 11(3), 249-263.
- Losada, N., Alen, E., Dominguez, T. and Nicolau, J. L. (2016). Travel Frequency of Seniors Tourists. *Tourism Management*. 53, 88-95.
- Mazzeo R.S., Cavanach P. and Evans W.J.(1998). ACSM Position Stand on Exercise and Physical Activity Older Adults. *Med Science Sports Exercise*. 39, 992-1008
- Nikitina O. and Vorontsova G. (2015). Aging Population and Tourism: Socially Determined Model of Consumer Behavior in the "Senior Tourism" Segment, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 214, 845 - 851.
- Norman W.C., Daniels M.J., McGuire F. and Norman C.A.(2001). Whither The Mature Market: An Empirical Examination Of The Travel Motivations Of Neo Mature And Veteran Mature Markets. *Journal Of Hospitality And Leisure Marketing*. 8(3), 113-130.

Ozkan A.(2014). Bir modern işletme yaklaşımı olarak dünya saglik ve uguncu yaş turizmi işletmelerinde müşteri tatmininin rolü: Bolu Karacasu 6rneđi,(Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi).Türk Hava Kurumu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, işletme Anabilim Dalı.

Patterson, I.(2006). “Growing Older” Tourism And Leisure Behaviour Of Older Adults. Cambridge: Cabi.

Pesonen, J., Komppula,R. and Riihinen A.(2015). Typology of senior travellers as users of tourism information technology. [Information Technology & Tourism](#). 15(3), 233-252.

Smith M., Maclead N. and Robertson M. (2010). *Key concepts in tourist studies*. Londra: Sage.

Sun, Y. C. and Morrison, A. M. (2007). Senior Citizens And Their Dining-Out Traits: Implications For Restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 26, 376-394.

You, X., O’Leary, J., Morrison, A. and Hong, G. (2000). A Cross-Cultural Comparison Of Travel Push And Pull Factors: UK Vs. Japan.

International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration. 59(1), 1- 26.

You, X. ve O’leary, J. T. (2000). Age and Cohort Effects: An Examination of Older Japanese Travelers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*. 9(1-2), 21-42.

INTERNET REFERENCES

<http://ec.europa.eu/DocsRoom/documents/6924>, Erişim Tarihi: 01.04.2016.

<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Download/Standard/Population/>, Erişim Tarihi: 25.03.2016

<http://www.muglakulturturizm.gov.tr/Eklenti/44405,aralik.pdf?0>,Erişim Tarihi:04.05.2016.

<http://www.tdk.gov.tr>, Erişim Tarihi: 15.04.2016.

<http://yigm.kulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,9854/sinir-giris-cikis-istatistikleri.html>, Erişim Tarihi: 10.04.2016.

MARKETING TO AN UNFRIENDLY AUDIENCE: EFFECT OF THE BRAND USA PROMOTIONAL VIDEO ON RUSSIAN TOURISTS

Lijuan Su University of Florida Gainesville, Florida, USA

Svetlana Stepchenkova University of Florida Gainesville, Florida, USA

Elena Schichkova Lobachevsky State University of Nizhni Novgorod Nizhni Novgorod, Russia

ABSTRACT

This study adopts a two-group pretest-posttest experimental design to investigate how Russian outbound tourists perceive the United States as a vacation destination in a situation of political and economic conflict between the two countries. Specifically, it examines how the Brand USA promotional materials influence tourists' perceptions of and attitudes toward the United States, as well as their intention to visit the country. Significant effect was identified with respect to perception of friendliness and overall attitude toward the United States. Negative affect was found to be a factor that moderates the influence of promotional materials.

Key Words: Animosity, Brand USA, Experimental Design, Land of Dreams, Negative Affect, Russian Tourists

INTRODUCTION

Tourism research in the context of strained bilateral relations between country-tourist market and country- destination has increased in recent years with the changing balance between peace and conflict in the world (Farmaki, 2017; Durko & Petrick, 2016). A number of recent contributions examined the traditionally accepted notion that tourism increased cultural understanding and positive attitudes. While some earlier studies found the evidence on the contrary (Milman, Reichel, & Pizam, 1990), it was generally accepted that tourism contributes to peace between the nations (Becken & Carmignani, 2016; Hobson & Ko, 1994). Tourism in the context of conflicts between divided countries, such as China and Taiwan (Chen, Lin, & Petrick, 2013; Chen, Lai, Petrick, & Lin, 2016) or South Korea and North Korea (Lee et al., 2012; Park, 2011), and countries with military conflicts, such as the United States and Afghanistan (Durko & Petrick, 2016) or Turkey and Israel (Alvarez & Campo, 2014) gained more attention.

To contribute to the "tourism in conflict" literature, this study is set in the Russia-U.S. context, where Russia is the tourism-generating region and the United States is the vacation destination.

The political and economic relations between Russia and the United States have deteriorated in the last several years, with the conflict culminating over the events in Ukraine and Crimea in 2014 and sanctions imposed on Russia by the “collective West.” At the time of this study, March 2016, the United States was one of the most disliked countries by the Russian people (Levada Center, 2016), and anti-American rhetoric of Russian officials and media was on the rise in Russia (Bruk, 2016). Data on the global image of the United States indicated that 81 percent of Russians held negative views about the country (Pew Research, 2015), yet tourist arrivals from Russia to the United States were seemingly unaffected (U.S. Dept. of Commerce, 2014). Thus, the objective of this study is to examine how Russian outbound tourists perceive the United States as a place to visit in a situation of conflict and whether promotional materials can positively impact their perceptions.

The study used the video “Land of Dreams” designed by Brand USA, a joint initiative of the National Travel and Tourism Office within the U.S. government and the U.S. Travel Association. The Brand USA initiative was the first centralized effort to promote the country to international tourists and increase the competitiveness of the United States. The core features of Brand USA are diversity, music and pop culture, vast natural resources, and an optimistic spirit (Hudson, 2014), while the message “fresh, welcoming and inclusive” highlights the “boundless possibilities of the United States” (Montgomery, 2011). The two-minute tourism commercial “Land of Dreams” was released on April 23, 2012, aimed at rebuilding destination perceptions to international tourists (Hudson, 2014). This video was distributed multiple times by traditional TV spots and quickly became popular with social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube (Yelaja, 2012).

However, given the standing and global influence of the United States in the world, the country’s policies are always in the spotlight, which can affect the image of the United States both positively and negatively. The November 2016 elections and the change of government and policies are the most recent examples. Can the negative perceptions and unfavorable attitudes be mitigated with the promotional information? If so, to what extent? These were the questions investigated in this study.

METHOD

Study Design and Sample

The study was conducted in March 2016 in Nizhni Novgorod, a large urban center in Russia. It targeted active Russian outbound tourists, and the sample was recruited through the city’s travel agencies. The requirement was that participants had to have travelled internationally at least once in two years prior to the study but never visited the United States. The sample had 139 participants.

The study adopted a two-group pretest-posttest experimental design, with random assignment of participants to the experimental (N=79) and control (N=60) groups. To test whether promotional materials can positively influence tourists' perceptions, the video clip "Land of Dreams" (www.visittheusa.com), the hallmark of national marketing campaign, was adopted as an intervention for the experimental group. The song from the clip was translated into Russian, and this translation was used as subtitles for the video. The control group was shown a video clip of the same length but unrelated to travel; it was about the university that hosted the study.

At the pretest, all participants were given the same survey. Survey items pertaining to this particular study included questions about (1) respondents' image of the United States; (2) level of negative affect toward the United States; overall attitude toward the country; (4) intention to visit the United States in the next five years; and (5) demographic characteristics.

The image and negative affect items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree, 7=Strongly Agree), with larger scores indicating a more favorable image and higher negative affect. The image of the United States was described in 12 items: *friendly country; open for everybody; diverse country; a country of unlimited opportunities; dynamic; innovative; unexpected; a free country; great outdoors; urban excitement; indulgence; and cultural crossroads*. The negative affect (animosity) measure included three items: *I feel resentful toward the United States; I dislike the United States; and I consider the United States an adversary of Russia*. The internal consistency of these three items was 0.910, and they were averaged to form the manifest variable of negative affect. This study classified participants into Low (1.00-3.67) and High (4.00-7.00) negative affect groups.

The overall attitude toward the United States (*What is your attitude towards the United States as a whole?*) and the intention to visit the country (*What is your desire to visit the United States as a tourist destination?*) were measured on a 10-point scale, with the larger scores indicating more favorable attitude and greater desire to visit. The demographic items included gender, age, education, income, life stage, and the number of trips beyond Russia and Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries in 3 years prior to the survey.

At the posttest, the groups were asked again about (1) their overall attitude toward the United States; (2) intention to visit the country in the next 5 years; and (3) image of the United States, with items' order rearranged to minimize the memory effect.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software program was employed for data analysis. First, the groups were compared on their perceptions of the United States image, level of

negative affect, attitude toward the United States, and intention to visit. The goal was to check whether both groups had the same baseline perception of image, overall attitude, and desire to visit the United States. The rationale was that if these perceptions were the same at the pretest, then any positive change in the experimental group at the posttest can be attributed to the treatment, provided that the control group did not demonstrate any positive change in the measured variables.

Next, perceptions of the 12 image items before and after the treatment were examined using t-test for matched pairs with Bonferroni correction to minimize the type 1 error. Twelve similar analyses instead of one multivariate analysis like MANOVA were preferred, as the study was equally interested in influence of promotional materials on every aspect of the United States image but the individual effects can be masked in MANOVA (Hair et al., 2013). Overall attitude and intention to visit at the pretest and posttest were also compared for both groups. Finally, the effect of the promotional video was evaluated using mixed between-within subject analysis of variance. The dependent variables were image variables, overall attitude, and intention to visit. For each analysis, the two factors were the treatment group (experimental or control) and the level of negative affect toward the United States (low or high).

RESULTS

The demographic profile of the sample is given in Table 1. No significant difference between the two groups was found in terms of gender (Chi-Square = 0.130, $df = 1$, $p = 0.719$) or number of trips abroad ($t = -1.221$, $df = 136.291$, $p = 0.224$). However, despite the random assignment, the experimental group was overall younger (Chi-Square = 11.773, $df = 1$, $p = 0.001$).

Table 1

Demographic Profile of Survey Respondents

Variable	Freq.	%	Variable	Freq.	%
Group (N=139)			Income (N=139)		
Control	60	43.2	<30 K	76	54.7
Experimental	79	56.8	>31 K	63	45.3
Gender(N=139)			Trip abroad in last 3 years	M=1.8	SD=1.90
Male	51	36.7	0	36	25.9
Female	88	63.3	1-3	84	60.43
			4-6	15	10.79
Age(N=139):	M=30.96,		7-9	4	2.9
Thirty and younger	83	59.7			
Above Thirty	56	40.3			

The two groups did not differ in the level of negative affect ($t = -1.421$, $df = 132.37$, $p = 0.158$),

overall attitude toward the United States ($t = 1.299$, $df = 137$, $p = 0.196$), or intention to visit the county ($t = -0.152$, $df = 137$, $p = 0.879$). Perceptions of the United States' image were also the same across all 12 dimensions (aBonfen-om= 0.004). Thus, the groups were considered equal prior to the intervention with respect to the variables of interest.

Using matched pair t-tests (see table 2), the control group did not exhibit statistically significant change in perceptions of the United States image (all p-values larger than 0.10, expect the unexpected perception), overall attitude toward the United States ($t = 1.457$, $p = 0.150$), or desire to visit the country ($t = 1.021$, $p = 0.311$). However, for the experimental groups, the perception of one image attribute, namely friendliness, significantly improved ($t = -6.865$, $df = 78$, $p = 0.000$). The change in the overall attitude was marginally significant ($t = -1.835$, $df = 78$, $p = 0.070$). Table 2 summarized the results of the analyses. Future test for the intention to visit the United States was excluded, because no significant difference was detected for that variable ($t = -0.331$, $df = 78$, $p = 0.741$).

Next, the effectiveness of the video on the perception of friendliness was compared with respect to age and gender. The group "Thirty and younger" demonstrated larger improvement in perception of friendliness ($t = -5.879$, $df = 56$, $p = 0.000$) as compared to the "Above Thirty" group ($t = -3.464$, $df = 21$, $p = 0.002$). Female participants also demonstrated the greater improvement ($t = -6.129$, $df = 48$, $p = 0.000$) in perception of friendliness than male ($t = -3.319$, $df = 29$, $p = 0.002$).

Table 2 Paired Sample T Test Results

	<u>The Experimental Group (N=79)</u>			<u>The Control Group (N=60)</u>		
	Mean difference	t	Sig.	Mean difference	t	Sig.
Friendly	-0.747	-6.865**	.000	-0.117	-1.187	.240
Open	-0.949	-1.437	.155	-0.100	-.973	.335
Diverse	0.190	.966	.337	-0.033	-.234	.816
Opportunities	-0.051	-.265	.792	0.083	.962	.340
Dynamic	0.114	.730	.467	0.150	1.069	.289
Innovative	0.114	.686	.495	0.100	.847	.401
Unexpected	-0.038	-.207	.836	0.400	2.424**	.018
Free	-0.051	-.290	.773	0.133	1.158	.252
Urban excitement	0.139	.860	.392	0.117	.961	.341
Great outdoors	-0.190	-1.092	.278	0.017	.207	.837
Indulgence	0.101	.560	.577	0.150	1.321	.192
Cultures	0.215	1.546	.126	0.133	1.342	.185
Attitude	-0.278	-1.835*	.070	0.167	1.457	.150
Intention to Visit	-0.051	-.331	.741	0.167	1.021	.311

** The absolute value of t is larger than 1.96, meaning significant at 95% confidence level.

* The absolute value of t is larger than 1.645, meaning significant at 90% confidence interval.

In the second phrase, two analyses of variance with repeated measures were performed to investigate differences between the experimental and control groups on the perception of friendliness and attitude towards the United States before and after the treatment.

The dependent variables were perception of friendliness before and after intervention, whilst the factor was the “conditions” (i.e., with two related groups: the low negative affect group, the high negative affect group). In the control group, there was no significant interaction effect ($F = 0.666$, $p = 0.418$) and no significant main effect ($F = 2.039$, $p = 0.159$) of negative affect and perception of friendliness: two groups had the same perception of friendliness before and after the treatment. While for the experimental group, there was no significant interaction effect ($F = 0.020$, $p = 0.888$), but there was significant main effect before and after ($F = 44.291$, $p = 0.000$): perception of friendliness increased significantly after treatment, for both the low negative affect group (Before Mean = 3.96; After Mean = 4.69) and the high negative affect group (Before Mean 2.67; After Mean = 3.43). And the effect size was large: partial eta squared = 0.365. The subsequent test for between-subject effects indicated there were significant differences between the low negative affect and high negative affect participants in the experimental and control groups ($p = 0.000$; $p = 0.000$). Then, the inspection of the mean scores indicated that the larger increase was found in the high negative affect group than in the low negative affect group. Figure 1 displayed the mean scores of perceptions of friendliness before and after in terms of experiment and negative affect groups.

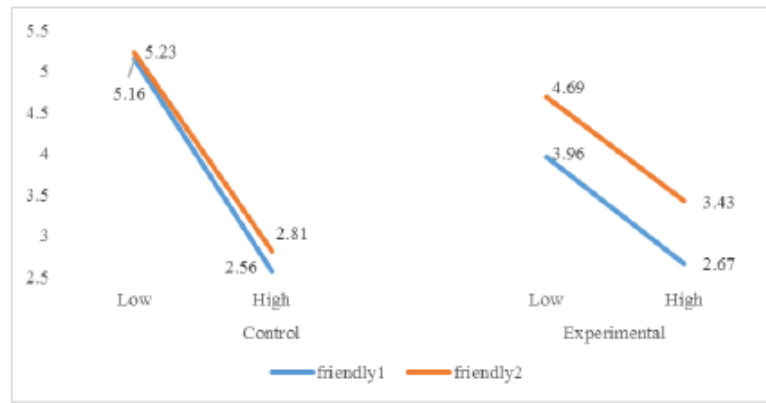
Table 3

Multivariate Test of Negative Affect and Perception of Friendliness

The Control Group (N=60) The Experimental Group(N=79)

		Wilks'	F	p	Partial	Eta	Wilks'	F	p	Partial	Eta
		Lambda			Squared		Lambda			Squared	
Friendly		.966	2.039	.159	.034		.635	44.291	.000	.365	
Friendly*	Negative	.989	.666	.418	.011		1.000	.020	.888	.000	
Affect											

Figure 1
Estimated Marginal Means of Friendliness Before and After

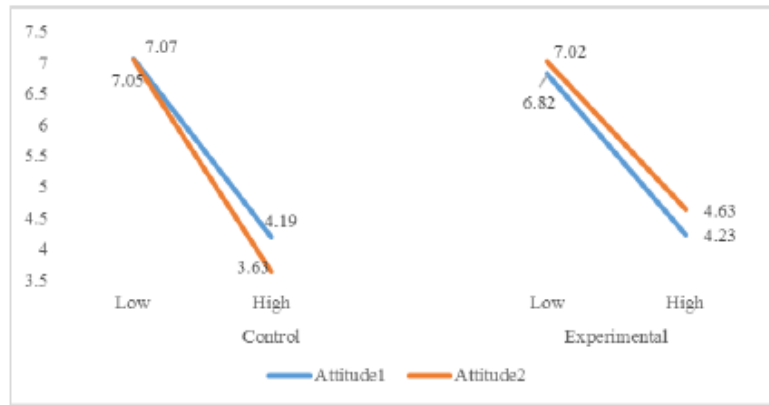


Another ANOVA with repeated measures was performed to investigate differences among the experimental and control groups' attitude change. In the control group, there was significant interaction effect ($F = 4.620$, $p = 0.036$) of negative affect and attitude: low negative affect group had the same attitude before and after; high negative affect group had worse attitude after watching unrelated video, and their comments told that they were irritated to go through the questions twice. There was also significant difference between attitude before and after ($F = 5.431$, $p = 0.023$): the attitude generally decreased, but the difference was small (Before $M = 6.30$; After Mean = 6.13; partial eta squared = 0.086). While for the experimental group, there was no significant interaction effect of negative affect and attitude ($F = 0.390$, $p = 0.534$), but there was marginally significant main effect ($F = 3.704$, $p = 0.058$): attitude increased for both the low negative affect group (Before Mean = 6.82; After Mean = 7.02) and the high negative affect group (Before Mean 4.23; After Mean = 4.63) after treatment. In the subsequent test for between-subject effects, there were significant differences between the low negative affect and high negative affect participants in the experimental and control groups ($p = 0.000$; $p = 0.000$). Then, the figure 2 depicted that the high negative affect group increased greater than the low negative affect group after intervention.

Table 4
Multivariate Test of Negative Affect and Attitude

	The Control Group (N=60)				The Experimental Group (N=79)			
	Wilks' Lambda	F	p	Partial Eta Squared	Wilks' Lambda	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Attitude	0.914	5.431	0.023	.086	0.954	3.704	0.058	.046
Attitude*Negative Affect	0.926	4.62	0.036	.074	0.995	0.39	0.534	.005

Figure 2
Estimated Marginal Means of Attitude Before and After



DISCUSSION

This study investigated how Russian tourists perceived the United States as a tourism destination in the context of conflict and how different levels of negative affect impacted the promotional video's effect. This study used the control group as a baseline to measure the effect of promotional materials, and further compared the influence on the low and high negative affect groups. Small effects were anticipated, as the intervention was only two minutes, very brief. However, even with such a brief intervention, the study was able to detect the effect of the promotional video.

The findings revealed that the majority of perceptions stayed the same after the treatment except the perception of friendliness. The perception of friendliness for female and people who are equal to or below thirty years old improved significantly after watching the promotional video. Specifically, the findings illustrated that the high negative affect group's perception of friendliness and attitude improved more than that of the low negative affect group.

These findings may provide some insights into the perception and attitude of Russian tourists on visiting the United States, and assist the U.S. government in branding the country as a whole. Although the overall intention to visit the United States changed little by this brief promotional video, a more specific marketing strategy could target this particular unfriendly potential market. Conflicts between destination and original countries may result in perceived risks and negative affect on tourists' purchase decision (Liu et al., 2016), but it may also bring benefit to tourism marketing. Although people tend to hold a negative feeling of destination country in the context of conflict, people with a high level of negative affect towards the destination country are more likely to change their attitude when they encounter tourism promotional materials. Those materials provide potential hostile tourists with the idea that they are welcome to the destination country. This might give some general implications to marketing and branding campaigns: (1) promoting to more hostile targeted markets may result in more significant effects than promoting to relatively

objective audiences; (2) marketing campaigns could emphasize displaying friendliness to hostile market, which is easier to achieve and benefit subsequent actions.

When it comes to limitations, this study recruited only 139 participants. After randomly distributing them into the experimental and control groups, the sample size of each group became relatively small. When this study further classified respondents with negative affect, the sample size of the low negative affect participants in the control group was sixteen. Besides, the demographic distribution between the experimental and control groups was not balanced. The experimental group was overall younger and relatively there were differences in education, income, and life stage. The simple random sampling could be adjusted to the stratified random sampling. For example, it could divide a population into subgroups with age attribute and then run the random sample process in each stratum. And for future researches, studies could examine the effect of "Land of Dreams" on other unfriendly countries and compare the differences among various scenarios, because Brand USA campaigns also takes some marketing actions to China and other countries, which are in different levels of conflict with the United States.

REFERENCES

- Alvarez, M. D., & Campo, S. (2014). The influence of political conflicts on country image and intention to visit: A study of Israel's image. *Tourism Management*, 40, 70-78.
- Becken, S., & Carmignani, F. (2016). Does tourism lead to peace?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 61, 63-79.
- Bruck, B. (2016). What's in a name? The Russian Understanding of Patriotism. Institute of Modern Russia. Last obtained on December 6, 2016 at http://imrussia.org/images/stories/Projects/Patriotism_2/boris-bruck-understanding-patriotism_ENG.pdf.
- Chen, C. C., Lin, Y. H., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). Social biases of destination perceptions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2), 240-252.
- Chen, C. C., Lai, Y. H. R., Petrick, J. F., & Lin, Y. H. (2016). Tourism between divided nations: An examination of stereotyping on destination image. *Tourism Management*, 55, 25-36.
- Durko, A., & Petrick, J. (2016). The Nutella Project: An Education Initiative to Suggest Tourism as a Means to Peace between the United States and Afghanistan. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(8), 1081-1093.
- Farmaki, A. (2017). The tourism and peace nexus. *Tourism Management*, 59, 528-540.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2013). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th ed. Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Hobson, J. P., & Ko, G. (1994). Tourism and politics: the implications of the change in sovereignty on the future development of Hong Kong's tourism industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(4), 2-8.
- Hudson, S. (2014). Selling America to the world: The case of Brand USA. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 3(2), 79-81.
- Lee, C. K., Bendle, L. J., Yoon, Y. S., & Kim, M. J. (2012). Thanatourism or peace tourism: Perceived value at a North Korean resort from an indigenous perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 71-90.
- Levada Center (June 3, 2016). Poll: Russians See US, Ukraine, Turkey as Top 3 Enemies. Last

accessed on September 7, 2016 at www.voanews.com/a/russia-levada-poll-us-ukraine-turkey/3360581.html.

- Liu, B., Schroeder, A., Pennington-Gray, L., & Farajat, S. A. (2016). Source market perceptions: How risky is Jordan to travel to?. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 5(4), 294-304.
- Milman, A., Reichel, A., & Pizam, A. (1990). The impact of tourism on ethnic attitudes: The Israeli-Egyptian case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(2), 45-49.
- Montgomery (2011). Brand USA launches as country's first-ever global consumer brand. Design Week, November 7, 2011. Last accessed at <http://www.designweek.co.uk/brand-usa-launches-as-countrys-first-ever-global-consumer-brand/3031641.article>. Park, H, Y. (2011). Shared national memory as intangible heritage: Re-imagining two Koreas as one nation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(2), 520-539.
- Pew Research (2015). "America's global image" by Wike, R., Stokes, B., & Poushter, J., June 23, 2015. Last accessed on August 23, 2015 at <http://www.pewglobal.org/2015/06/23/1-americas-global-image>.
- U.S. Department of Commerce (2014). International visitation to the United States: A statistical summary. National Travel and Tourism Office. Last accessed on August 23, 2015 at http://travel.trade.gov/outreachpages/download_data_table/2014_Visitation_Report.pdf
- Yelaja, P. (2012). New tourism ad makes U.S. look like Canada. CBC News. Last obtained on January 12, 2017 at <http://www.cbc.ca/news/world/new-tourism-ad-makes-u-s-look-like-canada-1.1186134>.

DIFFERENCES OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF LOCALS WHO SERVE IN TOURISM SECTOR BY BUSINESSES THEY WORK FOR

Seher Ceylan, Muhammet Emin Soydaş and Nuray Selma Ozdipciner
Pamukkale University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Communication skills of locals who serve in tourism sector are crucial for the sector since locals are the individuals who are directly communicating with tourists visiting the destination. The aim of this study is to determine whether there are any differences in communication skills of the locals who work in tourism sector depending on the businesses they work for. The scope of the study covers differences in communications skills of the locals depending on their job status, type of the business, ownership of the business and whether the hotel they work for has tourism operation license. Hypotheses of the study have been scaled with Likert scale. Significant differences have been determined between data that depend on the business locals work for and their attitudes towards communication skills as a result of the evaluation of the data gathered through questionnaire.

Keywords: Communication, Communication Skills, Locals, Tourism, Pamukkale

INTRODUCTION

Communication consists of conveying meanings through symbols, meaningful inference of meanings between sender and receiver, and information exchange (Gordon, 1997). It is also defined as the process of producing, conveying and perceiving messages with the purpose of conveying understandable meanings in the context of people sending messages to their surroundings and creating change in the attitudes and behaviors of people on the receiving side (Tutar et al., 2005). From this perspective, communication is considered as fundamental in relations between people in terms of learning, teaching, understanding, telling, affecting, being affected, sharing, owning etc. Hence communication acts as a foundation for human relations (Oray et al., 2011) and in its simplest terms, it is a process in which information are conveyed from one person or group to another person or group (Lewis et al., 1995).

Communication skills are considered as fundamental skills in businesses; a higher level of communication skills means a higher level of management skills and this, in turn, facilitates social adaptation (Penley et al., 1997). Although there are those who believe communication skills are innate characteristics, many studies indicate that these skills are learnable and teachable characteristics (Buckman, 2001). Since interpersonal relations are conducted through communication, the skill of the individual realized through her own way of expressing herself affects emotions, thoughts and behaviors of the individual who is on the receiving end of the communication process (Neese, 1997).

Tourism is considered as an important industry in the process of cultural exchange and influence between countries as well as in guiding cross-cultural communication; tourism activities become important in understanding convergences and differences between these cultures (Bakan & Erşahan, 2007). Today, tourism has become one of the largest service industries in the world and it is also a social event increasing relations and interactions between people of various cultures and values as a big market due to its structural characteristics as well as an important industry due to its economical, social, cultural, environmental and political influences (Avcikurt, 2009). Tourism activities take place in a particular environment; this environment is also used by the local people and tourism movement affects lives of the locals in socio-economical, cultural and environmental terms with its multi-dimensional and variable nature by becoming part of their lives (Alaeddinoglu, 2007).

LITERATURE

Locals' approach to tourists plays an important role in the development of tourism in a destination along with the destination's natural, historical and cultural environment. The development of tourism depends to a large extent on the goodwill of locals and tourists contribute the development of tourism in the region if tourism perception of the locals is positive (Cengiz & Kirkbir, 2007). Hundreds of studies have been conducted on the attitudes of locals towards tourism in the last thirty years (Nunkoo et al., 2013). However not one of these studies was directed at the communication skills of the locals. There are some studies in the literature directed at communication skills and indirectly at the communication of locals. Korkut (1996) indicates that interpersonal relations depend on communication and healthy communication makes for deep, meaningful and satisfying interpersonal relations. Korkut also emphasizes that communication skills are learnable, observable, measurable, repeatable and learnable skills; that gender differences gain importance in the learning process of these skills, and that communication skills

may be assessed through rating scale (Korkut, 1996).

In their studies, Avci and Sayilir (2006) have analyzed four dimensions, namely professional knowledge/expertise, communication skills, problem solving/work skill and attitudes, of employees of accommodation businesses in particular in terms of providing customer satisfaction. They have concluded that employees' communication skills were inadequate and that this would create a problem in scope of customer satisfaction and service quality. In another study involving foreign tourists visiting southwestern region of Turkey, the kinds of complaints tourists make have been analyzed along with how and where these complaints were made and what kinds of suggestions did they have for resolving these complaints; the complaints have been determined to concentrate especially on matters such as behaviors of locals, harassments during shopping and hygiene (Kozak, 2007). Studying expectations of tourists who visit Gökçeada and the level of fulfillment of these expectations, Çakici and Aksu (2006) have determined that tourists who visit Gökçeada have experienced significant discontentment in the matter of communication with the locals. Ekiz and Koker (2010) have studied distinct complaining behaviors of tourists and limiting factors of complaints and they have concluded that especially communication was an important factor facilitating interaction between two different cultures in the context of tourists and locals who live at the destination (Ekiz and Koker, 2010). Avci et al. (2007) have studied socio-cultural influences of tourism and emphasized the importance of the development of effective communication systems for the locals as well as of the qualifications and education of the people who provide service to tourists in increasing positive socio-cultural influences of tourism (Avci et al., 2007). Dealing with the subject of interaction between tourists and locals in Beypazari, Çetin (2009) has urged upon the requirements of cooperation with the locals, an active role for locals in all tourism activities and education of locals to enable them to communicate effectively with tourists for the development of tourism in the region. Gunlu (2001) remarks personal, physical and semantic factors as well as time and various perceptions influence communication when interpersonal relations are in question and communication skills are one of the variables influencing the process of communication. From this perspective, the requirements of improving communication skills of employees and using effective communication techniques are emphasized in tourism products and tourism businesses due to their characteristics involving communication (Gunlu, 2001).

STUDY

The aim of this study is to analyze whether there are any differences between communication skills of the locals who earn income from tourism and information related to their place of work. The scope of the study covers differences in communications skills of the locals depending on their job status, type of the business, ownership of the business and whether the business they work for has tourism operation license. Data used in the study has been gathered through questionnaire and hypotheses have been scaled with Likert scale. T-test and Anova tests have been implemented to determine differences. Scheffe test has been implemented to determine differences between groups.

Communication skills scale has been adapted from Communication Skills Inventory (Cronbach alpha: 0,76) by Fidan Korkut consisting of 43 statements which has been used in domestic and international literature before and the validity and reliability of which have been confirmed (Korkut, 1996). The number of population is 3,357 in total, 1,135 of which in Karahayit and 2,222 of which in Pamukkale (www.nufusu.com). Although the size of the sample regarding local population was 381 according to the formula developed by Ryan (1995) (Yayli & Ozturk, 2006), 500 questionnaires have been distributed against the risk of missing or extreme values and the number of questionnaires which have been taken under consideration has been determined as 437 with the faulty ones and the ones that have not been returned. The most significant limitation of the study is that it was conducted only for Pamukkale destination, so it is specific to the said destination and therefore generalization is not possible.

FINDINGS

Demographical Factors of Locals

Table 1. Demographical factors of locals

<u>Demographical factors</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage (%)</u>	<u>Demographical factors</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage (%)</u>
<u>Gender</u>			<u>Business Ownership</u>		
Woman	148		Self-owned	109	24.9
Man	289	33.9	Other owner	325	74.4
		66.1			
<u>Job Status</u>			<u>Tourism Operation License</u>		
Business owner	49		Yes	197	45.1
Accommodation	70	11.2	No	237	54.2
Food and beverages	113	16.0			
Other	60	25.9			
		13.7			
<u>Business Type</u>					
Bed&Breakfast/Apart-Hotel	77				
Hotel	199	17.6			
Restaurant	46	45.5			
Café	23	10.5			
Gift shop	34	5.3			
Other	58	7.8			
		13.3			

Demographical findings of locals who filled the questionnaire are indicated in Table 1. Locals who filled the questionnaire consist of 33.9% women and 66.1% men. When business type locals work for is considered, business types are observed to consist of 17.6% BBs and apart- hotels, 45.5% hotels, 10.5% restaurants, 5.3% cafes, 7.8% gift shops and 13.3% other business types. When ownerships of the businesses participant locals work for are considered, 24.9% are observed to work in their own businesses while 74.4% are observed to work in businesses owned by others. Analyzing job statuses of the participants revealed that 49 of them were managers/owners, 70 were working in accommodation services, 113 were working in food and beverages, and 60 were working in other services (textile, market, buffet, taxi, minibuss, masseuse, animation etc.). According to these data, 11.2% of participants were managers/business owners while 16% were providing accommodation services, 25.9% were providing food and beverage services, and 13.7% were providing other services. Whether businesses participants work for have tourism operation

license have also been analyzed and it was found that 45.1% were working for businesses with tourism operation licenses while 54.2% were working for businesses without tourism operation license.

Differences regarding job statuses of the locals

Differences between job statuses of locals and their ratings of their own communication skills have been analyzed and the results have been given in Table 2.

Table 2. Differences regarding job statuses of the locals

Attitude statement	Business owner Manager	Worker in accommoda tion sector	Worker in Food&beve rages sector	Worker in other sectors	Scheffe	F	P
I have difficulty in conveying my opinions.	2,6122	2,0143	2,2566	2,1000	-	2,926	0,034
There are times when I don't listen what tourists say even though I look at their face.	3,0204	2,3043	2,5315	2,2500	1,2 1,4	3,694	0,012
I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with mine.	3,0851	2,3000	2,3717	2,2203	1,2-1,3 1,4	4,946	0,002
I try to control tourists.	3,7347	2,6429	2,5982	2,7167	1,2-1,3 1,4	9,464	0,000
I listen to suggestions coming from tourists.	3,9592	4,3286	4,1593	3,8833	2,4	3,225	0,023
It's hard for me to apologize to tourists.	2,7959	2,1429	2,0179	2,2500	1,3	3,995	0,008
I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists.	2,5306	1,9143	2,0265	2,4068	1,2	4,138	0,007
I adjust my tone of voice according to the subject.	3,4375	3,8696	4,0536	3,6667	1,3	4,976	0,002
I think I am apathetic against tourists.	2,918	2,2571	2,1327	2,3000	1,2-1,3	5,194	0,002
I don't shy away from taking the initiative while talking.	4,0208	3,8676	4,0885	3,6167	3,4	3,403	0,018
I try to understand the willingness of tourists for listening.	4,0833	3,9265	3,9643	3,7000	-	1,873	0,020

Attitude statement	Business owner Manager	Worker in accommoda tion sector	Worker in Food&beve rages sector	Worker in other sectors	Scheffe	F	P
I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer.	2,7551	1,8000	2,0796	2,1000	1,2-1,3-1,4	6,709	0,000
I try to understand the willingness of tourists for talking.	4,0204	3,7143	4,0893	3,9333	2,3	2,875	0,037
I like to communicate with tourists.	4,3878	4,0571	4,3894	4,0833	2,3	4,305	0,005
1-Business owner/Manager 2-Worker in accommodation sector 3-Worker in food&beverages sector 4-Worker in other sectors							

Participants who are managers/business owners agree with the statements of “I have difficulty in conveying my opinions” ($F=2,926$ $p<0,034$), “I judge tourist’s emotions if they are in conflict with mine” ($F=4,946$ $p<0,002$), “I try to control tourists” ($F=9,464$ $p<0,000$), “I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer” ($F=6,709$ $p<0,000$) more than the workers in accommodation, food & beverages and other sectors.

It’s observed that managers/business owners agree with the statement of "There are times when I don't listen what tourists say" ($F=3,694$ $p<0,012$) more than workers in accommodation sector and other sectors; that managers/business owners agree with the statement of "It's difficult for me to apologize to tourists" ($F=3,995$ $p<0,008$) more than workers in food & beverages sector; that managers/business owners agree with the statement of “I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists” ($F=4,138$ $p<0,007$) more than workers in accommodation sector; that managers/business owners agree with the statement of “I think I am apathetic against tourists” ($F=5,194$ $p<0,002$) more than workers in accommodation and food & beverages sectors; that managers/business owners agree with the statement of “I try to understand the willingness of tourists for listening” ($F=1,873$ $p<0,020$) more than workers working in other statuses. It was also observed that accommodation sector workers agree with the statement of “I listen to suggestions coming from tourists” ($F=3,225$ $p<0,023$) more than workers working in other sectors.

The results showed that workers in food & beverages sector agree with the statement of “I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of the subject” ($F=4,976$ $p<0,002$) more than the ones who are managers/business owners; that workers in food & beverages sector agree with the statement of “I don’t shy away from taking the initiative while talking with tourists" ($F=3,403$ $p<0,018$) more than workers in other sectors; that workers in food & beverages sector agree with the statement of “I try to understand the willingness of tourists for talking” ($F=2,875$ $p<0,037$)

more than the ones working in accommodation sector; and that workers in food & beverages sector agree with the statement of “I like to communicate with tourists” ($F=4,305$ $p<0,005$) more than workers in accommodation sector.

Differences of locals according to business types they work for

Differences between the business types locals work for and their ratings of their own communication skills have been given in Table 3.

Table 3. Differences of locals according to business types they work for

Attitude statement	Bed&breakfast Apartment	Hotel	Rest.	Café	Gift shop	Gift shop	Other	Scheffe	F	p
I have difficulty in conveying my opinions to tourists.	2,4675	2,0804	2,3043	2,9565	2,2059	2,4828	2,4	3,387	0,005	
I intentionally do things that will comfort tourists when I am talking to them.	3,7763	3,8744	3,6087	3,2174	3,1765	3,2241	2,6	4,928	0,000	
I pay attention to whether tourists are open to suggestions or not.	3,8421	4,0152	3,8261	3,3478	3,3824	3,6140	-	3,984	0,002	
I can establish an effective eye contact while communicating with tourists.	3,8421	4,0355	3,4565	3,8261	3,6176	3,7018	-	2,806	0,017	
I try to understand the feelings of the tourist in front of me by putting myself in their shoes.	3,6842	4,0863	4,0000	4,0000	3,5758	3,8103	-	2,333	0,042	
I can manage to gather my attention on tourists.	3,9342	3,9246	3,8261	3,8636	3,9795	3,3966	2,6	2,698	0,020	
I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say.	3,8947	4,1117	3,8000	3,5652	3,7647	3,7586	-	2,306	0,044	
I feel like I am understood by the tourists I communicate with.	3,5526	3,9133	3,3696	3,2727	3,5882	3,6207	-	3,150	0,008	
I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are talking.	2,3784	1,8191	2,4130	2,3913	2,3529	2,0345	1,2	4,451	0,001	
I feel bored when listening to tourists.	2,6104	2,1055	2,3409	3,0870	2,3333	2,3103	2,4	3,807	0,002	
I can snap at tourists in a way that will ruin my relations with them.	2,3117	1,9242	2,2174	2,4348	2,5313	1,9123	-	2,790	0,017	
I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists.	3,7143	4,1250	3,4000	3,7143	3,7941	3,4655	2,3 2,6	6,611	0,000	
I respect tourists' opinions even when I don't share them.	3,6234	4,2424	3,5652	4,0870	3,9394	3,9298	1,2 2,3	5,822	0,000	
There are times when I don't listen what tourists say.	2,8421	2,3214	2,7174	3,2727	2,6765	2,4655	-	3,404	0,005	
I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with mine.	2,7368	2,2613	2,9545	3,2174	2,6364	2,6250	2,4	4,433	0,001	
I generally recognize tourists' right to speak.	3,8052	4,2778	3,8696	3,9565	3,7941	4,0702	1,2	3,787	0,002	
I try to control tourists.	2,9481	2,5758	2,9333	3,3478	3,1212	3,3684	2,6	4,455	0,001	
I listen to suggestions coming from tourists.	3,7532	4,2663	3,9130	3,6957	4,0294	3,8276	1,2	4,456	0,001	
I convey my criticisms without hurting tourists.	3,8312	4,2030	4,0000	3,5217	4,2941	3,8966	-	4,148	0,001	
It's hard for me to apologize to tourists.	2,8571	1,9246	2,7556	2,6957	2,6765	2,8448	1,2 2,3 2,6	9,000	0,000	
I take care not to interrupt tourists when listening to them.	3,5195	4,0812	4,0000	3,1739	4,1176	3,7544	1,2 2,4	5,490	0,000	
I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am listening.	3,5526	4,0152	3,9111	3,5652	3,9412	3,5965	1,2	3,698	0,003	
I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with someone of the opposite sex.	2,3117	1,7919	2,2826	3,0000	2,2353	2,6379	2,4 2,6	7,904	0,000	
I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists.	2,5789	1,8636	2,5435	2,7826	2,7353	2,6207	1,2-2,3 2,4-2,5	9,365	0,000	
I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of the subject.	3,5455	4,0556	3,7045	3,6087	3,6471	3,3448	1,2-2,6	5,953	0,000	
I feel annoyed when I am interrupted when talking to tourists.	3,5867	3,0653	3,5778	3,4783	3,5882	3,3621	-	2,865	0,015	
I welcome each tourist with positive expectations.	3,8961	4,2030	3,9565	3,6522	4,1515	4,0517	-	2,241	0,049	
I try to understand tourist's problem rather than his/her attitude.	3,6974	4,1574	3,9333	3,6957	3,7941	3,7241	1,2	4,627	0,000	

Attitude statement	Bed&breakfast Apart-	Hotel	Rest.	Café	Gift shop	Gift shop Other	Scheffe	F	p
I think I am apathetic against tourists.	2,6234	2,0352	2,4348	3,3478	2,6765	2,8793	1,2-2,4 2,6	9,288	0,000
I get glad when I am understood by tourists.	3,7532	4,1558	4,1087	3,6957	3,9118	3,9483	-	2,700	0,020
I easily admit my wrong attitudes and behaviors.	3,2973	3,7940	3,7174	3,2609	3,4706	3,7586	-	2,907	0,014
I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer.	2,5844	1,8442	2,4783	2,7391	2,4848	2,5000	1,2-2,4 2,6	7,632	0,000

1- Bed&Breakfast/Apart-hotel 2-Hotel 3-Restaurant 4-Café 5-Gift Shop 6- Other (textile, market, buffet)

It's observed that participants who work in cafes agree with the statements of "I have difficulty in conveying my opinions to tourists" ($F=3,387$ $p<0,005$) and "I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with mine" ($F=4,433$ $p<0,001$) more than the ones who work in hotels; and with the statement of "There are times when I don't listen to what tourists say even though I look at their face" ($F=3,404$ $p<0,005$) more than workers who work for all the other business types. Workers who work in gift shops agree with the statements of "I can snap at tourists in a way that will ruin my relations with them" ($F=2,790$ $p<0,017$), "I convey my criticisms without hurting tourists" ($F=4,148$ $p<0,001$) and "I feel annoyed when I am interrupted when talking to tourists" ($F=2,865$ $p<0,015$) more than workers who work for all the other business types.

Participants who work in hotels agree with the statements of "I pay attention to whether tourists are open to suggestions or not" ($F=3,984$ $p<0,002$), "I can establish an effective eye contact while communicating with tourists" ($F=2,806$ $p<0,017$), "I try to understand the feelings of the tourist in front of me by putting myself in their shoes" ($F=2,333$ $p<0,042$), "I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say" ($F=2,306$ $p<0,044$), "I feel like I am understood by the tourists I communicate with" ($F=3,150$ $p<0,008$), "I welcome each tourist with positive expectations" ($F=2,241$ $p<0,049$), "I get glad when I am understood by tourists" ($F=2,700$ $p<0,020$) and "I easily admit my wrong attitudes and behaviors" ($F=2,907$ $p<0,014$) more than workers of all the other business types

In addition, hotel employees agree with the statements of "I intentionally do things that will comfort tourists when I am talking to them" ($F=4,928$ $p<0,000$), "I can manage to gather my attention on tourists' interests" ($F=2,698$ $p<0,020$) more than workers of other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.); with the statement of "I feel bored when listening to tourists" ($F=3,807$ $p<0,002$) more than the ones who work in cafes; with the statement of "I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists" ($F=6,611$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in restaurants and

other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.); with the statement of “I respect tourists’ opinions even when I don’t share them” ($F=5,822$ $p<0,000$) more than the participants who work in BBs/apart-hotels and restaurants; with the statements of “I generally recognize tourists’ right to speak” ($F=3,787$ $p<0,002$), “I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am listening” ($F=3,698$ $p<0,003$), “I try to understand tourist’s problem rather than his/her attitude” ($F=4,627$ $p<0,000$) and “I listen to suggestions coming from tourists” ($F=4,456$ $p<0,001$) more than the ones who work in BBs/apart-hotels; with the statement of “I take care not to interrupt tourists when listening to them” ($F=5,490$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in cafes and BBs/apart-hotels; with the statement of “I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of the subject” ($F=5,953$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in BBs/apart-hotels and in other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.).

Participants who work in BBs/apart-hotels, restaurants and other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.) have been observed to agree with the statements of “It’s hard for me to apologize to tourists” ($F=9,000$ $p<0,000$) and “I think I am apathetic against tourists” ($F=9,288$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in hotels. Workers in cafes and other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.) have been observed to agree with the statement of “I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with someone of the opposite sex” ($F=7,904$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in hotels. Workers in all the other fields have been found to agree with the statement of “I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists” ($F=9,365$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in hotels.

Workers of BBs/apart-hotels, cafes and other fields (textile, market, buffet etc.) have been observed to agree with the statement of “I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer” ($F=7,632$ $p<0,000$) more than the ones who work in hotels, so they had more tendency to ask sudden questions to tourist which they would have hard time to answer. Workers in other fields (textile, market buffet etc.) have been observed to agree with the statement of “I try to control tourists” ($F=4,455$ $p<0,001$) more than the ones who work in hotels. Workers in BBs/apart-hotels have been observed to agree with the statement of “I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are talking” ($F=4,451$ $p<0,001$) more than the ones who work in hotels.

Differences of locals according to ownership of business they work for

Differences between the ownership of business locals work for and their ratings of their own communication skills have been given in Table 4.

Table 4. Differences of locals according to ownership of business they work for

Attitude statements	Self-owned	Business owned by others	F	P
I have difficulty in conveying my opinions to tourists	2,4954	2,2092	12,047	0,031
I try to understand feelings of the one in front of me by	3,7248	3,9875	6,786	0,036
I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say.	3,6944	4,0124	10,050	0,007
I feel like I am understood by the tourists I communicate	3,3981	3,7882	6,750	0,002
I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are	2,2752	2,0155	2,024	0,049
I feel bored when listening to tourists.	2,5278	2,2446	0,365	0,043
I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists.	3,5833	3,9241	10,763	0,003
There are times when I don't listen what tourists say	2,7798	2,4781	0,517	0,045
I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with	2,8476	2,4520	0,960	0,008
I try to control tourists.	3,3645	2,6904	0,333	0,000
I listen to suggestions coming from tourists.	3,8532	4,0862	6,309	0,041
It's hard for me to apologize to tourists.	2,9074	2,2308	0,832	0,000
I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am	3,6574	3,9068	9,237	0,025
I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with someone	2,3945	2,0650	0,379	0,019
I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists.	2,5688	2,1858	2,258	0,005
I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of	3,3761	3,9130	19,845	0,000
I try to understand tourist's problem rather than his/her	3,7570	3,9969	2,218	0,019
I think I am apathetic against tourists.	2,8165	2,2708	10,031	0,000
I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would	2,6111	2,0985	7,789	0,000

Participants *who own the business they work for* agree with the statements of “I have difficulty in conveying my opinions to tourists” ($p<0.031$), “I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are talking” ($p<0,043$), “I feel bored when listening to tourists” ($p<0.030$), "There are times when I don't listen what tourists say even though I look at their face" ($p<0,045$), “I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with mine” ($p<0,008$), “I try to control tourists” ($p<0,000$), “I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with someone of the opposite sex” ($p<0,019$), “I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists” ($p<0,005$), “I think I am apathetic against tourists” ($p<0,000$),

“It’s hard for me to apologize to tourists” ($p<0,000$), “I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer” ($p<0,000$) more than the others while *workers* agree with the statements of “I try to understand the feelings of tourist in front of me by putting myself in their shoes” ($p<0,036$), “I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say” ($p<0,007$), “I feel like I am understood by the tourists I communicate with” ($p<0,002$), “I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists” ($p<0,003$), “I listen to suggestions coming from tourists” ($p<0,041$), “I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am listening” ($p<0,025$), “I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of the subject” ($p<0,000$), “I try to understand tourist’s problem rather than his/her attitude” ($p<0.019$) more than the others.

Differences of locals according to the operation license of the business they work for

Differences between tourism operation license of the business locals work for and their communication skills are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Differences of locals according to the operation license of the business they work for

Attitude statement	There is an operation license	No operation	F	p
I have difficulty in conveying my opinions to tourists.	2,0508	2,4684	41,235	0,000
I intentionally do things that will comfort tourists	3,8629	3,4788	22,205	0,001
I pay attention to whether tourists are open to	3,9898	3,6894	16,821	0,003
I can establish an effective eye contact while	3,9846	3,7447	5,506	0,026
I try to understand the feelings of the tourist in front of	4,0714	3,7983	5,318	0,013
I can manage to gather my attention on tourists’	3,9543	3,7106	12,856	0,015
I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say.	4,1179	3,7787	11,263	0,001
I don’t like criticisms of tourists.	2,5825	3,0213	5,086	0,001
I feel like I am understood by the tourists I	3,9330	3,5106	16,254	0,000
I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are	1,7766	2,3333	10,688	0,000
I feel bored when listening to tourists.	2,1015	2,5000	4,607	0,001
I can snap at tourists in a way that will ruin my	1,8827	2,2735	2,549	0,001

I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists.	4,1088	3,6104	37,607	0,000
I respect tourists' opinions even when I don't share	4,2551	3,7617	12,428	0,000
There are times when I don't listen what tourists say	2,2887	2,7532	3,228	0,000
I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with	2,2234	2,8095	5,828	0,000
I generally recognize tourists' right to speak.	4,2843	3,8809	14,648	0,000
I repeat my message using other words when tourists	4,1015	3,9068	2,120	0,042
I try to understand tourists.	4,2741	4,0128	3,070	0,004
I try to control tourists.	2,5918	3,0769	0,000	0,000
I listen to suggestions coming from tourists.	4,2690	3,8312	15,664	0,000
I convey my criticisms without hurting tourists.	4,2103	3,9030	2,512	0,001
It's hard for me to apologize to tourists.	1,8934	2,8263	16,286	0,000
I take care not to interrupt tourists when listening to	4,0205	3,7797	3,801	0,027
I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am	4,0153	3,6838	14,394	0,001
I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with	1,7755	2,4576	17,547	0,000
I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists.	1,8571	2,6144	18,382	0,000
I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature	4,0615	3,5424	36,679	0,000
I feel annoyed when I am interrupted when talking to	3,0355	3,5385	0,288	0,000
I welcome each tourist with positive expectations.	4,1786	3,9660	0,219	0,025
I try to understand tourist's problem rather than his/her	4,1523	3,7597	12,333	0,000
I think I am apathetic against tourists.	2,0914	2,6793	10,464	0,000
I get glad when I am understood by tourists.	4,1574	3,8903	3,479	0,004
I don't shy away from taking the initiative while	3,9538	3,7064	32,537	0,019
I easily admit my wrong attitudes and behaviors.	3,8071	3,5000	19,059	0,006

Attitude statement	There is an operation	No operation	ft	Ft
I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer.	1,8680	2,5169	8,401	0,000
I put myself in the shoes of the other and try to understand their opinions.	4,0051	3,7924	6,013	0,015
I try to understand whether tourists are willing to talk.	4,0051	3,7637	7,147	0,008

Participants to the questionnaire who *work in hotels with operation licenses* agree more with the statements of “I intentionally do things that will comfort tourists when I am talking to them” ($p<0,001$), “I pay attention to whether tourists are open to suggestions or not” ($p<0,003$), “I can establish an effective eye contact while communicating with tourists” ($p<0,026$), “I try to understand the feelings of the tourist in front of me by putting myself in their shoes” ($p<0,013$), “I can manage to gather my attention on tourists’ interests” ($p<0,015$), “I spare enough time to listen what tourists want to say” ($p<0,001$), “I feel like I am understood by the tourists I communicate with” ($p<0,000$), “I form correct sentences when speaking to tourists” ($p<0,000$), “I respect tourists’ opinions even when I don’t share them” ($p<0,000$), “I generally recognize tourists’ right to speak” ($p<0,000$), “I repeat my message using other words when tourists don’t understand it” ($p<0,042$), “I try to understand tourists” ($p<0,004$), “I listen to suggestions coming from tourists” ($p<0,000$), “I convey my criticisms without hurting tourists” ($p<0,001$), “I take care not to interrupt tourists when listening to them” ($p<0,027$), “I direct questions to better understand the tourist I am listening” ($p<0,001$), “I can adjust my tone of voice according to the nature of the subject” ($p<0,000$), “I welcome each tourist with positive expectations” ($p<0,025$), “I try to understand tourist’s problem rather than his/her attitude” ($p<0,000$), “I get glad when I am understood by tourists” ($p<0,004$), “I don’t shy away from taking the initiative when talking to tourists” ($p<0,019$), “I easily admit my wrong attitudes and behaviors” ($p<0,006$), “I try to understand the feelings of the tourist in front of me by putting myself in their shoes” ($p<0,015$), “I try to understand whether tourists are willing to talk” ($p<0,000$) while participants who *work in hotels without operation license* agree more with the statements of “I have difficulty in conveying

my opinions to tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "I don't like criticisms from tourists" ($p < 0.001$), "I get impatient and interrupt tourists when they are talking" ($p < 0.000$), "I get bored when I listen to tourists" ($p < 0.001$), "I can snap at tourists in a way that will ruin my relations with them" ($p < 0.001$), "There are times when I don't listen what tourists say even though I look at their face" ($p < 0.000$), "I judge tourist's emotions if they are in conflict with mine" ($p < 0.000$), "I try to control tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "It's hard for me to apologize to tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "I feel uncomfortable when I communicate with someone of the opposite sex" ($p < 0.000$), "I think I am not obliged to listen to tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "I feel annoyed when I am interrupted when talking to tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "I think I am apathetic against tourists" ($p < 0.000$), "I direct sudden questions to tourists which they would have hard time to answer" ($p < 0.000$).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

With regards to their job status;

In terms of status, locals who are managers/business owner are identified to agree with statements expressing that they have difficulty in conveying their opinions to tourists, they don't listen tourists even though they are looking to their faces, they judge feelings of tourists if they are in conflict with their own feelings, they try to control tourists, they have difficulty in apologizing to tourists, they think that they are not obliged to listen to tourists, they are apathetic against tourists and they ask sudden questions to tourists which they would have difficulty to answer. Locals who provide accommodation services are found to listen more to suggestions coming from tourists while locals who provide food & beverage services are found to be able to adjust their tone of voice according to the nature of the subject, not to shy away from taking the initiative when talking, to try to understand whether tourists are willing to talk and to like communicating with tourists more than the others. Interestingly, workers are observed to have more positive communication skills compared to business owners. Business owners demonstrate less communication skills compared to their workers and they themselves admit that they stay apathetic against tourists.

With regards to the type of business;

Especially the ones who work in the hotels at the destination are observed to have more positive communication skills and to be more successful in communicating with the tourists compared to the ones who work in all the other types of businesses. This could be attributed to the corporate structures of the hotels and their meticulous attitude when choosing their employees as well as the resources they have for training their employees or the facilities they provide for their workers. In

this sense, it could be said that workers in restaurants, cafes, BBs, apart-hotels, textile, markets, buffets and gift shops need a careful training and a new perspective in terms of their communication skills. Trying to establish a corporate identity and structure in tourism businesses other than hotels will be helpful in resolving these issues.

With regards to ownership;

Participants who work in a business owned by someone else are observed to agree more with the statements expressing that they establish empathy compared to the participants who own the business, they spare time to listen to tourists, they feel they are understood by the tourists, they form correct sentences, they listen to the suggestions from tourists, they direct questions to better understand tourists, they can adjust their tone of voice according to the nature of the subject and they try to understand the problem of the tourist. According to these findings, participants who own the business demonstrate less positive attitudes in terms of communicating with tourists and understanding them. Participants who work in a business owned by someone else, on the other hand, demonstrate more positive and constructive communication skills against tourists. One of the main reasons for this may be the fact that participants who own the business think that they are not as qualified as their workers in terms of tourism as well as communication and foreign languages. This finding points to the need of business owners and managers at the destination for education in foreign languages and communication.

With regards to operation license;

When the difference created by the operation license is analyzed, it is observed that workers of hotels with operation licenses demonstrate positive communication skills. Hotels with operation license employ qualified personnel due to their corporate identity and higher criteria in terms of personnel selection, consequently educated and qualified personnel succeed in establishing positive communication with the tourists. Raising awareness and motivating the management of hotels would be helpful in increasing the number of hotels with operation licenses at the destination. Or it could also be said that other businesses should be more meticulous in choosing their personnel.

In general; Workers had more positive communication skills compared to business owners; hotel employees had more positive communication skills compared to workers in other business types; and workers of hotels with operation licenses had more positive communication skills compared to the ones who work in other hotels. According to this, it could be said that communication skills

require to be developed in managers and business owners as well as the locals other than the ones who work in hotels with operation licenses.

In addition, this study will provide a foundation for reevaluation of communication skills of locals in question in case they receive the required education and trainings.

REFERENCES

- Alaeddinoglu, F. (2007). Van Halkinin Turisti ve Turizmi Algılama şekli. *Cograf Bilimler Dergisi*, 5(1), 1-16
- Avcı, U. Sayilir, A. (2006). Hizmet Kalitesi Çerçevesinde Çalışanların Rolüne ve Yeterliliklerine İlişkin Karşılaştırmalı Bir inceleme, *Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*. (1), 121-138
- Avcıkurt, C. (2009). Turizm Sosyolojisi Genel Ve Yapısal Yaklaşım (3.baskı). *Ankara: Detay Yayıncılık*.
- Avcıkurt, C., Karaman, S., & Koroglu, A. (2007). *Turizmin Sosyo Kulturel Etkileri, Sürdürülebilir Rekabet Avantajı Elde Etmede Sektörel Stratejiler ve Uygulamalar* (17-27). M. Bulu, i.H. Eraslan (Ed), İstanbul: Uluslararası Rekabet Araştırmaları Derneği Yayınları.
- Bakan, i. & Erşahan, B. (2007). *Turizm Sektöründe Kulturel Farklılıkların Yönetimi, Sürdürülebilir Rekabet Avantajı Elde Etmede Sektörel Stratejiler ve Uygulamalar* (319-333) M. Bulu, i.H. Eraslan (Ed), İstanbul: Uluslararası Rekabet Araştırmaları Derneği Yayınları.
- Buckman, R. (2001). Communication Skills in Palliative Care. *Neurologic Clinics*, 19 (4), 989-1004.
- Çakıcı, A.C. & Aksu M. (2006). Gökçeada'ya Gelen Turistlerin Beklenti ve Tatmin Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması, *Qanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi İktisadi Fakültesi Dergisi*, 7(1), 1-17
- Cengiz, E. & Kirkbir, F. (2007). Yerel Halk Tarafından Algılanan Toplam Turizm Etkisi ile Turizm Destegi Arasındaki ilişkiye Yönelik Yapısal Bir Model Önerisi, *Anadolu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*. 7(1), 19-37.
- Ekiz, E. & Koker, N. E. (2010). şikayetin Kısıtlayıcı Faktörleri : Turistlerin Belirgin şikayet Etme Davranışları, *Journal of Yaşar University*, 17(5), 2859-2873
- Gordon, J. (1997). *Organizational Behavioral*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Gunlu, E. (2001). Turizm işletmelerinde Etkin Haberleşmeyi Sınırlayan Faktörler ve Haberleşmenin Önemi, *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 3(3), 154-163.
- Korkut, F. (1996). İletişim Becerilerinin Değerlendirilme Ölçeğinin Geliştirilmesi: Güvenirlilik ve Geçerlilik Çalışmaları, *Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 2(7), 18-23.
- Kozak, M. (2007). Turizm Sektöründe Tüketicilerin şikayetlerini Bildirme Eğilimleri, *Celal Bayar Üniversitesi İİB.F., Yönetim ve Ekonomi*, 14 (1), 137-151.
- Lewis, P. S., Goodman, S.H., & Fand, P.M. (1995/ *Management Challenges in the 21st Century*, New York: West Publishing Co.
- Neese, T. (1997). Success Depends on Effective Communications, *Journal Record*, (http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qn4182/is_19970827/ai_n10110858)

- Nunkoo, R., Smith, S. L. J., & Ramkissoon, H. (2013). Residents' attitudes to tourism: A longitudinal study of 140 articles from 1984 to 2010. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(1), 5-25.
- Onay, M., Suslu, H.Z. & Kilci, S. (2011). İletişim Tarzının Ve Sozsuz İletişimin Çalışanların İş Performansına Etkisi: Posta Dağıtıcıları Ve Hemşireler Üzerine Bir Araştırma, *Organizasyon ve Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi*, 3(1), 57-66.
- Penley, L.E., Alexander, E.R., Jernigan, I.E. & Henwood, C.I. (1991). Communication Abilities of Managers: The Relationship of Performance. *Journal of Management* 17.
- Tutar, H., Yılmaz, K. & Erdoğmez C. (2005). *Genel ve Teknik İletişim* Ankara: Sefkin Yayınları.
- Yaylı, A. & Öztürk, Y. (2006). Konaklama İşletmeleri Yöneticilerinin Bedensel Engelliler Pazarına Bakış Açılımları Üzerine Bir Araştırma, *Anatolia: Turizm Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 17(1), 87-97.
- www.nufusu.com/ilce/pamukkale denizlinufusu (17.10.2014)

DESIGNING A MODEL FOR SUSTAINABLE SMALL-SCALE HOTEL BUILDING: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS

Soad Abokhamis Mousavi Eastern Mediterranean University /Department of Architecture/
Gazimagusa, Famagusta, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

In today's world, hotels have got a very critical role in developing the tourism industry. Hotels are one of the main factors in the progress of tourism industry and they play important role in attracting tourists and contribute to their prosperity. Therefore, the focus of the present research study is on sustainable building of small-scale hotels considering the fact that North Cyprus is a small Island with problems such as limit of natural resources and economic and it's believed that most of the hotels in North Cyprus multiply these problems due to their large and unsustainable building design of hotels. In addition, this research believed that sustainable hotels not only have an important role in improving the sustainable tourism in North Cyprus but will protect the environment, improve the economics of the local peoples, create new opportunity, increase the local employment and.. etc. Thus, this paper aims to design a model for the sustainable small-scale hotel in North Cyprus Island according to the dimension of sustainability. Consequently, in this study, we first discuss the problems of Island in terms of environmental, economic and social resources, and focusing on dimensions of sustainable tourism with be analysed and finally the most suitable hotel type for this Island will be introduced. The study backwards ends up with different types of gathering information methods to get the best results possible, which it is based on questionnaires, conducting interviews, literature reviews, surveys.

Key Words: sustainable development, sustainable design, tourism sector, sustainable tourism, North Cyprus.

INTRODUCTION

There are numerous meanings of sustainable development and sustainability. Sustainable Development is an idea use as a basis on a simple principle. As outlined in the 1987 Brundtland report, the concept involves "development that meets the needs of the present without

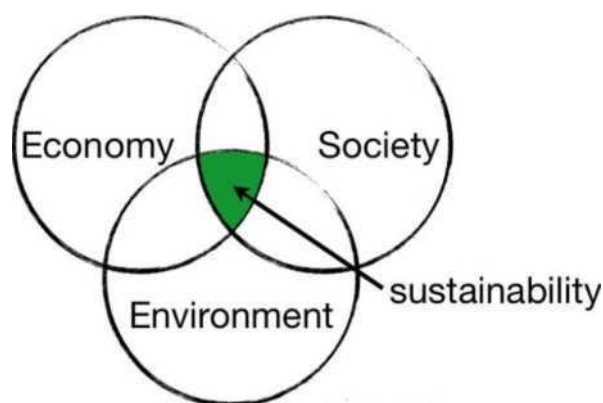
compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland, 1985). In tourism, sustainable development, based on the three dimensions of economic, environmental and sociocultural (Figure 1) and its implementation have been well researched and discussed.

Tourism is arguably the world’s fastest growing industry, and, especially in developing countries and regions, is seen as a means of economic development. Since the 1970s it has been clear, however, that tourism brings with it considerable pressure in terms of its impacts on natural, cultural and social environments (Brundtland, 1985). Therefore, as the tourism sector continues to grow, applying sustainable development principles becomes increasingly important for operators, tourists, and host communities (Brida & Pulina, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004).

Sustainable tourism is the idea of visiting a place as a traveller and attempting to have just a beneficial impact on the environment, economy and sociocultural (Barber, 2014) and can adjust the economies of poorer and richer districts, to keep up an open foundation and thus to improve the life quality. Furthermore, tourism can be a vehicle for better understanding between people and country at local, tolerance national and universal level.

Figure 1

Principle of sustainability (Author)



Subsequently, must be integrated a sustainable tourism into the human environment, sociocultural and natural, because, tourism development has both negative and positive effects on the economy of small Island and coastal cities. In addition, tourism offers opportunities for the cultural

experience, improvement of recreation activities, social mindfulness and worldwide trades and income in the coastal towns and employment. (Coccossis & Nijkamp, 1995). Consequently, according to the (Wan, 2012) with sustainable tourism could make better optimal use of environmental resources, respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, long-term economic operations, and ensure viable, giving social and economic advantage to all core stakeholders. Hence, according to Rutes, Penner, and Adams (2001) “With the growth in the demand for tourism, hotel designs have become a very important aspect of architecture at a global scale and the importance of hotels in lodging industry has attracted the attention of hospitality since the late 1990s.” On the other hand, recently sustainable building has a very significant position in sustainable development, it is not just because of commitment in the national economy, but it is because of the way that constructed environment has a high impact on quality of life, security, comfort, wellbeing, etc. Moreover, Sustainable building design is based on a number of factors, primary of which are climate, place, culture, resources consumption and building type. With the increasing growing environmental concerns, the sustainable buildings demand is growing day by day. Both private and public organisations are increasingly requiring contractors and architects to construct and design buildings with minimal environmental effect (Azhar, Brown, & Farooqui, 2009).

With the sustainable building concept, sustainable hotels give administration by utilising eco-friendly facilities and consumers sustainable production. Sustainable hotels based on security and wellbeing effectively consumption utilisation, environment insurance, and asset preservation. Therefore, environmental insurance by practising recycling, emphasise energy conservation, reusing and resource saving. Sustainable hotels could be representative of a panache to potential, particular mindset and ongoing consumers. (Hsiao, Chuang, Kuo, & Yu, 2014) Sustainable hotels apply themselves to save water, energy, and reduction the waste, in order to decrease the environmental impact (Hsiao et al., 2014). In other words, according to co-founder of Post Ranch Inn, Mike Reed, “sustainability is the new luxury and hotels that are not sustainable will lose customers” (Chang, 2010). On the other hand, the growth of the small-scale hotel of the tourism sector has been one of the most watched trends in recent years especially in Small Island and development countries. Horner and Swarbrooke (2004) have mentioned that small hotels have become increasingly popular in recent years and more and larger international chains have started to focus on the small hotel market. Small hotels get certain advantages terms of operations and

productivity. Other than requests of the client, the economics aspects are positive for administrators.

For example, for small business owners do not need to pay an establishment charge to wind up some portion of a bigger chain. Small hotel prevail and can survive without such expensive pleasantries as meeting room/bar spaces and restaurants; however, these courtesies, when styled in a small way, can bring significant extra productivity to the room of hotels income (Mcintosh & Siggs, 2005). Once established, small hotels also have a tendency to have a higher rate of repeat business contrasted with the business as a rule, which may mirror a small level of instability while experiencing troublesome monetary circumstances (Ravetz, 2000). However, small hotels must keep on adapting to the incessantly evolving needs, inclinations, and tastes (Anhar, 2001). In addition, according to Rodriguez and Cruz (2007) for Island should design a hotel with high probability of tourist attraction and less negative impact to increase the quality of the environment. Sharpley (2009) have confirmed the fact that in small islands, hotels with small scale are suitable and flexible with the position and situation. Designing a sustainable small-scale hotel in small islands will help with optimisation of energy consumption in the place which suffering from the lack of natural resource, energy consumption, and as a result economic problems. In addition, Kilic and Okumus (2005) have mentioned that there are many small family-run businesses in North Cyprus, which can help the local community. And also, Ministry of Tourism and Economics (2015) believes that the tourism sector has been one of the principle areas in the North Cyprus economy. With a lots tourism and hospitality businesses, the most of which are small family run business, family bars, restaurants, gift shops, cafe. Van Hartesvelt (2006) has argued that the budget for designing and implementing small hotels in the context is less than big hotels and returning the Investment is earlier than big hotels, private sectors also local government are highly encouraging to invest in this kind of hotels. Also, the small hotel will help us to increase social interaction with the context.

On the other hand, this research has believed that designing big size hotels with bigger dimensions in small Islands are not match with the capacities and requirements of small Islands. Because, the big hotels in Small Island are destroying the environment context, natural resources. For example, based on requirements of designing a hotel with a big beach, it needs many spaces and in a long period, the spaces are not suitable for tourist's requirements in small islands. However, most of the

hotels in North Cyprus are designed based on touristic and casino with big size scale, which could have a negative impact on the environmental, social-culture and economical point of view for a local community of North Cyprus.

Hence, on the Island of North Cyprus, which the majority of yields is imported from outside the method of using the existing and local materials in the contexts are highly important. Its mean is that to the sustainable development of tourism sectors, small hotels by its own characteristic which easily adaptable with its own context. Therefore, designing small hotels with small scale in the context or in coastal areas which suffering from the lack of natural resource could be acceptable. Although, there are different types of hotels but this research study has selected the small-scale hotel. The reason for selection of small-scale hotels related with problems of North Cyprus (Table 1). In addition, according to Altinay (2000); Akis et al. (1996), In North Cyprus, hotels has been confronting major issues for a long time. Counting low inhabitance rates, seasonality, public transportation challenges, a lack of qualified staff and hospitality, high costs of renting the hotels, insufficient supplementary services and facilities and poor quality service, very small internal market and limited natural resources. and In this regard, tourism development would be one of the major producers of income (Kilic & Okumus, 2005).

On the other hand, the ministry of tourism has mentioned that tourism sector has high potential to grow; and there are lots of small-scale buildings in the city centre, around the historical area or other buildings in the suburbs area, which could serve the tourism sector. Thus, there is a need to make more investment in this part of truism especially to help the local community, which is suffering from poverty, economical problems and unemployment with their high education.

Table 1
Problems of hotels in North Cyprus (Source: Author)

Problems of hotels in North Cyprus considering principle of sustainability	
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buildings are not adopted with its environment. • Lack of contextual design. • Lack of natural resource • Lake of local materials • Lack of environmental stewardship • High energy consuming (Electric, heating, cooling.) • High water consuming • Unsustainable hotel design

Social - culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of local employment • Social equity not available • Social inclusion • Low knowledge of staff in tourism • Poverty • Ownership of hotels
Economical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highest rent of hotel room • High rate of energy • High budget for building • Problems in Insulation building which leads to lots of energy consumption on employment • Lack of economic responsibility • High Investment

In addition, this research has believed that most of the hotels of North Cyprus multiply these problems due to their large and unsustainable building design. Moreover, sustainable hotels not only have an important role in improving the sustainable tourism in North Cyprus but will protect the environment, improve the economics of the local peoples, create new opportunity, increase the local employment and...etc. In this regard, tourism development would be one of the main generators of income (Kilic & Okumus, 2005).

In order to prepare infrastructures for accepting sustainable tourism type in small islands, it needs a new method of design which, considering three dimensions of environmental, economic and sociocultural aspects (Figure 2) of the sustainable building. As a result, by considering the principle of sustainability on literature review, designing a small hotel which is under the category of urban design in hotel types is considered as a suitable, environmentally friendly and economical hotels for small islands, also from sociocultural could create a positive impact for the local community.

Figure 2
Principle of sustainability influences (Author)

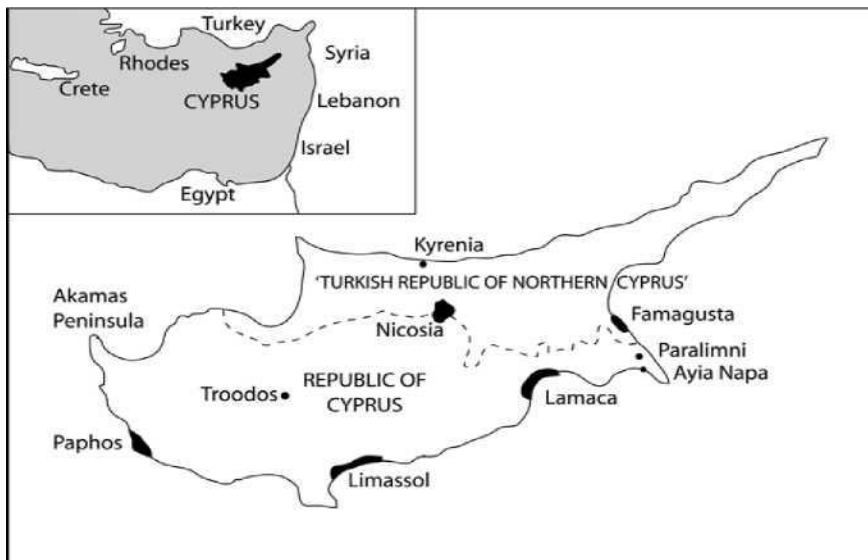


NORTH CYPRUS AND TOURISM SECTOR DEVELOPMENT

Cyprus is one of the third biggest Islands in the Mediterranean Sea with 9851 km area. (3572 square miles) and 60km width. West of the coast of Syria and south of Turkey. Since 1974, the island has been divided, Turkish Cypriots living in the North and the Greek Cypriots living in the south. And also, same as many of the other small island, it has limited natural resources and a very small internal market. In the second half of the 1980s, North Cyprus publically proclaimed the tourism sector as its leading sector in reaching its economic development.

Figure 2

The map of Cyprus with demarcation line (Alipour & Kilic, 2005)



Since the focus of this research to designing a model for the sustainable small-scale hotel, the sustainability for tourism sectors most of the discussions in this research will be centered on this portion (Turkish) of the island. The Turkish portion of the island, before the conflict, was the primary location responsible for attracting visitors to the entire island. However, after the conflict of 1974, the development of tourism in the island took two individual forms; one of rapid growth in the South, and another of decline and underdevelopment in the North.

Tourism sector of North Cyprus main statistical data of the tourism industry is presented in Table 1. The accommodation sub-sector is the key section of the tourism sector, and 136 accommodation

foundations and there are numerous small family run business, bars, restaurants, cafes and gift shops (Yasarata, Altinay, Burns, & Okumus, 2010).

Table 2

Tourism industry in North Cyprus (Source: Tourism ministry of North Cyprus)

YEARS	NUMBER OF TOURISTS			% OF GPD	OCCUPANCY RATE OF
	Turkey	Other for	T.R.N.C		
2005	171.518	127.338	36.379	28,0	40,7
2006	225.052	100.841	42.998	23,2	33,5
2007	265.273	106.124	51.999	26,2	32,5
2008	317.509	103.613	57.270	24,0	33,3
2009	304.942	114.218	55.440	31,1	35,0
2010	336.240	108.343	52.653	26,9	36,4
2011	393.238	156.381	45.243	29,7	41,4
2012	459.529	183.651	45.175	36,1	44,1
2013	464.397	209.379	40.125	38,9	47,9
2014	529.908	224.881	49.598	41,9	47,6

For instance, due to “an embargo by the International Air Transport Association” (Alipour & Kilic, 2005), caused by the pressures of the south, European governments restricted all scheduled flights to North part of the island, affecting tourism sector in the area drastically (Alipour, Altinay, Hussain, & Sheikhan, 2007)). The only way to reach the north portion of the island by air or sea, which is the most convenient and popular way of transportation for almost every tourist, is through Turkey which greatly limits the number of tourists seeking accommodations in North. Generally, most tourists who visit Cyprus arrive in the south part. Farmaki, Altinay, Botterill, and Hilke (2015) has mentioned that “Sustainable Tourism Development is high on the agenda of North Cyprus Tourism sector, tourism master plan advocating that tourism should be developed in an economically, environmentally and socially sustainable way”.

Though with 23 casinos founded in Island of North Cyprus, gambling has become a significant sub-sector of tourism that has the influence of shortening the length of stay, generally considered harmful to a wellbeing tourism sector (Altinay, 2000). Different challenges incorporate a shortage of a lack of a distinctive brand, qualified staff and unplanned development along the coast (Farmaki et al., 2015). Moreover, service sector

industries in North Cyprus play the main role in its economic development. (Altinay, 2000). According to the tourism and environment ministry of North Cyprus, (2016) and as mentioned before North Cyprus has 136 different types and classification hotels. Such as 5,4,3,2, 1 stars and Boutique Hotels, special Class, Class TK, tourist Bungalow, Apartment Hotel, regional house, tourist Hostel, Classification T, Indoor Facility.

Moreover, according to the tourism and environment ministry of North Cyprus, in (2016) the bed capacity of North Cyprus hotels about 7,198,960. (18 - 5star hotels, 4 - 4 star hotels, 10 - 3 star hotels, 18 - 2 star hotels, 18 - 1 star hotels, 1 - special class hotels, 5 - Boutique hotels, 30 - bungalows, 5 - II-class holiday villages, 2- Apart hotels, 3- traditional houses, 20 - tourist Pensions and etc.) (Table, 4). In addition, North Cyprus from 2005 to 2014 host 18,657,782 tourists in total. The table below present's analysis of the bedrooms hotels capacity from 2005 to 2014 by different types of hotels in North Cyprus. in this table show the high capacity were for 5 star hotels and the low for 2 star hotels (Table 3).

Table 3

Bedrooms Capacity in North Cyprus (2005 & 2014) (Source: Ministry of Tourism North Cyprus)

YEARS	Bed - Rooms										Total
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	
5 STAR	3.644	3.644	6.274	6.53	6.712	7.712	9.302	9.58	9.58	10.318	73.296
4 STAR	1.85	1.584	1.536	1.536	1.644	1.644	1.704	1.704	1.346	1.346	15.894
3 STAR	3.162	2.227	2.183	2.225	2.045	1.959	2.211	2.211	1.893	1.798	21.914
2 STAR	1.986	538	979	1.183	1.361	1.435	1.588	1.588	992	1.368	2519.509
1 STAR	1.747	866	785	573	581	581	583	718	636	663	5987.747
SPECIAL CLASS HOTEL	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	340
BOUTIQUE HOTEL	-	42	42	42	42	138	214	418	450	486	1874
II CLASS HOLIDAY VILLAGE	198	1.005	1.005	1.005	1.005	1.045	1.045	1.045	928	862	1995.155
TOURIST BUNGALOW	56	1.868	1.706	1.892	1.851	1.885	1.885	1.891	1.461	1.661	72.1
APART HOTEL	162	548	416	396	396	396	456	456	60	96	3382
TRADITIONAL HOUSE)	-	24	24	24	34	34	34	34	96	96	400
HOLIDAY HOMES)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		102	102
(TOURIST GUESTHOUSE)	-	-	-	-	-	84	110	188	196	218	796
HOTELS NOT CLASSIFIED)	-			-					1.094		1078.167
	462.389	2063.401	3140.704	1083.371	1101.618	1282.68	1448.735	1866.019	3407.374	2801.491	18657.782

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The research employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods, and various research instruments will use in order to obtain the most valid analysis results. Therefore, as a theoretical framework for the research, the study will focus on literature to find out the proposed methods for designing a model for the sustainable small hotel on the island of North Cyprus. For the purpose of this study, a methodology based on literature review, author's observation, interview and questionnaires (the type of questionnaires is open). All data shall be collected through scientific journals, books and the related articles in this particular field of study.

Literature survey and review are carried out to know what has been done in the field of sustainable development and tourism sector to evaluate and define the areas of the theoretical framework and empirical weaknesses.

Observation and interview with the owners of some the hotels, the ministry of tourism and environmental of North Cyprus and Electricity Corporation of North Cyprus are done to record and analysis the issues on the hotel's conditions from the different perspective of environmental, economic and social/culture issues.

DISCUSSION

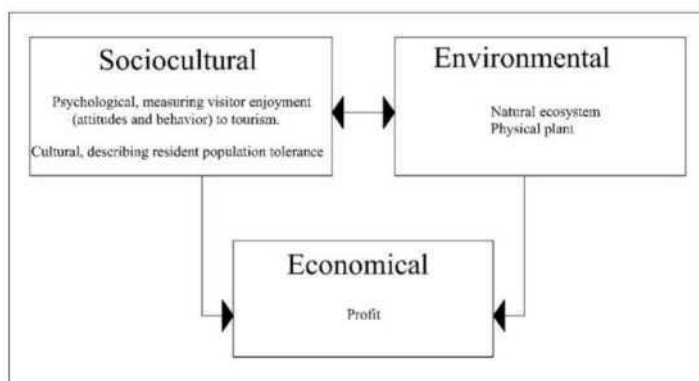
The aim of this study was to further design a model for the sustainable small-scale hotel in order to increase the understanding the impact of economic, environmental and social performance in hotels building of North Cyprus. Although it has been argued that, designing a model for sustainable small hotels could decrease the cost of building to create it affordable, decrease a consuming of water and energy, energy optimising, energy efficiency, investing locally, energy and water consuming. Thus, could be the family run business in North Cyprus to serve the small group of tourist and could help the architect to design small hotel in order to achieve the principle of sustainability.

Furthermore, to invest more in the tourism sector and increase the attraction of alternative and sustainable small tourism, we need to develop many small-scale hotels with a minimum capacity of bed and investment of local people, which can turn to a family business. In order to go a step further in the designing of sustainability models for the small hotel, new impacts were defined and applied to measuring the sustainability in the North Cyprus small- scale hotels. The hotels of North Cyprus recently one of the most important sectors

of tourism and also, small-scale hotel white high positive impact in North Cyprus from environmental, economical and sociocultural aspects could be more increase and attract the tourists. On the other hand, to create this model in this research study, we have tried to highlight and emphasise the missing part of this study to achieve the positive impacts for designing a sustainable small-scale hotel (Figure 2).

Figure3

The main issues in sustainability (Author)



Therefore, to measure the environmental, economical and sociocultural aspects, we have focused on the following indicators:

- Reduces the environmental impacts
- Improves the influence of the local sustainable development
- Requires most minimal conceivable utilization of non-renewable resources
- Sustains the health of local community
- local ownership stresses
- Supports endeavors to preserve nature
- helping the biodiversity
- Local people investment
- Local employment (family run business).
- Entrepreneurship
- Increase a small group of tourist (Alternative tourist)
- Sociocultural effects of tourism on host community
- Community health and local safety
- Community visibility and image enhancement

- Tourism employment
- Ratio of tourists to residents
- Communication to personnel and guests
- Urban development and infrastructure
- Education

Figure 4

A model for sustainable small hotel building (Author)

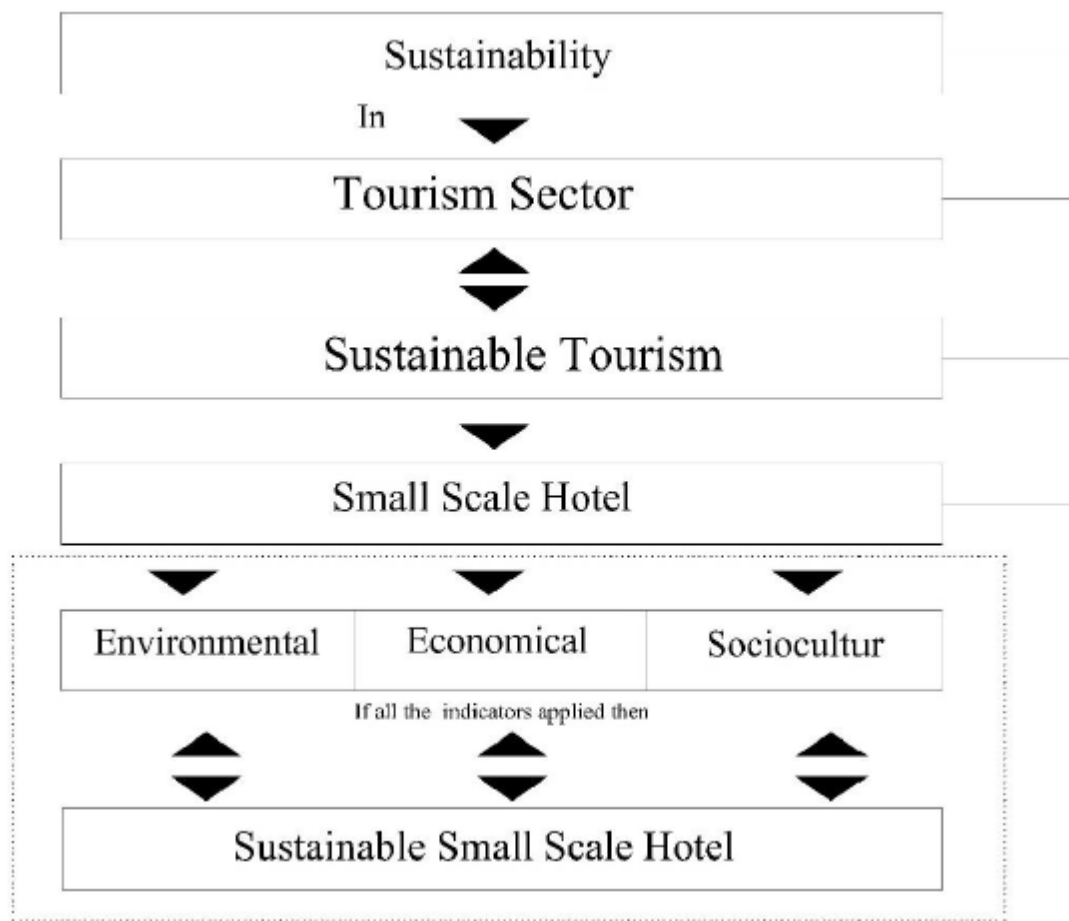
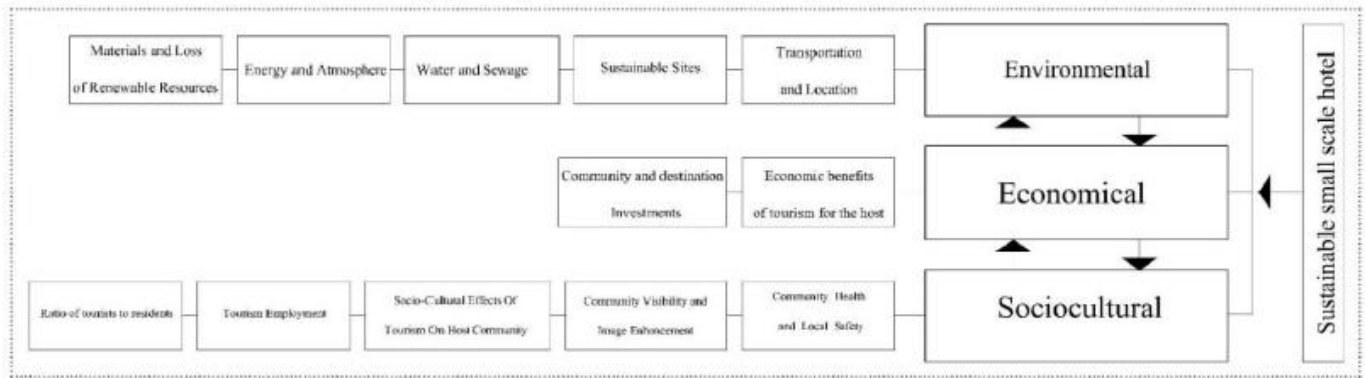


Figure 4



CONCLUSION

This study sought to provide insight into the qualities provided to tourist in a sustainable small-scale hotel. This paper has set out a literature review in view of the between related ideas and approach to sustainable development and tourism sector and it has used these ideas to offer a model for designing a sustainable hotel in small scale according to North Cyprus Conditions.

Therefore, in order to help the architecture and tourism sector to design a sustainable small-scale hotel in this research, we have focused on environmental, economical and sociocultural dimensions for attracting and increase more tourist for this Island. The author has believed that a small-scale hotel could have high potential to serve to the tourism sector according to have a sustainable design. Moreover, not only this concept could have a positive impact on environment and economist of this island but could bring certain benefit for the local community from part of sociocultural view of sustainability. On the other hand, as this research has mentioned about north Cyprus problems, so by designing a sustainable small-scale hotel could help the local community in the different part of view especially in sociocultural, economical, and environmental aspect.

REFERENCES

- Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: the case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 481-494.
- Alipour, H., Altinay, M., Hussain, K., & Sheikhani, N. (2007). Perceptions of the Beach Users: A Case Study of the Coastal Areas of North Cyprus Towards Establishment of a. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(3), 175-190.

- Alipour, H., & Kilic, H. (2005). An institutional appraisal of tourism development and planning: the case of the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus (TRNC). *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 79-94.
- Altinay, L. (2000). Possible impacts of a federal solution to the Cyprus problem on the tourism industry of North Cyprus. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19(3), 295-309.
- Anhar, L. (2001). The definition of boutique hotels. *Hospitality Net*.
- Azhar, S., Brown, J., & Farooqui, R. (2009). *BIM-based sustainability analysis: An evaluation of building performance analysis software*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 45th ASC annual conference.
- Barber, N. A. (2014). Profiling the potential “green” hotel guest: Who are they and what do they want? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 38(3), 361-387.
- Brida, J. G., & Pulina, M. (2010). A literature review on the tourism-led-growth hypothesis.
- Brundtland, G. H. (1985). World commission on environment and development. *Environmental policy and law*, 14(1), 26-30.
- Chang, L. L. (2010). World's LEED Hotels: Innovation, Renovation & Development: Wen I Chang.
- Coccossis, H., & Nijkamp, P. (1995). *Sustainable tourism development*: Ashgate Publishing.
- Farmaki, A., Altinay, L., Botterill, D., & Hilke, S. (2015). Politics and sustainable tourism: The case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 47, 178-190.
- Gursoy, D., & Rutherford, D. G. (2004). Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 495-516.
- Horner, S., & Swarbrooke, J. (2004). *International cases in tourism management*: Routledge.
- Hsiao, T.-Y., Chuang, C.-M., Kuo, N.-W., & Yu, S. M.-F. (2014). Establishing attributes of an environmental management system for green hotel evaluation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 197208.
- Kilic, H., & Okumus, F. (2005). Factors influencing productivity in small island hotels: evidence from Northern Cyprus. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(4), 315-331.
- Mcintosh, A. J., & Siggs, A. (2005). An exploration of the experiential nature of boutique accommodation. *Journal of travel research*, 44(1), 74-81.
- Ravetz, J. (2000). Integrated assessment for sustainability appraisal in cities and regions. *Environmental impact assessment review*, 20(1), 31-64.
- Rodriguez, F. J. G., & Cruz, Y. d. M. A. (2007). Relation between social-environmental responsibility and performance in hotel firms. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(4), 824-839.
- Rutes, W. A., Penner, R. H., & Adams, L. (2001). *Hotel design, planning, and development*: WW Norton & Company.
- Sharpley, R. (2009). Tourism development and the environment: Beyond sustainability? : *Earthscan*.
- Van Hartesvelt, M. (2006). Building a better boutique hotel. *Lodging Hospitality*, 62(14), 32-44.
- Wan, Y. K. P. (2012). The social, economic and environmental impacts of casino gaming in Macao: the community leader perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(5), 737-755.

Yasarata, M., Altinay, L., Burns, P., & Okumus, F. (2010). Politics and sustainable tourism development-Can they co-exist? Voices from North Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 345-356.

<http://turizm.gov.ct.tr/>

<http://www.cevrekorumadaresi.org/>

THE IMPACT CORRELATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AMONG COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE, HOTEL PERFORMANCE AND MARKET ORIENTATION IHOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Mehmet Necati Cizrelioğulları Eastern Mediterranean University, Tourism Management
Research Assistant in Computer Center, Gazimagusa, KKTC

Mehmet Veysi Babayiğit Eastern Mediterranean University, English Language Teaching,
Gazimagusa, KKTC

ABSTRACT

This research focuses on knowledge management as an element to create competitive advantage in the hotel industry. The gaps of the research also entail the organizational role of this concept with respect to its strengths and utilization in hotel management. In order to understand the competitive aspect derived from knowledge management, the discussion is classified into technical and social resource utilization, and used accordingly in an industry. The research includes terms and definitions from various sources to develop a better understanding of the concepts included in this research and as a result of which how they can be practically applied in the industry being targeted. Also the research is a combination of technical and theoretical knowledge attained carefully and with the utmost validity and reliability. Being a primary research the course carries a lot of importance and brings significant results which have not previously known. With a diversified set of concepts related to the research and respondents of the questioners, the data collected is from several hotels in the North of Cyprus and attempts to draw the impact knowledge management on the hotel industry and its performance as a result of its implementation. The results pinpoint that there is a positive perspective of the impact correlation of knowledge management among competitive advantage, hotel performance and market orientation in hospitality industry.

Keywords: Knowledge Management, Competitive Advantage, Market Orientation, Hotel Performance and North of Cyprus

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Tourism carries more importance than most of the other sectors in terms of revenue generation and creation of new opportunities within a country in our modern world. Hotels and tourism can also be included in the esteem needs sections of Maslow since it gives a sense of belonging from a physiological view point. The concept driven from previous researches shows that some hotels never lose their originality in terms of culture or heritage, and they sometimes create a competitive advantage to stand out in the competition for the satisfaction and comfort of their customers in the long term.

Orientation to the Problem

Tourism has increased rapidly for decades in this world and it has a boosting effect for the research issues for investigators. It may divert researchers into exploring the factors of tourism, competitive advantages and performance of tourist resorts. The subject is of much importance especially in an island like north Cyprus which is an amazing vacation spot because of its location and international visitors.

The orientation mainly highlights the increasing number of tourists in North Cyprus demonstrating the market for tourism development, coastal resorts, urban and business centers .In addition, some aspects such as hotels can create a recreation for the people in a locality and generate revenue for the government in tourism industry.

Much attention has not been given to the tourism sector in the North Cyprus to gain a competitive advantage in the last decade by researchers, as a result of which a big potential source of revenue has been ignored. It is also interesting to examine the impact of knowledge management on competitive advantages in terms of performance of a hotel.

This research tries to explore these questions as following:

What are critical factors on the assessment of knowledge management in industry of hotels?

What are capabilities of knowledge management's driver in terms of competitive advantage and hotel performance in hospitality industry?

How can knowledge management affect the development performance of hotels with competitive advantage?

How can we use competitive advantage for effective hotel performance?

What are the factors of competitive advantages on performance of hotels in North Cyprus?

Purpose of Study

The first purpose of this study is to search the effect of knowledge management on competitive advantage. When the concept is discussed it is very important to create a firm understanding of knowledge management which attempts to create a disciplined approach of enhancing knowledge by development and sharing. Secondly this study focuses on the effect of competitive advantages on hotel performance in tourism industry as hotels in North Cyprus can only be achieved if practiced with versatility and consistency. The last aim is to investigate the effect of market orientation on hotel performance in tourism industry in North Cyprus.

Contribution

It targets to achieve objectives that must be completed in order to define the important facts relationships between knowledge management capability and competitive advantage (Shu-Hui Chuang, 2004). Secondly, Carmona-Moreno et al. (2004) finds that firms with a relatively low competitive advantage have significantly weaker business performance than others in one of the few studies having examined the relationship between competitive advantage and performance in an environmental context.

However, Claver-Cortes and Lopez-Gamero, Molina- Azorin et al.'s (2011) recent study of Spanish hotels reveals a positive relationship between the developments of an eco-friendly based competitive advantage and financial performance. Thus, Competitive advantage is positively associated with hotel performance with financial performance and market performance. This research is a good piece of information for all students in the respective discipline of tourism management and attempts to further educate the new start ups who intent to target a competitive aspect over others.

This study offers a literature review about knowledge management resource, competitive advantage and hotel performance. The government of TRNC is another stakeholder that may benefit highly from this research in order to increase their foreign revenue if they focus upon the competitive advantages pointed out

LITERATURE REVIEW

Knowledge Management Resource Technical Knowledge Management Resource

Physical IT asserts the core of a firm's overall information technology. In restructures comprises of computer, communication technologies and the shareable technical platforms including databases. The technical knowledge management includes IT assets and knowledge management capability that are a shared knowledge delivery base, the business functionality of which has been defined in terms of its business intelligence, collaboration, distributed learning, knowledge discovery, knowledge mapping, and knowledge generation (Gold et al., 2001).

Social Knowledge management resource

Social resources generally include the sum of the actual and potential resources available that derive from the relationships possessed by a human or in a social unit (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Lee and Choi (2003) describe the critical dimensions of social knowledge management resources as: (1) the structural knowledge management resource, such as an organization may encourage or inhibit knowledge management (Hedlund, 1994), (2) the cultural knowledge management resource, such as an appropriate culture encourages human to create and share knowledge within an organization, and (3) human knowledge management resource, such as employees task knowledge not only have a deep knowledge of a discipline, but also know how their discipline interacts with other disciplines (Iansiti, 1993).

Organizations with strong social knowledge management resources are able to integrate the knowledge management and business planning processes more effectively. It also can develop reliable and innovation applications supporting the business needs of the firm faster than competition. It is also effective in predicting future business needs of the firm and innovate valuable new product features before competitors. In addition, the social knowledge management resources the ability to encourage the multifaceted activities associated with the successful implementation of knowledge management which has been found to be a key distinguishing factor of successful firms (Lee & Choi, 2003).

Competitive Advantage

Competitive advantage refers to the edge a hotel has over another based on its strength being difficult to imitate or carry by another. It sets aside one business from another, and the basic competitive advantage a hotel can gain in Cyprus is having international staff that can communicate in an effective manner. Hence, the definition of competitive advantage in hotels

is described by four dimensions abilities (Koufteros,Vonderembse ,& Doll, 1997). These dimensions are competitive price, quality of value for customers, quality of services, and innovation in services (Tracey, Vonderembse, &Lim, 1999).

Hotel Performance

Hotel performance demonstrates how an organization activity influences on its marketing aims and financial purposes (Yamin, Gunasekruan, & Mavondo, 1999). The goals of hotel want to increase market performance and financial performance. Indeed, marketing and financial are as organizational initiative cause increase of organizational performance. It means that organization performance have two parameters such as market performance and financial performance.

Market Performance: It is a measure to gauge the performance of a product or service in a given industry.

Financial Performance: It is the performance of a firm in terms of its revenue generation as a comparison to its investments.

Behavioral Performance: Creating a cause effect relationship in terms of performance and the impact of behavior, the term should be understood in the right context and carries a lot of importance in the service sector.

The importance of these issues has regarded under the effect knowledge management resource perspective as source of competitive advantage and performance in hospitality industry in this study. In addition, the research tries to asses hotels in North Cyprus as a case study because it is a very important factor relating to the economy of North Cyprus.

The third significant factor of North Cyprus's economy is tourism. When the scale is considered, the disadvantage and the isolation have been imposed on North Cyprus; the importance of the tourism sector can be seen clearly due to the unique natural beauty and cultural heritage of North Cyprus where tourism remains a competitive sector.

North Cyprus is considered to be an emerging new market for European tourists. In the wake of increasing competition and the dramatic changes occurring in the tourism industry in North Cyprus, there is a need for hotel managers and international investors to establish a competitive advantage and performance. For this purpose a more diverse set of skills may be required for employees to handle people from all over the world as customers.

Market Orientation

TQM pinpoints viewing employees as internal clients who deserve special attention (Eskildsen & Dahlgaard, 2000). It aims to achieve organization's objectives. Satisfaction of external clients is central to the marketing concept (Santos-Vijande & Avarez-Gonzalez, 2009). Firms that adopt and implement marketing concepts are said to be market oriented (Lamb et al., 2005). Market orientation is defined differently with indifferent parts of the research community.

However, the basic concept still involves generating, disseminating, sharing information, and responding appropriately to changing market needs to achieve organizational goals and satisfy customer needs and wants whilst simultaneously considering the interests of all company stakeholders. Several scales exist for measuring market orientation. Kohli et al. (1993) developed a valid measure including intelligence generation, dissemination and responsiveness.

Next, Gray et al. (1998) proposed a determined model of market orientation based on the work of Deng and Dart (1994), Kohli (1993), comprising five dimensions: customer orientation, competitor orientation, inter functional coordination, responsiveness, and profit emphasis. Additionally, Anwar (2008) determined that market orientation should include customer focus, competitive focus, environmental scanning, strategy implementation, and new service development. Different firms may adopt different strategies. This study believes that market orientation is better suited to data collection, including information generation and dissemination, shared interpretation, and organization responsiveness.

In this study the importance of these issues has been regarded under the effect resources perspective, market orientation as driver of competitive advantage and performance in hospitality industry. In addition, this case study is quite significant because Mediterranean island, North Cyprus' economy depends on tourism and North Cyprus tourism is a significant contributor to the GDP. When we consider the scale of disadvantage and the isolation that has been imposed on North Cyprus, the importance of the tourism sector can be seen clearly due to the unspoilt natural beauty and cultural heritage of North Cyprus where tourism remains a competitive sector. North Cyprus is considered to be an emerging new market for European tourists. In the wake of increasing competition and the dramatic changes occurring in the tourism industry in North Cyprus, there is a need for hotel managers and international investors to recognize the importance of improvements in establishing a competitive advantage and performance.

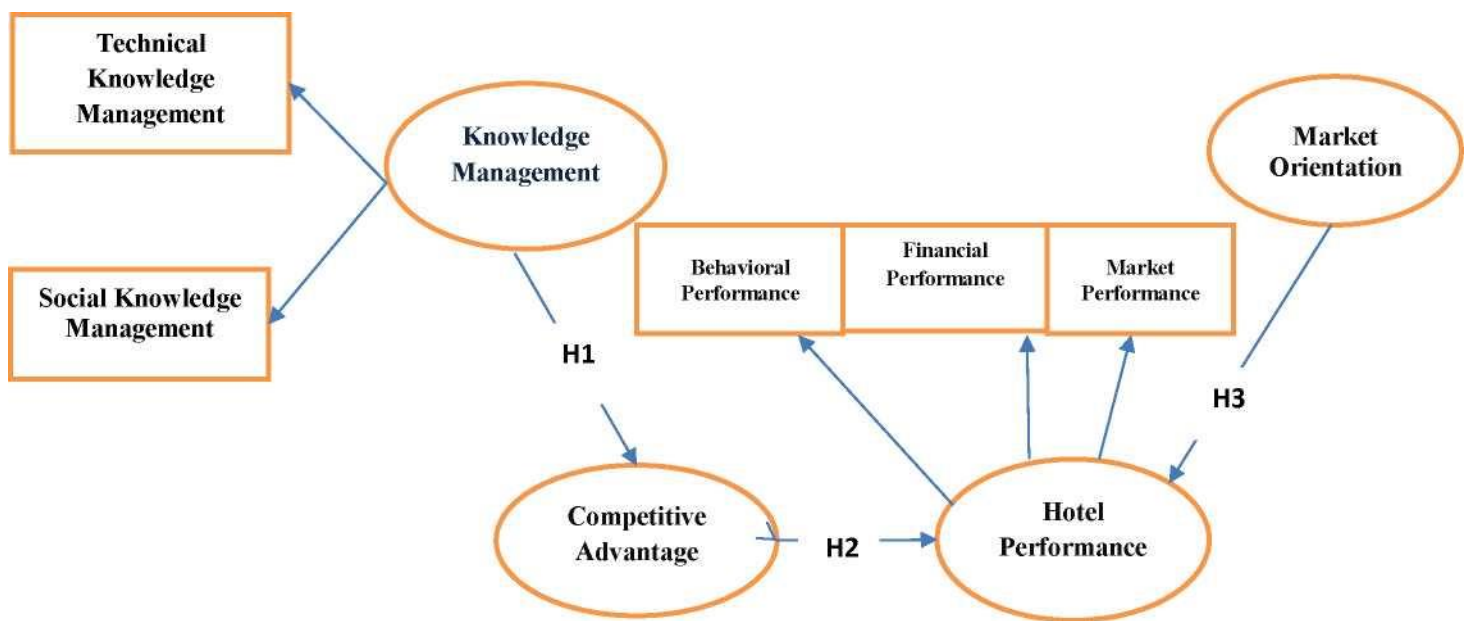


Figure 1. Conceptual model of this study

METHODOLOGY AND HYPOTHESES

The methodology focuses on effective implementation of knowledge management which is a mixture of technical and social adaptations that a researcher must learn in order to capture a bigger picture of tourism industry. The critical factor is the subject of the industry, the location and a combination of both. The impact of this advantage must be interpreted in terms of numbers and scale. This includes the financial and marketing departments of hotels showing the significance of the competitive factor highlighted.

The approach is a modern piece of work targeting a diversified set of audience with international exposure. This is another merit of this research being open to ideas from foreigners as well, understanding their opinions and cultures for the betterment in our industry.

Based on the methodologies above a hypothesis for this study are:

H1: Knowledge resource has positive relation with competitive advantage.

H2: Competitive advantage is positively associated with hotel performance.

H3: Market orientation is positively associated with hotel performance.

Research Goal

This study examines the effect of knowledge management on competitive advantage and its effect of competitive advantage on hotel performance in tourism industry as hotels in North of Cyprus.

In addition, there are three significant variables, which are knowledge management resource, competitive advantage and hotel performance. The issues mentioned above show the first step hotel knowledge management are predict variables and competitive advantageous as criterion variables. The second step explores competitive advantage with predicting variables and hotel performance variables as criterion variable in this research.

Sample and Data Collection

The sample consists of managers and CEOs in existing hotels and they are followed by potential tourists in the city who further create an image of how the hotel performs in the market. It also includes families and local residents.

The positive thing about this sample is that not only does it include foreigners but also takes under consideration people from different professionals and different ages. This creates a vast idea of what people appreciate about tourism industry in today's economy.

Measures

In this study, interviews are prepared in English; however, the language in North Cyprus is Turkish. Hence the questions of interviews are subject to standard translation to Turkish and back translation processes. Before starting the interviews some personal questions such as marital status, age, gender, education level, and work experience were directed to CEOs and managers. There are 6 CEOs and 5 managers working in hotel industry on North Cyprus in this study. The analysis of the study is just based on the answers of CEOs and managers that is why the analysis type is qualitative.

The followings are the questions used in the interviews:

-Does your university education affect your working performance?

-How can you integrate knowledges of Competitive Advantage and Market Orientation into your hotel performance?

-What is the correlation between your hotel performance and behavioral, finance and market performances?

-What types of knowledge do you think your management knowledge includes? And why?

There are 11 participants in this study comprising 6 CEOs and 5 managers from Hotels of North Cyprus. The age of CEOs range from 35 to 45 years and ages of managers change from 36-51. The ages show that the participants are somehow experienced but when the work experience questions were directed to each participant, it was founded that almost all of the participants have been working about at least 8 years and most 20 years working in different phases of this industry.

The answers for 1st interviews questions pinpoints that all of the participants are on the idea of having a prosperous university education because there is a challenging improvement in their working life thanks to the university education they had. Even some of them are planning to have postgraduate degrees in order to take effective actions while conducting some management issues in hotel industry. In addition, the findings of the study show that the participants of management department are all eager to accepting students having taken university education in this industry.

The participants pinpoint the significance of knowledges of Competitive Advantage and Market Orientation for hotel performance in 2nd questions. They all state that some issues such as generating, disseminating, sharing information, and responding appropriately are critical for achieving organizational goals and providing customer needs because all of the employees may be in a competitive situation in order to achieve the best solutions for their hotels. The participants define the way for this achievement as cooperation and sharing of knowledge in each department because all of the employees can act actively with a range of appropriate knowledge.

They all state nearly the same things for the 3rd question. They are on the idea that there is exactly a positive correlation between your hotel performance and behavioral, finance and market performances because the more the hotel perform, the more behavioral, finance and market performances they are able to reach. If a hotel performance is at the biggest situation, then the finance and marketing situations can boost the position of the hotel in North Cyprus industry.

As the participants are from the management department and have university education in terms of this job performance, they are able to answer this interview question easily and they all assert that they need technical knowledge and social knowledge managements for conducting a prosperous hotel because all of the CEOs and managers should have business intelligence, collaboration, distributed learning, knowledge discovery, knowledge mapping in terms of technical knowledge and social knowledge for socializing among employees . They consider

that having technical knowledge can boost hotel performances in this competitive hotel industry and they need social knowledge in order to have well minded employees for the benefits of their hotels.

CONCLUSION

The research draws a perfect contrast between knowledge management and tourism to assess the impact of one variable over another and generate hypothesis for acceptance or rejection accordingly. It is thought to be a comprehensive piece of work since many opinions and definitions from renowned researchers are taken and mentioned. Also it gathers primary data from direct sources and several hotels based on which a more diverse set of information is gathered. This research can not only benefit the government of TRNC but also it is a good document for hotels to follow , students on the other hand can use this research as a reference to their own researches since the data is being collected for the first time.

In my opinion, the research is compliment to Carmona-Moreno et al. (2004) who have elaborated the relationship with competitive advantage and business performance. As hotels having a weak competitive edge over others eventually have a lesser revenue and share in the industry. Another research mentioned of Molina- Azorim et al. (2011) is another comparison that is a straight agreement to what we might find in this research. As the research supports the derivation of competitiveness based on eco-friendliness. In this research that is an important factor as North Cyprus is considered as a very natural and beautiful location that people consider different from other crowded and polluted placed. Lastly, the data is reliable and valid since not being taken from websites or articles or another secondary source for that purpose.

REFERENCES

- Carmona-Moreno, E., Cespedes-Lorente, J., & De Burgos-Jimenez, J. (2004). Environmental strategies in Spanish hotels: contextual factors and performance. *The Service Industries Journal*, 24(3), 101-130.
- Chuang, S. H. (2004). A resource-based perspective on knowledge management capability and competitive advantage: an empirical investigation. *Expert systems with applications*, 27(3), 459-465.
- Claver-Cortes, E., Molina-Azonn, J. F., Pereira-Moliner, J., & Lopez-Gamero, M. D. (2007). Environmental strategies and their impact on hotel performance. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(6), 663-679.
- Deng, S., Dart, J., (1994). Measuring market orientation: a multi-factor, multi-item approach. *Journal of Marketing Management* ,10 (8), 725-742.
- Eskildsen, J.K., Dahlgaard, J.J., (2000). A causal model for employee satisfaction. *Total Quality Management*,11

(8), 1081-1094.

- Gold, A. H., Malhotra, A., & Segars, A. H. (2001). Knowledge management: An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1), 185-214.
- Gray, B., Matear, S., Boshoff, C., Matheson, P., (1998). Developing a better measure of market orientation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32 (9/10), 884-903.
- Hedlund, G. (1994). A model of knowledge management and the N-form Corporation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15(5), 73-90.
- Iansiti, M. (1993). Real-world R & D: Jumping the product generation gap. *Harvard Business Review*, 71(3), 138-147.
- Kohli, A.K., Jaworski, B.J., Kumar, A., (1993). MARKOR: A measure of market orientation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30 (November), 467-477.
- Kohli, A., Jaworski, B., (1990). Market orientation: the construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. *Journal of Marketing*, 54, 1-18.
- Koufteros XA, Vonderembse MA, Doll WJ. ,(1997). Competitive capabilities: measurement and relationships. *Proceedings Decision Science Institute*; 1067-68.
- Lamb, C.W., Hair, J.F., McDaniel, C., (2005). *Marketing*, 8th ed. Thomson South-Western Inc., Mason, OH.
- Lee, H., & Choi, B. (2003). Knowledge management enablers, processes, and organizational performance: An integrative view and empirical examination. *Journal of management information systems*, 20(1), 179-228.
- Maslow AH. (1943) A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review* 1943; 50.
- Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational advantage. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2), 242-266.
- Santos-Vijande, M.L., Avarez-Gonzalez, L.I., (2009). TQM's contribution to marketing implementation and firm's competitiveness. *Total Quality Management*, 20 (2), 171-196.
- Tracey M, Vonderembse MA, Lim JS.,(1999). Manufacturing technology and strategy formulation: keys to enhancing competitiveness and improving performance. *Journal of Operations Management*, 17(4):411-28.
- Yamin S, Gunasekruan A, Mavondo FT., (1999) Relationship between generic strategy, competitive advantage and firm performance: an empirical analysis. *Tech novation*; 19(8):507-18.

THE EFFECT OF ANTHROPOMORPHISM AND SOCIAL NETWORK MESSAGE TYPE ON CUSTOMER'S WILLINGNESS TO PATRONAGE THE BRAND

Yaou Hu, Li Pan, Washington State University, USA

Li Pan, Zhejiang Normal University, China

Meng Zhang, Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

Xiaorong Fu, Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

Abstract

This study examines the effect of anthropomorphism and company generated message type on customer's willingness to patronage the brand in social networking websites. This study extends literature by investigating the interaction effect of message type and anthropomorphism on customer's behavioral intention, namely willingness to patronage. Data were collected in a restaurant context using experimental design. The results show that anthropomorphism and social network message type in social networking websites has significant interaction effect on customer's willingness to patronage the brand. The interaction effect is mediated by customers' trust toward the brand. Theoretical and practical implications are provided based on the findings.

Keywords: social media, message type, trust, anthropomorphism

Introduction

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) have been dramatically changing tourism and hospitality industry globally by transforming the practices, management and marketing strategies (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Among these commonly used information and communication technologies (ICTs), social media, which is defined as “the means of interactions among people in which they create, share, exchange and comment contents among themselves in virtual communities and networks” (Ahlqvist et al., 2010, p. 13), has huge number of users and keeps growing rapidly. More and more companies adopt social network sites (SNSs) such as Facebook and Twitter for marketing. Hotels and restaurants open their social network accounts on social media sites such as Facebook and Twitter to share information, connect, and interact with customers. Consumers are also actively involved in the business-customer communication.

Extensive research efforts have been employed to examine consumer-to-consumer communications on social media. For example, how potential consumer’s information search behavior (Herrero et al., 2015), decision making process, attitudes, and purchase behavior would be affected by user generated content(UGC) on social networks (Mangold & Faulds 2009). Through the influence on consumer behaviors, user generated content on social media also exerts effects on business performance (Kim et al., 2016).

However, surprisingly, relatively fewer studies have investigated business-to- consumer communications and relationships on social media (Kwok & Yu, 2013; Line & Runyan, 2012; Vernuccio, 2014). To be specific, how brand generated messages affect consumers’ attitude toward the brand, consumers’ decision making process and purchase behavior. Therefore, one goal of current study is to examine the effect of company generated messages on social media on consumer’s behavioral intention (i.e., willingness to pay) toward the brand in hospitality context.

Moreover, the nature of social media lies in its sociability (Lee et al., 2012). Arguing that the foundation of communicating and maintaining a relationship with customers for a brand on social media sites is to build and maintain “friendship”, this study adopts brand trust and anthropomorphism as two important aspects for building brand-to-consumer “friendship”. This study argues that anthropomorphism and message content type interact to impact customer’s willingness to pay through the mediation of trust. Therefore, the second goal of this study is to examine the interaction between message type and

anthropomorphism on consumer's willingness to pay, and the underlying process of this impact.

Literature Review Social media message content type

Previous literature has examined the effects of important social media message characteristics on message "popularity" and "attractiveness" measured by the number of "Like", shares under a post, and comments got from consumers using existing brands' social media messages on social network websites (e.g., Kwok & Yu, 2013; Kwok & Yu, 2015; Su et al., 2015). These social media message characteristics include message types (sales and marketing vs. conversational messages), media type (text, link, video, photo) (Moro et al., 2016), and message framing tactics (Su et al., 2015). Previous studies reveal that compared with sales and marketing related messages, conversational messages get more likes and comments from consumers (Kwok & Yu, 2013; Kwok & Yu, 2015).

Even though these studies offer new insights from the business-to-consumer communication perspective, they have some limitations. First, these studies employ secondary data gathered using text-mining techniques. Due to the limitation of data, some crucial consumer behavioral reactions cannot be assessed. Second, previous studies cannot explain the underlying reason that why consumers prefer conversational messages over sale/marketing messages.

Message framing and anthropomorphism

Anthropomorphism is defined as "the attribution of uniquely human characteristics and features to nonhuman creatures and beings, natural and supernatural phenomena, material states or objects, and even abstract concepts (Epley, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2007). The well-known concept of brand personality (Aaker, 1997) is also related to brand anthropomorphism (Aggarwal & McGill, 2012). When consumers see anthropomorphism in brand marketing, they will automatically associate the nonhuman brands with humanlike characteristics, motivations, intentions, personality traits, or emotions (Epley et al., 2007; Epley et al., 2008). This study suggests that anthropomorphism could also be used as a message framing method for service brands on social media. This study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: Anthropomorphism and message type interact to affect customer's willingness to patronage the brand.

Trust

Trust has been identified as an important factor that contributes to various consumers' behaviors in online context, such as purchase behavior and technology adoption behavior (Buhalis & Law, 2008). This study argues that trust is the underlying process that explaining why the effect of anthropomorphism and message type on customer's willingness to patronage the brand differs. To be specific, the interaction of anthropomorphism and message type on willingness to patronage the brand is mediated by customer's perceived trust toward the brand. Therefore, H1 is proposed:

H2: Consumer's trust toward the brand mediates the interaction effect of message content type and anthropomorphism on consumer's willingness to patronage the brand.

Methodology Data collection and experiments

Data were collected online through Mturk using self-administrated questionnaire. A 2 (message type: sales vs. conversation) * 2 (anthropomorphism: regular vs. anthropomorphism) between subject experiment was conducted using restaurant as the research context. 153 valid questionnaires were used for data analyses. Willingness to dine at the restaurant and trust toward the restaurant are measured using 7-point Likert scale.

Findings

A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed only a significant interaction effect between anthropomorphism and message type. $F(1, 149) = 3.95, p < 0.05$, such that participants in the regular sale condition have higher level of willingness to dine at the restaurant than participants in the anthropomorphized sale condition ($M_{regular\ sale} = 5.16$, $M_{anthropomorphized\ sale} = 4.60$), while participants in the anthropomorphized

conversation condition have higher level of willingness to dine at the restaurant than participants in the regular conversation condition ($M_{regular\ conversation} = 4.74$, $M_{anthropomorphized\ conversation} = 5.10$). The results suggest that the match between message type and anthropomorphism contribute to higher level of willingness to patronage the brand.

Using trust as mediator, a mediated moderation analysis was conducted through Hayes Process Model 7. The results showed that anthropomorphism and the interaction term have significant positive effect

on trust ($b_{anthropomorphism} = 0.562, p < 0.05$; $b_{interaction} = -0.679, p < 0.05$), and trust has significant positive effect on willingness to patronage ($b_{trust} = 0.552, p < 0.05$). Trust toward the brand significantly mediated the effect of the interaction on willingness to pay.

Discussion

This study adds to the sparse literature on how anthropomorphism and company generated message type affect customer's behavioral intention in social networking websites. This study extends literature by investigating the interaction effect of message type and anthropomorphism on customer's willingness to patronage. Using data collected in a restaurant context through an experimental design, the results show that anthropomorphism and social network message type in social networking websites has significant negative interaction effect on customer's willingness to patronage the brand. No significant main effects of anthropomorphism and message type on willingness to patronage the brand are found.

The findings suggest that neither message type or anthropomorphism contribute to higher level of willingness to patronage. The match between message type (sale vs. conversation) and framing tactic (anthropomorphized vs. regular) is the effect that drives higher level of willingness to patronage. The results indicate that it might not be a good strategy to eliminate all the sales information on brands' social network accounts. Service providers should frame the messages based on the content they want to deliver.

Moreover, the interaction effect is mediated by customers' trust toward the brand. In other words, the match between message type (sale vs. conversation) and framing tactic (anthropomorphized vs. regular) contributes to higher level of customers' trust perception toward the brand, and trust in turn leads to customers' willingness to patronage the brand. Service brand practitioners should pay more attention to the match between message type and framing tactics when generating messages on social networking websites. More efforts should be paid to cultivate customers' trust using company generated messages on social media accounts.

References

- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of marketing research*, 347-356.
- Aggarwal, P., & McGill, A. L. (2012). When brands seem human, do humans act like brands? Automatic behavioral priming effects of brand anthropomorphism. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(2), 307-323.
- Buhalis, D., & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism management*, 29(4), 609-623.
- Epley, N., Waytz, A., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2007). On seeing human: a three-factor theory of anthropomorphism. *Psychological review*, 114(4), 864.
- Epley, N., Waytz, A., Akalis, S., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2008). When we need a human: Motivational determinants of anthropomorphism. *Social cognition*, 26(2), 143-155.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: what motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet? *Journal of interactive marketing*, 18(1), 38-52.
- Herrero, A., San Martin, H., & Hernandez, J. M. (2015). How online search behavior is influenced by user-generated content on review websites and hotel interactive websites. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(7), 1573-1597.
- Hsu, Y.L. (2012), "Facebook as international eMarketing strategy of Taiwan hotels", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 972-980.
- Hur, J. D., Koo, M., & Hofmann, W. (2015). When temptations come alive: How anthropomorphism undermines self-control. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 42(2), 340-358.
- Kang, J., Tang, L., & Fiore, A. M. (2014). Enhancing consumer-brand relationships on restaurant Facebook fan pages: Maximizing consumer benefits and increasing active participation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 145-155.
- Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business horizons*, 53(1), 59-68.
- Kim, W. G., Li, J. J., & Brymer, R. A. (2016). The impact of social media reviews on restaurant performance: The moderating role of excellence certificate. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 55, 41-51.
- Kim, S., & McGill, A. L. (2011). Gaming with Mr. Slot or gaming the slot machine? Power, anthropomorphism, and risk perception. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38(1), 94-107.
- Kwok, L., & Yu, B. (2013). Spreading social media messages on facebook an analysis of restaurant business-to-consumer communications. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54(1), 84-94.
- Kwok, L., & Yu, B. (2015). Taxonomy of Facebook messages in business-to-consumer communications: What really works?. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 1467358415600214.
- Lee, W., Xiong, L., & Hu, C. (2012). The effect of Facebook users' arousal and valence on intention to go to the festival: Applying an extension of the technology acceptance model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 819-827.

- Line, N. D., & Runyan, R. C. (2012). Hospitality marketing research: Recent trends and future directions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 477-488.
- Mangold, W. G., & Faulds, D. J. (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business horizons*, 52(4), 357-365.
- Masri, M., Esber, D., Sarrazin, H., & Singer, M. (2015). Your company should be helping customers on social. Harvard Business Review: Social Platforms Web site. <https://hbr.org/2015/07/your-company-should-be-helping-customers-on-social>. Published July, 15.
- Moro, S., Rita, P., & Vala, B. (2016). Predicting social media performance metrics and evaluation of the impact on brand building: A data mining approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(9), 3341-3351.
- Park, S. B., Ok, C. M., & Chae, B. K. (2016). Using Twitter Data for Cruise Tourism Marketing and Research. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 33(6), 885-898.
- Puzakova, M., Kwak, H., & Rocereto, J. F. (2013). When humanizing brands goes wrong: the detrimental effect of brand anthropomorphization amid product wrongdoings. *Journal of Marketing*, 77(3), 81-100.
- Raacke, J., & Bonds-Raacke, J. (2008). MySpace and Facebook: Applying the uses and gratifications theory to exploring friend-networking sites. *Cyberpsychology & behavior*, 11(2), 169-174.
- Su, N., Mariadoss, B. J., & Reynolds, D. (2015). Friendship on social networking sites: Improving relationships between hotel brands and consumers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 51, 76-86.
- Su, N., Reynolds, D., & Sun, B. (2015). How to make your Facebook posts attractive: A case study of a leading budget hotel brand fan page. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(8), 1772-1790.
- Tussyadiah, I. P., Kausar, D. R., & Soesilo, P. K. (2015). The Effect of Engagement in Online Social Network on Susceptibility to influence. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 1096348015584441.
- Vernuccio, M. (2014). Communicating corporate brands through social media an *exploratory study*. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 51(3), 211-233.

THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF GEOTOURISM ON LOCAL COMMUNITIES IN QESHM GEOPARK

[Shahrbano Shari Gholitabar](#) Tourism Faculty, Eastern Mediterranean university
Famagusta, Cyprus

[Carlos Manuel Martins Da Costa](#), DEGEIT, Aveiro University Aveiro, Portugal

[Reza Esmaeili](#), Mazandaran University Babolsar, Iran

ABSTRACT

Geoparks as a new approach to sustainable development and a new model of protected areas are an attempt to increase public knowledge of geological and geomorphological heritage. They also bring socio-economic development by promoting geo-tourism as a sub-set of sustainable tourism. Natural heritage is of great importance with a view to developing tourism. Since geotourism has direct interaction with natural heritage, it can be also part of natural tourism. In fact, geotourism is a special form of tourism in which geo-sites are the centre of attention. According to Geo, multiple sites in Qeshm Geopark have varied potential to attract geotourists, with crucial effects on economic prosperity which is vital for different groups in society.

This paper studies the economic effects of geotourism on the local communities in the Qeshm Geopark which is the first and the only UNESCO registered Geopark in the Middle East. The scientific goal of this study is 1: a) to reveal factors affecting rural economic development with protection of the values of geotourism; b) to assess the level of knowledge and understanding of local communities on geotourism & Geoparks with their participation in promoting the rural economy. The practical goal is 2: a) to provide guidelines for proper planning on the basis of findings with regard to preventing human intervention in land degradation; b) to provide education and promote indigenous knowledge and involvement of rural communities for conserving resources for future generations.

Data were collected from residents of the villages nearby Geosites via questionnaires. The questionnaires included questions on employment, income, infrastructure developments and diversity

of agricultural products. The findings indicated that the local residents stressed that the Geopark had little influence on employment and income for local communities. Nevertheless, it had a positive role in improving the local handicraft industry. Using the Kruskal-Wallis statistical test, significant differences can be seen between the results from different villages. The most important reason for these differences is related to the distance of the villages from the geosites. It can be deduced from the results, the residents of villages ' near Qeshm Geopark proclaimed that effects are not visible on a large scale for the entire rural area, influential though it may be in life and the economy. This could be attributed to various facts, for example: lack of projects, lack of facilities and infrastructure allocation to attract the geotourism and lack of proper management, as well as insufficient training for residents . Remarkably, in this study residents acknowledged that economic potential should be considered. Finally, with regard to the outcome of the results, the following can be expressed: that partnership with the local community in case of geotourism, training them to identify the Geopark and better understanding of it, protection of human and environmental geology and developing cultural and infrastructural facilities and amenities, will conceivably make maximum use the potential of Qeshm Geopark in order to achieve scientific objectives, training, attracting geotourism and increase income in rural area.

Key Words: Qeshm Geopark - Geotourism - Geosites - economic local communities

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, particular attention is being paid to the understanding of geophenomena, and consequently geotourism is increasing across the world. Geotourism is a new form of tourism which pays special attention to geosites (Dowling & Newsom, 2006). Due to multiple geo-sites in Qeshm Geopark which have the potential to attract geotourism, research on the economic effects of the Geopark on the local area is important for different groups. With proper planning and taking into account the principles of sustainable environmental protection, economic interests and the welfare of society, geotourism will simultaneously be the cause of development in local communities.

'Geopark' is an abbreviation of geological parks and the name is given to land where the geological phenomena are unique and which have a specific geological evolutionary history. The main purpose of Geoparks is to conserve the lands which are at risk of vandalism. Recently, the concept has been spreading of the Geo-park with the aim of enhancing economic development through Geotourism based on the geology of an area (Gordon, 2012).

Geotourism is one of the main activities of Geoparks, and is under the umbrella of geographical tourism. It is clear that development of the local economy is the result of tourism activities. In addition, Geoparks are an approach to developing geotourism. They try to attract many visitors, who are the reason for socioeconomic activities and sustainable development.

Since Geoparks apply new strategies and facilities by creating geo-products, geoorganized sports, constructing buildings in rural areas, providing geotourism maps, creating Geopark museums and geo-perspectives, they are key factors in the development of geotourism. The local economy will get the benefits of Geoparks via geotourism. Locals will be trained how to conserve the local landscape via Geoparks and they will also encourage local businesses and rural industries by involving geotourism and geo-marketing.

The management structure of Geoparks follows goals such as promoting the local economy, rural development, sustainable development and increasing tourism to the region. Therefore, Geopark authorities have sought to apply the objectives of the sustainable geo-triangle (education, protection, geotourism) (Torabi, 1389).

RESEARCH STATEMENT

Nowadays, the Geopark is considered as a new strategy in the protection of geological heritage and natural history. It refers not only to the variety of geological heritage but also archaeological, ecological and cultural heritage. Recently, geotourism as a tourism industry subset with its focus on sustainability tourism development, economic activities and local welfare has grown remarkably. In this vein, Qeshm Geopark as the first and only Geopark in the Middle East registered by UNESCO is no exception. Qeshm Geopark can play an important role due to its uniqueness in geology and biology.

Qeshm Island consists of three central parts: Shahab, Hormoz, and Meteorites with 58 villages. Rural economic development is of particular interest due to the fact that most of the Qeshm population is concentrated in rural areas. Also, based on rules of the European Geoparks Network (EGN) and the Geopark Global Network, Geoparks should be established in rural areas (Costa et al 2008; Zeos & Martini 2003). Geoparks and geotourism are opportunities for rural development. At the same time, they will reduce the unemployment and migration rate in rural areas by creating innovative strategies for rural development (Torabi et al., 2008).

The economic effects of geotourism are argued to be direct or indirect. The costs of tourism in the

region, income, and employment which can be created directly by geotourism in the Geopark and nearby areas (such as accommodation, food, transportation, etc.) are considered as the direct effect. This effect can be assessed with a definite degree of confidence, but showing the assessment of indirect effects with numbers and figures is harder because they are parsed as a logical consequence of Geopark activities and structures (Hartling & Meier, 2010). Demonstrating positive economic effect leads to public support.

Several authors have pointed to the basic reasons for tourism impact on the development of the local economy. They stress that these main reasons are the economic evaluation of virtual goods, income generation, and a creation of public infrastructure, using unused equipment, modernizing the structure of the local economy, increasing local production and traditional economic activities and growth of employment. In addition, the involvement of local people in geotourism marketing and in local communities leads to an increase in cultural communication between geotourists and local communities (Torabi et al., 2012: 140).

Geotourism is an important factor in sustainable development and local culture of the host community. In fact, guests and the local community have interactions with twofold changes. These consequences can be positive or negative. To achieve sustainable development, it is necessary to apply strategies in this regard. For example, to prevent destruction caused by tourists, protection and education is a necessity.

On one hand, the host community represents the local culture by handicrafts and on the other hand, the boom of geotourism will result in direct employment of locals by selling handicrafts. These crafts are likely to be present in outlets and shops inside hotels for tourists (Nekouei & Sadri, 1388: 41). Since tourism is a new phenomenon in Iran with unimplemented infrastructures, management plans should be launched based on principles of sustainable development (Torabi, 1388). Tourism approaches in the management of natural resources in villages near the Geopark lead to protection of nature, promotion of culture and education and development of the local economy. One of the positive consequences of this type of management is to increase incentives for rural youth by changing God-given resources around the countryside to an eco-tourism destination, which is under supported by governments (Sadri 1388: 14 and 40).

Needless to say, studying the behaviour of the host community can be an important indicator in planning. Their participation or non-participation might be a factor for economic promotion or lack of

promotion. So, the effects of tourism on the culture of the host community play an important role in determining economic impacts. Although Qeshm Geopark is registered by UNESCO as the first Geopark in the Middle East, unfortunately, it is still unknown to tourists. While this area has the potential for foreign investment, many factors have to be studied to determine the economic benefits for Qeshm local communities.

The Iranian government should take steps to support tourism agencies and use their experiences for the creation of infrastructures. Achieving economic benefits from tourism, business development and local economic recovery in Qeshm requires special investigation.

This study investigated factors affecting the local economy of Qeshm and its economic development, identifying the current weaknesses and the right solutions through quantitative and qualitative methods.

THE IMPORTANCE OF RESEARCH

The tourism industry is one of the most important revenues and is increasingly growing across the world. According to the World Bank statistics in 2000, there were over 701 million tourists worldwide. The flow of tourism brought nearly \$475 billion directly into the global economy (Papeli Yazdi & Saghaei, 1388).

Tourism development, especially in less developed countries, has an important role in combating poverty. Increasing the income of the various segments, reducing unemployment and improving the quality of life and economic prosperity and social well-being are the outcomes of tourism development (Kazemi, 1385: 7). Natural heritage is of great importance with a view to tourism development. Since geotourism is directly related to natural heritage, it can be considered as a part of naturalistic tourism. In fact, geotourism is a special form of tourism in which geosites will be the centre of tourists' attention (Dowling & Newsom, 2006: 5).

. Given the multiple geo-sites and different potential for attracting geotourism in Qeshm, a study on effects is required.

RESEARCH AIM

The scientific purposes are a) to study the factors affecting rural economic development along with protection of the values of geotourism; b) to study the level of knowledge and understanding of Geoparks and participation in the booming rural economy.

The practical purposes are a) to provide guidelines for proper planning according to the findings with regard to the protection of human intervention in the prevention of land degradation; b) to educate and to promote indigenous knowledge and involvement of rural communities in conserving resources for future generations.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Has the Geopark played an important role in the economic promotion of local communities?

What is the level of participation and understanding of rural communities of the Geopark role in developing geotourism?

HYPOTHESIS

The Geopark seems to have had little role in economic promotion (increasing employment and income) in local communities.

Understanding of local communities of Geoparks and Geo-tourism seems to be low.

METHOD

This type of research is practical.

DATA COLLECTION

An analytical-descriptive method has been used with the combination of library and literature review as well as a field study method to collect data in order to examine the relationship between Geoparks, Geotourism and understanding and contributing to the economic development of rural communities. In this study, the questionnaire was used. This tool set is written answers that respondents complete with or without the presence of the researcher. Another tool is the interview card. It is also a tool for recording data which is written to be used as a guide for asking questions.

ANALYSIS

First, the framework was prepared and information collected from the library and via the field study method. All examples of population and villages in the area were considered for interviews and

questionnaires. The collected data are processed with SPSS software and then data was analysed with descriptive statistics by presenting the distribution frequency table. Means are considered to show the result through inferential statistics in order to address the hypotheses tested in the research.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

This research was done via questionnaire, which includes a wide range of different topics. If we assume the questionnaire is a test, in general, it can be said that a good test should have desirable features in order to extract the right conclusions, such as objectivity, ease of implementation, practicality, ease of interpretation, validity, and reliability. Among all these factors validity and reliability are the most important. In this study, Cronbach's alpha, one of the most common methods, is used. This coefficient varies between zero and one. Normally, if the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is equal to or greater than 0.7, it indicates good reliability of the measurements. This test is used for questions that measure the total of a concept. In this sense, it is very convenient to measure the reliability of the results achieved by the Likert spectrum. The reliability of economic impacts on rural communities of Qeshm Geopark is done through a pre-test. The results indicate that the number of 92/0 is acceptable and therefore the reliability is confirmed. The validity of the questionnaire was already through superficial validity.

LIMITATION

This study faced a lack of easy access, due to the long distances of some geosites and villages and the remoteness of geosites, a lack of public transportation and a lack of communication and paved roads to geosites, for example, the salt cave is 26 km from the *village Salkh* which is on unpaved road for about 20 km and also is not accessible in rainy weather.

Another important limitation was the lack of literacy among villagers and their accent that required the researcher to be accompanied by a native during the distribution of questionnaires and interviews. There was also individual nonparticipation, especially among women who didn't wish to respond or to be interviewed. The other limitation was the absence of a complex welfare system, restaurants or places of recreation, during some long routes.

CASE STUDY

Iran is a large country located in the Middle East between the Caspian Sea to the north and the Persian

Gulf to the south. Damavand is Iran's highest point at 5671 meters and the Caspian Sea at 25 meters below sea level is the lowest. Geologically, it belongs to the Alpine-Himalayan mountain belt. Iran's geomorphological characteristics (due to the size and diversity of landforms and processes related to them) helps geotourism itself and Qeshm Island also consists of mountains, volcanoes, water and other common factors (Amri Kazemi & Mehrpuya - taken from Dowling & Newsome, 2006). Qeshm Island, near the mouth of the Strait of Hormuz, is located in the Persian Gulf at 56 degrees 16 minutes east longitude and 26 degrees 57 minutes north latitude and Greenwich meridian. The island is the largest island in the Persian Gulf with a distance of approximately 22 kilometres from Bandar Abbas (Blukbashi, 1379: 11).

Qeshm is a continuation of the Southern Zagros mountain range that shows many structures and forms, large Taqdis, clear outcrops, specific formations with forms of erosion in layers, salt caves and spectacular landscapes including geological phenomena (Kazemi, 13: 1387). Qeshm, with an area of about 1,600 square kilometres, is the largest island in Iran (Shah Hosseini, 1388).

Qeshm is warm and dry, with a high relative humidity. The average annual temperature is 26°C to 27°C. The warmest month is July with an average temperature of 34°C and the coldest month is 18°C with an annual humidity content of 64% (Sharifnia & Hassanpour, 1379).

The Qeshm Island Geopark was registered in 2006 as the first Geopark in the Middle East due to its natural heritage. It has a valuable collection of international geosites. These sites were to be registered as the first Geopark in the Middle East by UNESCO. It includes: 1) salt caves; 2) mangrove forests (mangroves); 3) Gori Cheshme; 4) mineral water springs; 5) Chah Kouh valley; 6) Shegefangiz Valley; Iranian deer habitat; 8) Tandis Valley; 9) Tonge Aali; 10) Setareha Valley; 11) Kouhsare Geopark; 12) dolphin habitat; 13) marine turtles laying; 14) coast of island birds; 15) various birds; 16) The passage fig tree.

Cultural-historical sites are as follows: 1) traditional architecture and ancient Kharbas Cave; 2) traditional architecture; 3) wind catchers of Loft Port; 4) Tala Digs; 5) historical castles (Qeshm, Loft, Bavsaeid); 6) shrines (Sarabi et al., 1387).

METHOD

Due to the purpose of this study, which was to examine the economic effects of Qeshm Geopark on

local communities, villages (communities) near the geosites were considered as the statistical population. Therefore, the number of residents in villages close to natural sites was assessed through questionnaires. Questionnaires were designed for a range of very low to very high.

After completing the questionnaire, the result was analysed with SPSS software and statistical tests such as Chi-square and Kruskal-Wallis.

RESULTS

Some characteristics of respondents as a statistical sample (such as age, gender and education) are delineated in Table 1. The age of respondents was categorized mainly in the active economic group. 74% of the respondents were male. In terms of education, more than 90% of respondents had a high school diploma or less.

The statistical results of the effects of Qeshm Geopark in terms of employment, income, handicrafts, agriculture, local communities (villages) and infrastructure are shown in Table 2.

According to this table, the means of respondents scores on creating jobs and income are assessed with at 4.2 and 19.2 respectively, from "low" to "moderate". This means that Qeshm Geopark had a low impact on employment and incomes as the locals also expected. In this regard, public opinion about the prosperity and development of handicrafts was more favourable and the positive impact of Geopark on it is shown (Figure 1).

The mean score of respondents about the effects of Geopark on the diversity of crops, in which there is a low effect of the Geopark on the diversity of agricultural crops, is assessed at 1.12 as shown. Also, according to the effect of the Geopark on infrastructure and infrastructure services such as roads and streets, local people stressed that the Geopark has failed to meet their expectations in all villages. The mean of the score on this question was 33.2, which represents low to moderate effects.

Table 1

Some of the general characteristics of respondents

Variable	Group	Frequency	Percentage
	< 20	17	27.4

Age	20-30	11	17.8
	30-40	9	14.5
	40-50	10	16.1
	> 50	15	24.2
Gender	Male	46	21
	Female	13	74
Education	Elementary school or less	34	54.9
	High school Bachelor	22	35.5

A STUDY OF THE DIFFERENCES IN COMMENTS BY LOCAL PEOPLE FROM VARIOUS VILLAGES ABOUT THE IMPACT OF THE GEOPARK ON THE LIVES OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES

The Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test was used to examine the differences in comments by locals in various villages of Qeshm Geopark in relation to its effects on the economy of local communities. The results of each level of questions are shown in Table 2.

The impact of the Geopark on employment of local residents is seen as increasing income and the development of crafts. There is a significant difference among the participants of different villages according to the level of significance ($\text{sig} = 0.0$). The highest and lowest mean scores belonged to the villages of Haft rang and Salkh.

Table 2

The result of statistical analysis of groups on economic impact of Qeshm Geopark

No.	Questions	Mean	Standard	Sig
1	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local employment	2.4	0.87	0.0
2	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local income	2.19	0.92	0.0

3	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on handicrafts	2.79	1.14	0.0
4	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local agriculture	1.12	0.42	0.0
5	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on infrastructures and facilities	2.33	1.12	0.0

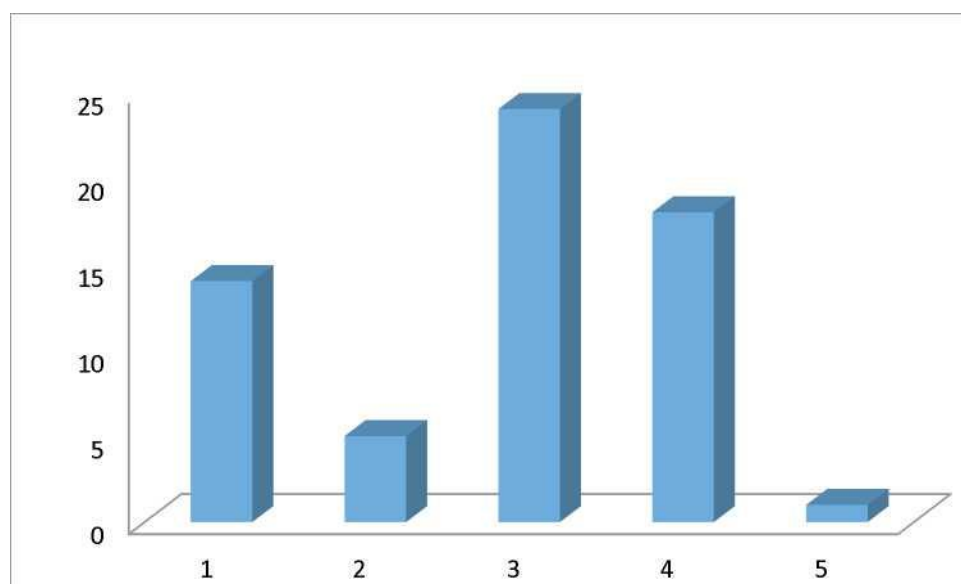


Figure 1

Descriptive data related to the questions on the effect of the Geopark on crafts. The horizontal axis has a spectrum from low (1) to very high (5) and the vertical axis shows the number of respondents. Source: field results.

Reviewing local people's comments in various villages on the effect of the Geopark on agriculture has demonstrated that there is no significant difference about the impact of geopark on agriculture among the opinions of people in the Geopark area.

Table 3

Assessment of Qeshm geopark's impact on different villages near sites

No.	Questions	Salakh	Haft Rangou	Soheyli	Shib Deraz	Tabl	Berkeh Khalaf	SIG
1	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local employment	10.5	48	24	23.5	44	36.5	0%
2	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local income	14	46	43	25	40	21	0%
3	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on handicrafts	15	39	36	37.6	27	33	0%
4	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on local agriculture	27	37	27	24	24	24	6%
5	The impact of Qeshm Geopark on infrastructures and facilities	28	34	35	16	16	36	0%

A study of the comments by the local people of various villages about the effect of the Geopark on creating infrastructure and infrastructure services reveals a difference between the villages. Thus, *Tabl* and *Shibderaz* villages have the lowest slop and the *Berke Khalaf* village has the greatest (Table 3).

Qeshm Geopark has 8 main geosites. *Darre Setareha* is located near the *Berke Khalaf* village and the *Chahkough* site near the Eastern *Chahoo*, the *Dare Tandisha* site southwest of *Tabl* village, and *Kouhe Namakdan* site on the way to *Salakh*. There is no village near *Tonge Aali* and *Shour Valley*. The center

of *Taghdis Salakh* is passing through *Shour Darre* site. The *Doulab* site is located south of *Doulab* village and *Kourkourah Kouh* site is located near the *Giahdan* village. The most employment created related to rural tourism occurs in the following villages:

- *Tabl* village near the *Tandis Valley* site and the *Mangrove Forest*.
- *Berke Khalaf* village, which is adjacent to the *Star Valley* site.
- *Soheili* village is in close proximity to the *Mangrove Forest* and a harbour with sailors who work there. It has a traditional restaurant, craft booths, a traditional cafe, a restaurant, supermarket, cafe, ice cream shop, etc. These are open only during high seasons (Eid, summer, school breaks, etc.).
- *Shib Deraz* village is affected by those watching visiting turtles and also dolphins in *Hengam* Island.
- *Haft Rangoo* village is near *Tabl* village with accommodation and traditional food and transportation which all are available to the tourist in order to conduct tours.

It is noteworthy that there is no effect on economic growth in some villages which are adjacent to geosites such as *Darakou*, eastern *Chahoo*, *Giahdan* and *Salakh* (the villages are located on the way to *Qeshm Bam*, *Shour Valley*, *Namakdan Cave*). Not many jobs have been created in these villages.

Considering the negative effects of the Geopark on local communities, the comments of locals varied significantly but the average score (2.12) represents less adverse effects in the region.

The findings revealed that Qeshm Island Geopark has had a more effective impact on creating jobs, increasing income and developing handicrafts. Incumbent view of respondents was that these effects occurred only in the villages near the geosites and the villages which are located on the way to these sites have not benefited from it. The other salient finding was that the impact of the Geopark on the rural area is assessed as low to moderate. This could be attributed to the fact that dispersion and remoteness of some geosites (such as *Namak Cave*) and the lack of villages around them are the predominant factors which have influenced the above-mentioned results. Respondents acknowledged that Qeshm Geopark has the potential to attract tourists, so the reason for the low positive impact on local communities economically should be sought elsewhere. In the light of the interviews with residents as well as field observations, the low impact can be attributed particularly to lack of training and knowledge of residents, non-allocation of the necessary facilities for tourists (investment, advertising, etc.).

IMPLICATIONS

Given to the results achieved, we suggest strategies and recommendations to help to promote a positive impact of the Geopark on local economic life:

- participating with local communities and training them to transmit understanding of the concept of the Geopark, revenues, and participation in this area;
- creating infrastructures, especially the harbour and accommodation;
- developing and widening rural roads to prevent the destruction of natural instruction of the villages;
- preparing and creating tourism infrastructures such as access roads, catering and recreational facilities and places to stay;
- training young people who are interested in nature to be local guides; distributing equally the assets and infrastructure services in different villages;
- improving access to the sites with the installation of symptoms and signs, strengthening the network infrastructure network, training, and improved social behaviour.

In fact, since the goals of Geopark management (education, protection and absorption of geotourism) are to be set for the economic development and participation of local communities, all operations and proposals should have the intention of achieving these objectives. Finally, we recommended that a study should be made to investigate if innovations in Geoparks help to develop geotourism, and improve revenues for the local economy. Similar comparative studies in other geoparks are advisable.

REFERENCES

ENGLISH REFERENCES

- Amrikazemi, A., & Mehrpooya, A. (2006). Geotourism resources of Iran. *Geotourism*, 78-95.
- Dowling, R. K. (2011). Geotourism's global growth. *Geoheritage*, 3(1), 1-13.
- Farsani, N. T., Coelho, C., Costa, C., & Carvalho, C. (2012). *Geoparks and geotourism: new approaches to sustainability for the 21st century*. Universal- Publishers.
- Farsani, N. T., Coelho, C., & Costa, C. (2011). Geotourism and geoparks as novel strategies for socio-economic development in rural areas. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(1), 68-81.
- Gordon, J. E. (2012). Rediscovering a sense of wonder: geoheritage, geotourism and cultural landscape experiences. *Geoheritage*, 4(1-2), 65-77.
- Hartling, J. W., & Meier, I. (2010, January). Economic effects of geotourism in geopark TERRA. vita, Northern Germany. In *The George Wright Forum* (Vol. 27, No. 1, p. 29). George Wright Society.
- Newsome, D., & Dowling, R. (2006). The scope and nature of geotourism. *Geotourism. Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann, Oxford*, 3-25.
- Torabi Farsani, N., Coelho, C., & Costa, C. (2009) " ecoeotourism as an opportunity for local community participation in geoparks " VIII European conference idaunha -a- nova 14-16 SEP 2009, Portugal.
- Zouros, N., & Martini, G. (2003). Introduction to the European Geoparks network.

In NHM of Lesvos Petrified Forest. Proceeding of 2nd international Symposium of Natural Monuments and Geological Heritage. Lesvos, Greece (pp. 17-21)

PERSIAN REFERENCES

Bloukbashi,A.(1379).Jazire Qeshm sadaf nashekaft Persian Golf,Daftar pajuheshhayeh farangi,chap Nil.

Kazemi,M.(1385). Modiriat gardeshgari.entesharat Samt,Tehran.

Majmoue maghalat qeshm(1388).sherkat motaleat gardeshgari zamin,Tehran.

Nekouei,S.B.(1388).mabani zamin gardeshgari ba takid bar Iran.entesharat Samt,markaze tahghigh va tosee olum ensani.

Papeli,Y.,& Saghaei,M.(1385).Gardeshgari,mahiat va mafahim.entesharat Samt Tehran

Sarabi,M.H.,Ebrahimi. S. ,Birvandzade .M. ,Gourani,R.(1387).barrasi potansielhayeh Geotouristi Geopark Qeshmba takid bar jangal hara va ghare namakdan. Majmoue maghalate Geopak Qeshm,Sherkate motaleat gardeshgari zamin.

Shah hosseini,H.(1388). Barrasi asarate ejtemaei farhangi echotourism dar Geopark Qesham.Payannameh karshenasi arshad motaleaat farhangi daneshgah alaame Tabatabaei,Daneshkade olume ejtemaei,Tehran.

Sharif,P.,& Hassanpour,Zahra.(1387)Mangro va jangalhayeh Hara negin GeoparkQeshm,Majmoue maghalat Qeshm Geopark,sherkat motaleate gardeshgari.

WHAT HOTEL MANAGERS THINK ABOUT GUEST COMPLAINTS?

CASE OF SAUDI ARABIAN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

[Erdogan Ekiz](#)

Faculty of Tourism, King Abdulaziz University Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

[Ibrahim Alsini](#)

Faculty of Tourism, King Abdulaziz University Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

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 provides useful insights about the important phenomenon that is mostly studied from the guests' point of view (Ekiz, 2009). To do so, self-administrated questionnaires used to reach out Saudi hoteliers. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and multiple regression are conducted on the collected data via SPSS 22.0. Both academic and industrial implications will be presented.

Key Words: Complaint management, current practices, Managers' perceptions, hotels, Saudi Arabia.

BRIEF BACKGROUND

“Ever increasing customer expectations force companies to focus their efforts on not only providing exceptional services with value for money but also doing it better than competitors” (Ekiz, 2009, p. 540). When the inseparability characteristic and labor-intensive nature of the services added on top of these, providing services with zero defects is a rigid and unrealistic target. While companies may not be able to prevent all mistakes and failures, they can and must learn how to recover from these problems (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990).

Service companies in general, hotels in particular have been increasingly encouraging their customers/guests to voice their complaints directly to them since these complaints are chances given to alter what is going wrong in the provision of service (Blodgett, Hill & Tax, 1997). Once guests decide to complain, hoteliers have to be well prepared in both tangible (structure, employees, procedures etc.) and intangible (prejudgments, skills etc.) ways to offset the guests’ negative reaction to the service failures. To do so, all the necessary actions should be taken by companies to move a customer from a state of disappointment to a state of satisfaction (Bell & Ridge, 1992).

Guests’ evaluations of organizations’ responses to their complaints in service encounters are important elements of complaint management which, if well handled, can lead to guest satisfaction and long-term loyalty (Blodgett & Anderson, 2000). In order to ensure this, hoteliers should have clear understanding of importance and necessity of guest complaints, be focused and committed to guests needs, have a clear, practical yet comprehensive complaint handling procedures and have trained and motivated employees to deal with complaining guests (Day et al., 1981; Kowalski, 1996; Hedrick, Beverland & Minahan, 2007).

Above discussion plainly shows the need for understanding the ongoing complaint handling practices in hospitality industry to create and maintain a competitive edge in satisfying guests. 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. This study is useful for at least two reasons. First, it is expected to provide some useful insights about the important phenomenon, guest complaints, that is mostly studied from the demand side (see Altinay, 1994; Heung, Ekiz, & Ling, 2007; Kilic & Okumus, 2005; Qu, Ryan, & Chu, 2000). Learning hoteliers’ viewpoints, supply side, may enhance the existing body of knowledge. Second, this study has important

implications for hospitality industry in Saudi Arabia.

Although, companies try their best to minimize the problems in their daily operations, failures do occur frequently. Once the failure occurs, customers are engaged in complaining behavior which can be defined as “a set of multiple (behavioral and non-behavioral) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode” (Singh, 1988, p. 94). Complaints are very important for success and survival of any company and must be welcomed because they provide directions towards making improvements. According to Boden (2001) there are five reasons why companies should see complaints as opportunities. Complaints help companies; to evaluate how well they are doing, to identify weak points in processes, to see situations from their customer’s point of view, to improve customer satisfaction and to create long-term loyalty (Boden, 2001). Moreover, finding new customer is approximately five times more expensive than keeping them loyal (Lovelock, 2000). Once a company fails to handle a complaint successfully, they do not only lose current but also future businesses with that particular customer (Gilly & Gelb, 1982). Zemke and Bell (2000) argue that dissatisfied customers talk 10-20 people and disseminate negative word-of-mouth about the company. Furthermore, customers who are satisfied with the resolution of their complaints demonstrate the highest repurchase intentions following service failures (Voorhees, Brady & Horowitz, 2006). This phenomenon is known as ‘service recovery paradox’, in which customers exhibit higher satisfaction and repurchase intentions after a service failure is successfully rectified than before the failure occurred (Nyer, 2000).

When service failures occur, and customers report these failures, possible remedies are needed to recover the harm (Boshoff, 1999). Service recovery is a set of specific activities in which a company engages to address a customer complaint regarding a perceived service failure (Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995). These actions, in other words organizations’ responses to the complaining customers, have the utmost importance to keep the existing customer loyal to the company. Previous studies suggest that a successful service recovery is likely to have a significant impact on customer satisfaction and their post-purchase behaviors (Gursoy, Ekiz, & Chi, 2006; Liao, 2007). “Good service recovery can turn angry customers into loyal ones. In fact, good recovery can win more customer purchasing and loyalty, if things had gone well in the first place” (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens 1999, p. 47). Further, successful service recovery may help organizations design more effective service delivery processes (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998), on one hand. Poor service recoveries, on the other hand, worsen customer dissatisfaction and decrease customer confidence, producing a ‘double deviation’

effect (Bitner, Booms, & Tetrault, 1990).

A synthesis of the related literature shows that how organizations respond to customer complaints (Davidow, 2000; Karatepe & Ekiz, 2004) is associated with whether; they are focused and/or committed to their customers' needs and wants (Firnstahl, 1989), they have prejudgments towards complaining customers (Boden, 2001), they understand the general importance of complaint management (Barlow & Maul, 2000), they have an effective organizational structure to handle these complaints (Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006), their systems, policies and procedures of complaint management are capable to deal with customer complaints (Zemke & Bell, 2000), their actual complaint handling practices are proper or not (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990) and they have required skilled and trained human resources to solve complaints (Liao, 2007).

Following are the hypotheses that will be tested in the current study:

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.

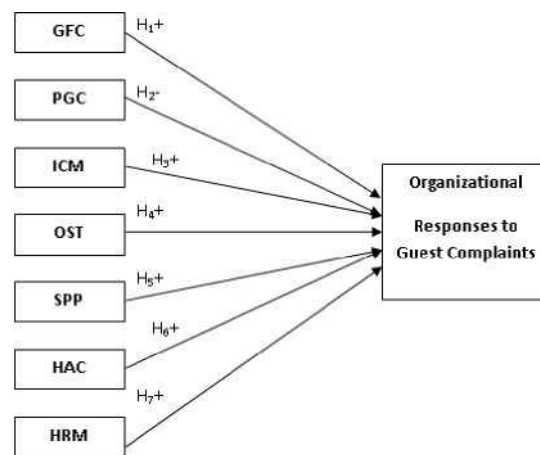
H₄: Effective organizational structure will have a significant positive relationship with organization's responses to guest complaints.

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.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model and Hypotheses



Source: Ekiz, 2009, p. 550

CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

- Finding out the current complaint handling practices in the hotel industry of Saudi Arabia will be very helpful in creating a basis to start the improvement of the existing situation.
- Testing the factors influence organizational responses to guest complaints will provide a list of points that can/should be improved. Having a list of points will make it easier in following up the issues easier.
- This research will provide some useful insights about the important phenomenon that is mostly studied from the customers' point of view.
- Findings will be shared with SCTNH, thus contribute to Saudi Arabian hospitality industry at the top administrative level.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT AND RESPONDENTS

A structured questionnaire, composed of 43 close-ended questions adopted from Ekiz (2009). He developed this instrument by using prior studies (Zemke, 1993; Barlow & Moller, 1996; Davidow, 2000; Zemke & Bell, 2000; Boden, 2001; Davidow, 2003a; Stauss & Seidel, 2004; Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006; Gursoy, Ekiz, & Chi, 2007; Zemke & Anderson, 2007). The breakdown of the study dimensions and number of items they hold is as follows: guest focus and commitment (4 items), prejudgments towards guest complaints (4 items), importance of complaints management (5 items), organizational structure (4 items), system, policy and procedures of complaint management (6 items), handling the complaints (6 items), human resource aspects of complaint management (9 items) as

independent variables and organizational responses to guest complaints (7 items) as dependent variable.

The target population of this study consisted of hotels in Saudi Arabia. All the hotels will be targeted, thus there will not be a sample population selection. Saudi Communion for Tourism and National Heritage (SCTNH) is approached and requested assistance in promoting and distributing questionnaires to the hotels under SCTNH. Self-administered questionnaire targeted the hotel or front office managers, as most of the time they are involved in guest complaints.

DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to find out the current complaint-handling practices in the Saudi hotel industry. Then, the practices that affect organizational responses to guest complaints are analyzed. First of all, the results revealed that there is a very small number of guests complaining reported by hoteliers. Results also show that most of the reported complaints are being handled by managers or supervisors. Existing literature suggests that this is neither efficient nor an effective way of handling guest complaints (Davidow, 2000). Since employees represent the hotel at that moment, hotels should not require their employees to locate managers to offer even a small atonement which could comfort a dissatisfied guest standing in front of the reception desk.

Additionally, guest focus and commitment appears to be the most influential variable on organizational responses to guest complaints. This finding suggests that although the calculated mean value for this variable is comparatively low hotel managers think focusing on guest needs is important in responding the guest complaints. The most significant variables are human resources and prejudgments were respectively second and third in rank of importance. This result highlights the importance given to human resources related issues in Saudi Arabia. Yet there is still more room for improvement since the overall mean scores showed that still Saudi hotel managers do not quite agree with the items listed under this variable. Finally, the previous results support that all complaint related variables have influence on organizational responses to guest complaints. Thus it can be concluded that hotel managers should get rid of their prejudgments, be more committed to their guests' needs, understand the significance and value guest complaints, have a tailor-made procedures in dealing with complaints, and focus on training and empowering their human resources to be able to satisfy their complaining guests.

SAMPLE REFERENCES

- Bell, C. R., Zemke, R. and Zielinski, D. (2007). *Managing Knock your Socks of Service*. 2nd edition, New York: AMACOM Books.
- Davidow, M. (2000), "The Bottom Line Impact of Organizational Responses to Customer Complaints". *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 24(4), 473-490.
- Ekiz, H. E. (2009). Factors Influencing Organizational Responses to Guest Complaints: Cases of Hong Kong and Northern Cyprus, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(6), 539-573.
- Gursoy, D., Ekiz, H. E. and Chi, C. G. (2007). Impacts of organizational responses on complainants' justice perceptions and post-purchase behaviors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(1), 1-25.
- Karatepe, O. M. and Ekiz, H. E. (2004). The Effects of Organizational Responses to Complaint on Satisfaction and Loyalty: a Study of Hotel Guests in Northern Cyprus. *Managing Service Quality*, 14(6), 476-486.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J. and Gremler, D. D. (2006), *Services Marketing: Integrating Customer Focus across the Firm*. 4th edition, New York: McGraw-Hill Publication.
- Zemke, R. (1995), *Service Recovery: Fixing Broken Customer*. Oregon: Productivity Press.

**AN EXAMINATION OF THE ROLE OF EDU-TOURISM IN DESTINATION
MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT THROUGH LOCALS' PERSPECTIVE: THE
CASE OF EMU/TRNC**

Habib Alipour
Hamed Rezapouraghdam
Sima Rahimizhian
Arezoo Soosan
Farzad Safaeimanesh
Hewa s. Khalid

Maryam Alsadat Seyed Abolghasemi

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, TRNC, Turkey

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to explore relationships between a university and its impact on local tourism planning and management. Although there are numerous studies addressing tourism development and destination management; however, empirical studies are scant to explore the extent and nature of the interface between a university and tourism in the locality where this institution is embedded. The study assumes that universities are in the business of tourism by attracting Edu-tourists, as well as, by their involvement in overall tourism development to sustain the flow of Edu-tourists and to contribute to the local tourism industry in general. Therefore, they play a significant role as a mediator to enhance the structure of tourism in their immediate spatiality. The study adopted the conceptual model of destination competitiveness as a framework. In February and March 2017 employing a questionnaire survey and focusing on the developmental effects of edu-tourism and Eastern Mediterranean University on the development of Famagusta, this study found that overall local community agrees with positive contributions of EMU on the development of the region. A number of implications and the limitations of the study presented accordingly.

Keywords: Edu-tourism; local community; university; development; Famagusta

INTRODUCTION

Universities have long been an effective contributor to the local and regional development of host communities (Bramwell & Wolfe, 2008). Many scholars have been asserted the critical role of universities as a knowledge generator for the development of the societies (Fongwa et al., 2014; Marozau et al., 2016). However, Muller (2010) asserted that the universities should attempt to do research and activities which are beneficial and in line with the development requirements of their communities. Universities trying to contribute to such developmental procedures through teaching and preparing quality human resources needed for the society and creation of knowledge needed for industries and welfare of the communities (Guerrero et al., 2015). In spite of the excessive studies about the universities impact on regional development in western countries (Audretsch et al., 2013), there are fewer studies in developing countries focusing universities' influences on the business productivity and local income enhancement (Bajmocy et al. 2010). Moreover, Wong et al. (2007) mentioned that although the external factors such as culture political situation and economy are determinant on how universities contribute to the development of societies. Therefore, understanding the effect of higher education institutions on the community development in TRNC context will contribute both to the literature by filling the aforementioned gaps and practice that lacks such studies in the region. The current study takes Eastern Mediterranean University, the largest and the oldest university of Cyprus Island, as an example and tries to explore the perception of the local community about the effects of this university on the development of Famagusta region.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, educational tourism or edu-tourism is defined in the concept of tourism as traveling with main intention to gain knowledge (Bodger, 1998). Although knowledge traveling is not a recent topic in the tourism industry, the number of studies which address different aspects of the context in a comprehensive way are still limited (Jolliffe, 2004). The reason is both components involved in this sector, namely 'tourism' and 'education' have neglected the importance of this division in destination competitiveness. It has been suggested by Abubakar, Shneikat, and Odayhowever, that tourism industry can be improved significantly by the participation of education in it. Hence, the role of educational institutions in tourism management and development is crucial.

The main interests of edu-tourism are related to nature-based and cultural educational tourism programs (Vieira, 2014). So, edu-tourism aim is to improve the education process, to enrich the educational experiences by providing scholarships abroad, tourist packages that include camps,

excursions, language classes for any level of knowledge, including training on certain fields (medical, legal, tourism, management, etc.) or on categories of interest (fashion, design, arts, theatre, dance, etc.) (Demeter & Bratucu, 2014). It also includes summer schools and theme camps that are organized nationally and internationally (Moisa, 2010).

Regarding the edu-tourism impacts, it is well stated that "educational tourism attractions not only can have an impact on the economy of the region but also can provide personal benefits to individual visitors and local or national community" (Ritchie et al., 2003). Two specific advantages of edu-tourism could be generated for both domestic and international students by structured international communication: (a) improved awareness of English and foreign language usage and (b) the improvement of international friendships (Valentine & Cheney, 2001). Despite all the achievements in technology and emergence of new learning methods, still, educational tourism is considered as one of the major ways in which provide a venue for visitors and the destination community to learn and expand or exchange their knowledge (Pittman, 2012). It is also believed that the number of countries taking economic benefits of developing educational tourism considerable. Educational tourism is pursued by many countries as a main earning source (Bhuiyana, Islam, Siwar, & Ismail, 2010).

On the other hand, decision-making process which may lead to edu-tourism by attracting people from other countries into educational institutions is a complicated one. Several items have an impact on this process such as the risk of success, family dependencies cultural issues and missed opportunities in the home country. It can be stated that like other management sectors, consumer behavior theory is applicable in edu-tourism management (Moogan, Baron, & Haris, 1999).

From the local tourism point of view, universities and educational institutes are expected to play an active role in attracting tourists who pursue a combinatory experience of knowledge, education, leisure and study out of their countries' borders by offering flexible learning and digital equality (Pittman, 2012). Consequently, tourism industry can significantly be enhanced by edu-tourism if universities are involved in tourism management and development planning not only as an academic environment that conducts research on different aspects of the contact but as mediators which contribute to its improvement (Williams, 2010). These interfaces between universities and local tourism industries need to be studied.

From destination competitiveness point of view, the lack of inclusive research that explores edu-tourism role is completely clear. Most of the studies have explored a limited number of aspects of

the destination competitiveness (Claver-Cortes, Molina-Azon'n, & Pereira-Moliner, 2007; Kozak, Baloglu, & Bahar, 2009). The aim of this study is to evaluate the role of edu-tourism institutions in destination competitiveness and consequently tourism development. Based on collected data, firstly a competitiveness model is used to discern contributing factors and limitations.

The tourism industry and particularly Destination Management and Marketing Organizations are increasingly impacted by developments and trends in the macro, competitive and market environments. So, for example, sustainability and climate change trends; increasing societal demands; e-tourism developments; the emergence of new markets; the growth of experience seeker niche markets; the intensification of competition at all levels; the changing expectations and demands of tourism destination stakeholders; and the growing number of crises impacting on the tourism sector, increasingly require “new” sets of skills and capabilities of the leadership of destination management and marketing organizations to be at the forefront of destination management and marketing and to sustain and enhance destination competitiveness (Heath, 2014).

Travel destinations are important elements in the tourism system. A destination is a place where the complexity of the tourism activity occurs. To meet the needs and desires of a person during the tour, destination strives to offer products that become characteristic and services which are their choice (Arcana & Wiweka, 2016). Destinations normally have to face the choice between mass tourism and sustainable tourism. International exchange students, characterized by a high educational level and a long-term stay, could contribute to increasing the local demand for this last option that constitutes, according to Ritchie et al. (2003), a basis on which tourism can be planned and developed.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The role of education institutions/universities in destination management and development can be evaluated using conceptual model (Figure. 1) of destination competitiveness proposed by Ritchie and Crouch (2010). The model consists of different components. The tourism sector is considered as an open system. This global or macro environment then can be affected by six groups of global factors including the economy, ecology, technology, politics, socio-cultural implications, and demography. On the other hand, Ritchie and Crouch's model considers also close-in elements such as suppliers, intermediaries, facilities, customers, and local culture. From this perspective, it is called the competitive or micro-environment. Interactions between local tourism sector and universities can be explored in this trait.

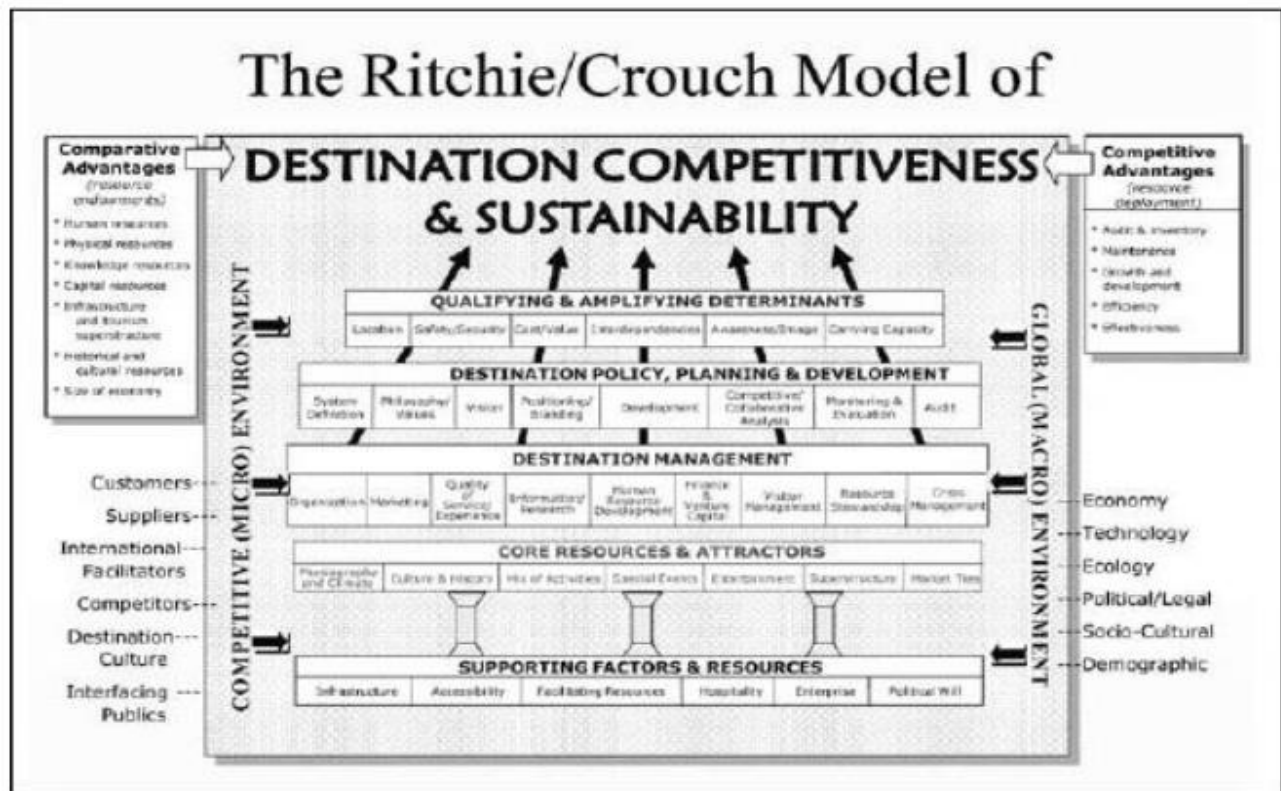


Fig. 1 Conceptual model of destination competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2010).

Furthermore, core resources and attractions are introduced as crucial factors of the model. It has been stated that tourists are attracted to the appeal of the destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2005). Nonetheless, if attractions are not supported by resources, destination competitiveness will decay. Hence, supporting factors and infrastructures are also an essential element in the model. This is even more critical for the case of edu-tourism when potential customers look for a different experience compared to their countries. Educational institutions are influenced by global and local factors including local tourism sector and all the mentioned components of the model are obviously applicable to edu-tourism.

The next important component of the destination competitiveness model is destination planning. To design an efficient plan, universities should firstly have a short-term to long-term vision. Besides, a competitive/collaborative analysis is indispensable for comparison with other institutions. This process helps planning for educational tourism development that should be followed by an outcome evaluation procedure in the next stage. By monitoring the effectiveness of the policy, required adaptations and modifications can be performed.

Another factor in Ritchie and Crouch's model is the conversion of policies into practice by destination

management. Different dimensions have been mentioned as critical aspects of destination management including service experience, research, availability of fiscal resources, visitor management etc. All of these factors should be noted in the edu-tourism analysis. Finally, factors representing potential strengths and weaknesses of the destination need to be explored. Elements such as location, safety condition, carrying capacity for mass tourism (sustainability concerns), and cost are considered as prominent factors or more precisely as 'qualifying and amplifying determinants' which should be recognized well.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study tried to observe the impacts of EMU on the local communities' attitudes about the development of Famagusta city. After a review of the literature, a number of statements that questions the impact of the university on the local communities were outlined by the research team. These statements after being pretested were refined and 26 statements were finalized to be distributed. Five points Likert scale utilized to measure respondents' attitudes. Convenience sampling applied and out of 250 questionnaires, 210 useable data (84% response rate) processed to the analysis. Sample statements were as follows:

Edu-tourism and the universities have improved public utilities and infrastructure in our community

Because of edu-tourism and universities, our quality of life has been improved.

The quality of public services in Famagusta is better due to edu-tourism and university.

RESULTS

Table.1 shows the degree of locals' agreement with the statements about the effects of EM University on the development of Famagusta.

Table 1. Locals' degree of agreement

Statements	Frequency (%)					Mean & SD score	
	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	strongly disagree		
S1	38.1	39.5	15.2	4.3	2.90	1.94	0.98
S2	27.1	57.6	11.0	3.3	1.00	1.93	0.77
S3	22.4	35.7	28.6	9.0	4.30	2.37	1.06
S4	40.5	42.4	7.60	6.7	2.90	1.89	0.99
S5	18.6	34.8	24.3	13.8	8.60	2.59	1.18
S6	20.0	48.1	15.7	12.4	3.80	2.31	1.04
S7	17.6	43.3	22.4	10.0	6.70	2.44	1.09
S8	24.8	12.9	17.6	23.8	21.0	3.03	1.48
S9	13.8	25.2	17.6	22.4	21.0	3.11	1.36
S10	24.8	45.2	18.6	6.20	5.20	2.21	1.05
S11	26.7	55.2	10.0	5.20	2.90	2.02	0.91
S12	22.4	41.4	29.5	4.80	1.90	2.22	0.91
S13	17.6	57.6	17.6	4.30	2.90	2.17	0.86
S14	31.4	35.7	25.7	3.80	3.30	2.11	1.00
S15	27.6	50.5	15.7	3.80	2.40	2.02	0.89
S16	7.10	16.7	20.0	35.7	20.5	3.45	1.19
S17	37.1	51.4	06.2	02.9	2.40	1.81	0.85
S18	32.9	46.2	14.3	04.3	2.40	1.97	0.92
S19	18.1	50.0	23.8	06.7	1.40	2.23	0.87
S20	26.2	44.3	21.4	4.30	3.80	2.15	0.98

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There is extensive literature in developed nations about the effects of universities on their host communities (Bowen, 2007; Bramwell & Wolfe, 2008) but fewer studies in developing countries (Bajmocy et al. 2010) especially very few in TRNC which is a popular destination for international higher education. The model of destination competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2010) guided the authors during the study. The result of the study demonstrated that local community agrees with the positive developmental effects of EMU in Famagusta region. For instance, the statement number 1 “edu-tourism and the universities have improved public utilities and infrastructure in our community” received 77.6 % agreement from the local indigenous. Or another example that is statement number 17, “overall the university of EMU and edu-tourism have a positive contribution to the development of the region” received 88.5% agree and strongly agree from the local community. This study highlights the positive effects of universities on their host community. The support of the local community helps the policymakers to be able to develop and support the university of EMU and facilitates the collaboration between the university and the local community. More studies need to be conducted to find out the nature and essence of the university' effects on each dimension of the development concept in details. There are a number of limitations for this study. First, the model of destination competitiveness which was used as a framework for this study is a holistic model that requires the perceptions of the all of the stakeholders. The current study only

focused on one of the stakeholders which was local community. This limitation raised from the restricted amount of the financial capital of the research team and their time constraints. The future studies are recommended to holistically collect data from all of the involved stakeholders.

REFERENCES

- Abubakar, A. M., Shneikat, B. H. T., & Oday, A. (2014). Motivational factors for educational tourism: A case study in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 11, 58-62.
- Arcana, K. T. P., & Wiweka, K. (2016). Educational Tourism's Product Strategy at Batur Global Geopark, Kintamani - Bali. *International Research Journal of Management, IT & Social Sciences*, 3(7), 40. <https://doi.org/10.21744/irjmis.v3i7.137>
- ATLAS/ti. Version 4.2. [Computer software] (1999) Berlin, Scientific Software Development Guilford Publications.
- Audretsch, D. B., Leyden, D. P., & Link, A. N. (2013). Regional appropriation of university-based knowledge and technology for economic development. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 27(1), 56-61.
- Bajmocy, Z., Lukovics, M., & Vas, Z. (2010). A subregional analysis of universities' contribution to economic and innovation performance. *Transition Studies Review*, 17(1), 134-150.
- Bhuiyana, M. A. H., Islam, R., Siwar, C., & Ismail, S. M. (2010). Educational tourism and forest conservation: Diversification for child education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 7(2), 19-23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.10.003>
- Bodger, D. (1998). Leisure, learning, and travel. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 69(4), 28-31.
- Bowen, W. (2007). Evolutionary Systems Theory, Universities and Endogenous Regional Economic Development. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, 20(2), pp. 32-40.
- Bramwell, A. and Wolfe, D. (2008). Universities and Regional Development: The entrepreneurial University of Waterloo. *Research Policy*, 37, pp. 1175-1187.
- Bramwell, A., & Wolfe, D. A. (2008). Universities and regional economic development: The entrepreneurial University of Waterloo. *Research Policy*, 37(8), 1175-1187.
- Claver-Cortes, E., Molina-Azon'n, J. F., & Pereira-Moliner, J. (2007). Competitiveness in mass tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(3), 727-745.
- Demeter, T., & Bratucu, G. (2014). Typologies of youth tourism. In *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Braşov* (Vol. 7, pp. 115-122).
- Fongwa, S., Marais, L., & Atkinson, D. (2014). Universities and regional development: Lessons from the OECD regional assessment of the Free State, South Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa*, 14(2), 29-52.
- Guerrero, M., Cunningham, J. A., & Urbano, D. (2015). Economic impact of entrepreneurial universities' activities: An exploratory study of the United Kingdom. *Research Policy*, 44(3), 748-764.
- Heath, E. (2014). A key tourism education futures challenge: Facilitating responsible leadership learning for destination management and marketing organizations. In K. C. and C. H. Christian Schott (Ed.), *8th Annual Conference - transformational learning: Activism, Empowerment and*

- Political Agency in Tourism Education* (Vol. 3, pp. 142-163). Ontario, Canada: University of Guelph. Retrieved from <http://tourismeducationfutures.org/tefi18-theme/>
- Jolliffe, L. (2004). Managing educational tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25(5), 640-641.
- Kline, R. B. (2010). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New York.
- Kozak, M., Baloglu, ş., & Bahar, O. (2009). Measuring destination competitiveness: Multiple destinations versus multiple nationalities. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 19(1), 56-71.
- Marozau, R., Guerrero, M., & Urbano, D. (2016). Impacts of universities in different stages of economic development. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, 1-21.
- Moisa, C. O. (2010). Conceptual clarifications regarding youth travel. In *Revista Tinerilor Economişti/The Young Economists Journal* (Vol. 1, pp. 98-106).
- Moogan, Y. J., Baron, S., & Harris, K. (1999). Decision-making behavior of potential higher education students. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 53(3), 211-228.
- Muller, J. (2010). Engagements with engagements. In: CHE, *Community Engagement in South African Higher Education*, Johannesburg: Council of Higher Education.
- Pittman, J. (2012). Educational tourism empowerment: Implications for flexible learning and digital equity. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality*, 01(04).
- Ritchie, B. W., Carr, N., & Cooper, C. (2003). *Managing Educational Tourism*. (C. Cooper, M. Hall, & D. Timothy, Eds.). Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications. Retrieved from <http://espace.library.uq.edu.au/view/UQ:69993#.WD0yZONSyNw.mendeley>
- Ritchie, J. B. R., & Crouch, G. I. (2005). *The competitive destination: A sustainable tourism perspective*. United Kingdom: CAB International North America.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2010). A model of destination competitiveness/sustainability: Brazilian perspectives. *Revista de Administracao Publica*, 44(5), 1049-1066.
- Teye, V., Sirakaya, E., & Sonmez, S. F. (2002). Residents' attitudes toward tourism development. *Annals of tourism research*, 29(3), 668-688.
- Valentine, D., & Cheney, R. S. (2001). Intercultural Business Communication, International Students, and Experiential Learning. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 64(4), 90-104. <https://doi.org/10.1177/108056990106400410>
- Vieira, O. A. . (2014). Developing Edu-Tourism in An Urban Indigenous Community: The Case Of Aldeia Bananal (Brazilia-DF-Brazil). *Mid-Sweden University*. Retrieved from <http://miun.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:755191/FULLTEXT01.pdf>
- Williams, P. (2010). Educational tourism: understanding the concept, recognizing the value. *Tourism Insights*, 3(1). Visit Britain/Tourism Together.
- Wong, P. K., Ho, Y. P., & Singh, A. (2007). Towards an “entrepreneurial university” model to support knowledge- based economic development: the case of the National University of Singapore. *World Development*, 35(6), 941-958.

**MOTIVATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS ON RECREATIONAL SPORTS
PARTICIPATION: PERCEPTIONS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN NORTHERN
CYPRUS**

[Sedigheh Safshekan Azar Ghaedi](#)

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, Cyprus, Via Mersin 10,
99628, Turkey

[Solmaz Azarmi](#)

Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus Science University,
Girne, Via Mersin 10, Turkey

[Hamed Rezapouraghdam](#)

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, Cyprus, Via Mersin 10,
99628, Turkey

ABSTRACT

On campus recreational sports facilities (RSF) are tools for universities to enhance students' quality of college experience and promote their social, physical and intellectual abilities. However, not all of the students participate in such programs during their college lifetime. Guided by the ecological model of physical activity behavior, the present study aims to achieve a better understanding of the factors that motivate or constrain the students to benefit these facilities. Applying a qualitative research approach and utilizing semi-structured interviews with 19 international students at Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU) as the largest Campus University of Northern Cyprus resulted in the construction of three major themes including participation barriers, motivational factors, and selection criteria. These findings dispense valuable information for university administrators, sport club managers and researchers as well.

Keywords: Recreational sport facilities; motivations; constraints; students; university; Northern Cyprus

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Universities are the centers of educations for students but they also have essential role to eliminate

students' expectations socially, physically, intellectually and emotionally by providing well-prepared circumstance for them and be aware of their expectations. In this regard, recreational facilities came to fulfill these social, intellectual, emotional and physical needs of people (Grahn and Stigsdotter, 2004). Recreational sport facilities consist of a linked series of physiological, psychological sociological advantages which effects on students' growth sustainably (Solomon, 2005). Further, Recreational sports effects on the quality of life of students in university campus and their retention as an economic factor for university (NIRSA, 2004). However, the results of the previous research indicated that majority of the students are less likely to participate in recreational sport facilities provided on campus (Henchy, 2013). Regarding the needs for more research on students' participation in sports and recreational facilities in universities (Guo & Ross, 2014) based on a push and pull theory this study tries to understand the factors which motivates/constraints students to participate in such activities. This study chose Eastern Mediterranean University which is the largest university campus in all over the Cyprus Island as case study. Eastern Mediterranean University as an international university has provided recreational sport facilities to be used by students during their educational programs. These facilities contain different fields of sports either indoor sport area such as Gym, Cardio, Aerobic studios, Futsal, Volleyball, Basketball or outdoors sports area that include Stadium, Swimming pool, Tennis court. EMU by having more than 20,000 students from 106 countries in 2016 is an international campus that meets increasing number of students every year which can make problems for students to access these recreational sport facilities. Therefore the aim of study is to assess the student's perceptions regarding recreational sport facilities of EMU as an international campus based on the questions such as "what is your perception towards using Recreational Sport Facilities?", "what is your perception towards Recreational sport facilities of EMU as a campus?" and "why do you prefer/not prefer to use Recreational sport facilities of EMU?" for better understanding of student's expectations to encourage them to use such facilities. With regards to literature this study is significant as it is the first study which evaluated the perceptions of undergraduate, master and PhD International students on campus towards recreational sport facilities and it is the first study which assessed the perceptions of EMU students towards Recreational sport facilities of EMU as an international campus in North Cyprus. The result of study contributes to current limited literature in context of recreational sports facilities. Famagusta is a small university town that its economy highly affected by EMU university. Therefore, the result of this study could be considered by officials of EMU as it can contribute to their decision making process for achieving EMU goal that effects on economy of Famagusta respectively. In recent years, the student recruitment and retention endeavors of universities and colleges are increased by recreational sports programs of the late 20th and early 21st Century. The researchers demonstrated that sport plays an

important role to integrate social and academic affairs. In previous decades Tinto (1975, 1993) proposed that the commitment to the any type of institution will be increased by more participation in the social and academic life of the college such activities as unofficial counterpart group associations, semiformal extracurricular activities, and reciprocal action with faculty and staff among the college. Nowadays, there is significant attention on programs of recreational sports in the USA which has an important parameter specifically in college campuses and these kinds of programs increase the quality of academic of students (Delworth, Hanson, & Associates, 1989). In a specific study, Kovac and Holsberry (1991) investigated on the quality and importance of recreational services among the students and their results showed that thirty percent of the students emphasized that their important factor to choose the university was access to recreational facilities and programs. In another investigation, Kovac and Beck (1997) obtained that in compare to the other types of activities recreational programs are more available for students. There are several investigations on advantages of physical recreation which demonstrated that these activities decrease stress and illnesses and diseases and increase inventiveness and enhance energy of mind and body (Bouchard et al., 1990; Landers, 1997; Fontaine, 2000; Chakravarthy & Booth, 2003a). Based on literature, it was found that there is lack of investigations on sport participation behavior among international students in the United States (Li & Stodolska, 2006; Yoh et al., 2008).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The ecological model of physical activity behavior (Spence & Lee, 2003) describes that three major factors affect the participation of the individuals in physical activities including: environmental (e.g. accessibility, facilities), social (e.g. peer support, family) and intrapersonal (e.g. psychological, behavioral). This framework guided researchers to understand the motivations and barriers that influence the participation of the students in the sport and recreational facilities available on campus.

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative method was selected to conduct this study as it has close look at the issues. Qualitative approach investigates the phenomenal deeply (Silverman, 2000). This method is used in many pieces of research related to the social sciences, nature sciences and also employ in the marketing context (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In the study conducted by Salkind (2009) it was mentioned that qualitative method is an appropriate method because it eases investigating the issues related to human behavior, emotions, and experiences through the employment of technique such as case studies, surveys, and interviews. Semi-structured interviews were used for interviewing students of Eastern Mediterranean

University (EMU) as an international campus. This technique of interviewing is used to interview a small number of participants in order to investigate their perceptions about a program, a condition or an idea. Semi-structured interviewing is appropriate method when the interviewer does not have more than one chance to interview. It also allows the interviewer to have a deeper understanding of the subject (Bernard, 1988). In semi - structured interview by providing a friendly atmosphere the interviewees feel comfortable to express their feelings, experiences, beliefs and knowledge towards phenomena. Thus, this method is seeming to be a convenient tool to achieve the perception, feeling, emotions, knowledge, and experiences of participants toward recreational sports facilities of EMU as an international campus in north Cyprus. The sampling technique of this study was quota sampling because all participants were students that were active in at least one field of sports. In quota sampling method representative data is gathered from a specific group. This technique was use to prevent or reduce selective bias. Selective bias occurs when the sample is not representative of the individuals or groups considered for analyzing because of wrong selection of the sample. Before starting the interview process respondents were asked for appropriate time to interview them. Interestingly most of the respondents mentioned that they prefer to be interviewed instead of filling the questioner. The interviewing process was conducted in Lala Mustafa Pasha indoor sports center of EMU and EMU stadium. The number of participants in this study was 19 and they were from different countries consist of Turkey (3), Iran (5), Kyrgyzstan (1), Azerbaijan (3), Russia (2), Jordan (1), Nigeria (3) and Bulgaria (1). Demographic information contained age ranged between 20 to 32 years. The number of female participants was 8 and others were 11 men participated in interviewing process which 9 of them were undergraduates and the rests were studying in master and Ph.D. programs. All participants were students and most of them did sport from their childhoods but all of them did sports in Eastern Mediterranean University as a campus university and participated in recreational sports at least 3days per week. Interviewing process was done by recording the voice of respondents. Then the voices were brought to paper as transcripts in order to ease the process of analyzing.

FINDING

The finding of this study achieved based on analysis of data collected from EMU students through semi-structured interviews. After ending interviewing process, all data was transcribed into text detail by detail to clarify the relevant parts. Further, the relevant parts were transformed to dissimilar themes and categories in related to the aim of the study to gain the best of reliability. The themes were divided into three sections: Motivational Factors, Features of RSFs and Selection Factors. Categories also were divided into relevant sections.

Health, Appearance (being in good shape and losing weight)

Based on the responses of participants it was clarified that there are factors that generally motivate students to use Recreational Sports facilities. Health was the most important factor that mentioned by 16 participants either mental or physical health. Being in good shape was the factor that 11 of participants pointed it during responding which interestingly all were males and losing weight was the factor rarely mentioned just by 2 participants due to its relation with health. These two factors were summarized to Appearance factor.

I have to come to the gym... I feel I couldn't breathe easily because of my overweight... so, I think the gym is helpful (mina from Iran).

Being with friends, Enjoyments, and happiness, Find new friends

Based on the response it was found that the 13 participants interested in participating in recreational sports program to be with their friends and have the enjoyable time during doing exercise therefor Enjoyment and Happiness was also the factor which mentioned by respondents for 17 times. Finding new friends also as a motivational factor interested 6 respondents in participating in recreational sports programs.

We... I mean me and my friends enjoy doing sports together...we laugh a lot especially when we are not able to do a movement...to tell the truth we are here for fun (Aynor from Azerbaijan).

You know I am here in the campus for 2 years... it is good to have many friends and I think here is a good place to find new ones as I did... I think we have much in commons (Nigar from Azerbaijan).

Concentration, reducing stress, feeling relax

Based on the response of 15 interviewees doing recreational sports cause to have more concentration as it helps students to get better result during their educations. In addition, they mentioned that doing sports can help them reduce stresses due to studying and daily life and also feeling relax after doing the exercise as it helps drain off negative energy.

When I am angry I do running or football because my mind concentrates just on doing exercise and nothing else for thinking. I have a good feeling after (Haman from Iran).

RSFs Features

Size, Capacity, Equipment

RSFs Features were clarified as a theme during analyzing data based upon perceptions of respondents about Recreational sports facilities of EMU. All participants in their responses pointed to the small size of recreational sports centers. They mentioned that with this amount of students and increasing the numbers of students in every year recreational sports centers in the campus are so small and cannot fulfill the needs of all those who are interested in doing exercises especially in gym center. Low level of capacity of recreational sports also was the factor that criticized by participants, especially during rush hours. Low Number of sports equipment also pointed during responding by most of the participants due to a huge number of student in EMU.

The small size of the gym is the big problem for me.as you know the number of students is increasing every semester but no change in gym capacity...for example most of the time I suffer from smell of sweat and lack of enough oxygen (Mohammadfrom Jordan).

Quality of Equipment, Quality of Coach, Limited Fields of Sports

In general, about 14 of respondents complained about employing the old or low-quality equipment in recreational sports centers as their expectations of the international university were high. They also criticized the recreational sports centers in the result of lack of high quality and professional coaches in different fields or even lack of coaches in some field such as wrestling or gym. Lack of different fields of sports such as swimming (indoor swimming pool), Sports dances like ballet or Zumba dance, gymnastic and Martial Arts were highly mentioned in their responses.

I do sports from childhood especially gymnastic but now just for being in good shape, I do exercises... and just for doing the sport I do.I mean I did not find gymnastic that's why I chose TRX (Saltanat from Kyrgyzstan).

When I go to the gym there is any coach to guide me well.if my friend does not help me I cannot use devices well (Hamedfrom Iran).

Tuition fees

In general, 16 of respondent pointed to the fees they pay for using recreational sports facilities which most of them mentioned that recreational sports fees should be included in university tuition fee and must be free of charge for students who are living and studying in university campus, unlike other respondents.

The fees... you know for me as a student should be free because it is school facilities... it should include in tuition fee... normally it is not too much but for students, it is (Benjamin from Nigeria).

Being free of charge is good but just imagine these too much students come to use sports facilities... there is no discipline, they just come and leave... so, I think there should be a fee for entrance but they can reduce the fees (Estilan from Bulgaria).

Selection factors Price, Distance, Time, Friends

Selection factors were achieved based on the perceptions of students about using Recreational sports facilities of EMU instead of ones outside of the campus. In comparing with Recreational sports facilities of Famagusta (out of campus) all respondents preferred to utilize the recreational sports facilities of the university instead of going out of the EMU campus to do exercises. The reasons they pointed to were the Entrance Price in compare with using sports facilities out of the university as it is cheap. Short distance to the recreational sports centers was the strong reason to choose RSFs of EMU because it helps them save time. In addition, being with friends also was a reason to convince them not going outside of the university to do sport.

I love to exercise, it makes me fit... I prefer to use school sports facilities because it is close to my house...it is opposite of entrance door of the university (Benjamin from Nigeria).

You know I used to it... I tried changing gym but it was difficult and it was more expensive but I used to it... I have a lot of friends... most of the time they want me to go around with ...its fine

Table 1. Perceptions of students towards RSFs

Themes	Categories
Motivational factors	Health, Appearance (being in good shape and Losing weight), Being with friends, Enjoyment & happiness, Find new friends,
	Concentration, reducing stress, feeling relax
RSFs Features	Size, Capacity, Equipment, Quality of Equipment, Quality of Coach, Limited Fields of Sports, Tuition fees
Selection factors	Price, Distance, Time, Friends

SUGGESTION

Generally, Suggestions have an essential role to fulfill the needs and expectations of individuals or groups. Since students may have expectations in related to recreational sports facilities of university it was decided to ask respondents after responding the questions express their suggestions to the university for considering their expectations and if possible fulfill them. Most of the respondents suggested that:

It is required to build more recreational sports centers given to the increasing number of student in each year.

To attract more students to use the recreational sports facilities on campus, elimination or reduction of tuition fee is required.

To have more students in recreational sports centers the university must provide more sports fields such as wrestling, sports dance like Ballet, Zumba, Swimming, and Gymnastic and also build an indoor pool.

It is required to invest on undergraduate students to enforce their national teams in different fields.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This qualitative research is conducted to assess student perceptions of Eastern Mediterranean University as an international campus in the context of recreational sports facilities to achieve the better understanding of their expectation, needs, and interests. Based on perceptions of students the result of this study demonstrated that motivational factors as a first theme have essential roles in attracting students to use recreational sports facilities. This study results that Health as the first motivational factor help maintains participants to be in a good health condition and also help prevent them not have medical problems. Appearance as second motivational factors consists of items such as losing weights or being in good shape. Both these two factors are related to each other mutually as having a healthy body by doing exercise help having good appearances thus, providing appropriate and attractive Recreational sports facilities in campus can better fulfill these factors. These results are in consistency with the finding of the study conducted by Rogers and Moore (2008) and Morris et al. (1995) in which it was addressed that appearance refers to fixing weight, losing weight and gaining weight by doing sport which improves physical condition and provides medical needs.

By analyzing data, being with friend, enjoyment and Find new friends were related Motivational factors that mentioned by students repeatedly. Students have mentioned that friends motivated them

to use recreational sports facilities as they can have the enjoyable time. It was also mentioned that recreational sports centers make the possibility of finding new friends which may their thoughts, aims or habits are close to each other, thus it can lead to more enjoyments. These motivational factors were mentioned in many studies (Deci & Ryan 1985 ; Hall, 2006; Rogers & Moore, 2008). The studies demonstrated that being with friends; Finding new friends and Enjoyment are aims of respondents to do exercise.

Concentration, Stress reduction, and Feeling relaxed were also concluded as Motivational factors that interested students to use recreational sports facilities. There are many studies which are consistency with these results in this context. It was demonstrated that doing sport can improve the concentration of students since it can help them improve their educational conditions. By doing exercises the level of stress can decrease via sending out negative energies that in turn relax exercise at the end (Rogers & Moore, 2008; Weinberg et al., 2000).

The second theme of this study was RSFs Features. After analyzing the data in response to the question that what are your perceptions towards Recreational sports facilities of EMU campus it was concluded that the size of Recreational sports centers is not appropriate to compare to increasing number of students. It is also mentioned that the capacities and number of equipment are limited given to a high number of exercises especially in rush hours. In addition, respondents complained about the low quality of equipment and lack of coach, especially in the gym. Further, lack of professional coaches and the limited field was mentioned by respondents. Torkildsen (1986) argued that involvement in recreation activities is related to accessibility of facilities.

Tuition fees for using recreational sports facilities were not convenient as the respondents mentioned that it should be free, since they are students' financial situation may not allow them to participate. This factor confirmed the result of the study was done by Scott and Munson (1994) which they argued that finance positively impacts on participating in recreation programs. But in contrary, Childress (1996) found out that there is a strong tendency of academic member, staff, and students to pay much amount of money to be a member of the recreational sports center on the campus of universities.

Third and final theme of this study was Selection Factors that were achieved based on the responses to the question of why you use Recreational Sports Facilities of EMU in compare with the outside of campus ones. Selection factors consist of Cheaper Price in compare with outside ones, a short distance from their dormitories or houses which help them have saving time. These factors are in consistency with Jackson (1994) which claimed lack of time can constrain people not participate in

recreational activities. In addition, Friend was the factor to use Recreational sports facilities inside the campus as most of them lived inside of the campus and were close to each other that leads to motivating each other to do exercise inside the by using campus Recreational Sports Facilities. This factor is in consistency with the study conducted with Hall (2006).

This study aimed to assess the perceptions of international students of EMU as an international campus towards using Recreational Sports facilities, Recreational sports facilities of EMU and choosing Recreational sports facilities of EMU in order to gain a better understanding of their expectations, needs or problems. Findings of this study indicated three themes consist of various categories that reflect international student's expectations, needs or problems in related to Recreational Sports Facilities in Emu campus. Based on Motivational Factors, RSFs Features and Selection Factors as themes, it is duty of officials of EMU to provide an appropriate context in order to improve and fulfill expectations of students towards Recreational sport facilities to gain or increase satisfaction of international students which can highly effect on their health, relations with others, concentrations and happiness in one hand and increasing the number of new coming students as part of educational tourism of north Cyprus.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

This study conducted based on small sample size of international students which participated in Recreational Sports at least three days per week thus there are limitations to generalize it to all international students as the sample is small and all participants were doing exercises, therefore, future studies can consider all students either athletics or not. Due to a high number of countries which their students are studying in emu campus future studies can consider more countries in order to gain reliable results.

This study was qualitative that in next studies can be conducted in quantitative method to may achieve more measurable data by analyzing data collected from international students participate in Recreational sports facilities statically.

Interviewing participants in the context of recreational sports facilities in this study demonstrated motives, expectations, and limitations of students in related to this context thus, future researches can consider developing a more comprehensive measure for recreational sports facilities, using results from qualitative studies like the current.

REFERENCES

- Artinger, L., Clapham, L., Meigs, C. H. M., Sampson, N. M. B., & Forrester, S. A. (2006). The social benefits of intramural sports. *NASPA Journal*, 43(1), 69-86.
- Bernard, H. R. (1988). *Research methods in cultural anthropology* (p. 117). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Bouchard, C., Shephard, R. J., Stephens, T., Sutton, J. R., & McPherson, B. D. (Eds.). (1990). *Exercise, fitness, and health: A consensus of current knowledge*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Books.
- Chakravarthy, M., & Booth, F. (2003a). Health benefits of physical activity. In *Exercise* (pp. 41-56). Philadelphia: Hanley & Belfus.
- Charlotte Van Tuyckom, Jeroen Scheerder, (2008). Sport for all? Social Stratification of Recreational Sports Activities in the EU-27, *Kinesiologia Slovenica*, 14, 2, 54-63.
- Childress, R.G. (1996). Fees, finances, funds, and facilities survey: 1989-1996. In R. Frye et al. (Eds.), *Practices, issues, and challenges in recreational sports* (pp. 50-65). Corvallis, OR: NIRSA.
- Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Delworth, U., Hanson, G. R., & Associates (1989). *Student services: A handbook for the profession*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fontaine, K. (2000). Physical activity improves mental health. *The Physician and Sports Medicine*, 28(10).
- Guo, Q., & Ross, C. M. (2014). An exploratory study of Asian international students' campus recreational sports participation. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 38(1), 55-68.
- Haines, D. J. (2001). Undergraduate student benefits from university recreation. *NIRSA Journal*, 25, 125-133.
- Hall, D. (2006). Participation in a campus recreation program and its effect on retention. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 30, 40-45.
- Henchy, A. (2013). The perceived benefits of participating in campus recreation programs and facilities: A comparison between undergraduate and graduate students. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 37(2), 97-105.
- Holsberry, W., & Kovac, N. (Eds.). (1991 Fall). Quality and importance of recreational sports. *Newsletter of the National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association*, 1.
- Jackson, E. L., & Witt, P. A. (1994). Change and stability in leisure constraints: A comparison of two surveys conducted four years apart. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 26(4), 322.
- James T. Allen, Dan D. Drane, Kevin K. Byon , Richard S. Mohn, 2010. Sport as a vehicle for socialization and maintenance of cultural identity: International students attending American Universities *Sports Management Review* 13, 421-434.
- Karabetsos, J. D. (1991). Campus recreation-future direction. *NIRSA Journal*, 15(2), 10-16
- Kovac, D. C., & Beck, J. E. (1997). A comparison of student perceptions, satisfaction, and patterns of participation in recreational sports. *NIRSA Journal*, 22(1), 10-12.
- Landers, D. (1997). The influence of exercise on mental health. *President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sports Research Digest*, 2(12).

- Li, M., & Stodolska, M. (2006). Transnationalism, leisure, and Chinese graduate students in the United States. *Leisure Sciences*, 28, 39-55.
- Light, R., & Kirk, D. (2001). Australian cultural capital-rugby's social meaning: Physical assets, social advantage, and independent schools. *Culture, Sport, & Society*, 4, 81-98.
- Lindsey, R., & Sessoms, E. (2006). Assessment of a campus recreation program on student recruitment, retention, and frequency of participation across certain demographic variables. *Recreational Sports Journal*, 30, 30 -39.
- Maas, G. (1999, April). The relationship between campus recreation participation and measures of college success. Paper presented at the 50th Annual Conference of the NIRSA, Milwaukee, WI.
- Mary L. Greaney; Faith D. Less; Adrienne A. White; Sarah F. Dayton; Deborah Riebe; Bryan Blissmer; Suzanne Shoff; Jennifer R. Walsh; Geoffrey W. Greene, 2009. College Students' Barriers and Enablers for Healthful Weight Management: A Qualitative Study *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior*, Volume 41.
- Milton, P.R. (Ed.). (2006). *Recreational Sports Journal* 30(1), 79.
- Morris, T., Clayton, H., Power, H., & Han, J. S. (1995). Gender and motives for participation in sport and exercise. In *Proceedings of the FEPSAC IXth European congress of sports psychology* (pp. 364-373).
- National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association (US) (Ed.). (2004). *The value of recreational sports in higher education*. Human Kinetics Publishers.
- Norman K. Denzin, & Yvonna S. Lincoln. (2005). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Sage Oxford Latin Dictionary, ed. P. G. W. Glare, Oxford University Press, Oxford (1982), p. 263e.
- Paul Rohe Milton, 2008. Collegiate Recreational Sports: A Historical Perspective, *Journal of Research* Vol.3 78-83.
- Rogers, H., Morris, T., & Moore, M. (2008). A qualitative study of the achievement goals of recreational exercise participants. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 706-734.
- Ronald Huesman Jr, Anthony K Brown, Giljae Lee, John P Kellogg & Peter M Radcliffe, 2009. Gym Bags and Mortarboards: Is Use of Campus Recreation Facilities Related to Student Success? *NASPA Journal*, Vol. 46, no. 1.
- Salkind, N. J. (2009). *Exploring Research*. New Jersey, USA: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Scott, D., & Munson, W. (1994). Perceived constraints to park usage. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 12(4), 79-96.
- Solomon, G. A. (2005). *Perceptions of constraints to recreational sports participation: a case study of the University of the Western Cape (UWC) undergraduate female students* (Doctoral dissertation, University of the Western Cape).
- Stigsdotter, U. A., & Grahn, P. (2004). A garden at your workplace may reduce stress. *Design & Health*, 147-157.
- Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Educational Research*, 45(1), 89-125.
- Tinto, V. (1993). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition* (2nd ed.). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Torkildsen G (1986) Factors which influence Participation, in *Leisure and Recreation Management* (2ed), E. & F. N. Spon

- Weinberg, R., Tenenbaum, G., McKenzie, A., Jackson, S., Anshel, M., Grove, R., et al. (2000). The motivation for youth participation in sport and physical activity: Relationships to culture, self-reported activity levels, and gender. *International Journal of Sports Psychology*, 31, 321-346.
- Yoh, T., Yang, H., & Gordon, B. (2008). Status of participation in physical activities among international students attending colleges and universities in the United States. *College Student Journal*, 42, 1110-1117.

EXCHANGE RATE VARIATION AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TURKEY:

A TIME SERIES ANALYSIS

Idoko Ahmed Itodo

Eastern Mediterranean University, Economics Department Famagusta, North Cyprus, via Mersin
10, Turkey, 905338293583

Shahrzad Safaeimanesh

Eastern Mediterranean University, Economics Department Famagusta, North Cyprus, via Mersin
10, Turkey Shahrzad. safaeimanesh@emu.edu.tr +905338526745

Farzad Safaeimanesh

Eastern Mediterranean University, Tourism Department Famagusta, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey farzad.safaeimanesh@emu.edu.tr +905338527758

ABSTRACT

In recent times, the exchange rate of the Turkish Lira has experienced significant depreciation. This could have some implications for the tourism industry, in terms of the traffic of visitors and their expenditures, in view of the pass-through effect of fluctuating exchange rates to domestic prices. This paper sought to achieve two main objectives; the first being to examine the relationship between the Turkish exchange rate and the number of tourists visiting Turkey, and the second was to capture the impact of the Turkish exchange rate on the expenditure of these tourists. We draw inferences from the estimates of two Vector Error Correction Models (VECMs) and conclude that the exchange rate of the Lira has no impact on both the contemporaneous and future numbers of Tourism visitors and their expenditure in Turkey in the short-run. These results were confirmed by the VEC granger causality tests of the two (2) models which show the absence of directional causality in either direction in the two (2) models. However, in the long-run, the exchange rate was found to impact positively on the flow of tourists to Turkey.

Keywords: Exchange Rate, Turkish Lira, Tourism Industry, Co-integration, Vector Error Correction Models (VECMs), VEC Granger Causality.

JEL Classification: C32, F31, L83, Z33.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is one of the most vibrant industries in both developed and developing countries today. This sector accounts for significant sources of foreign exchange earnings and revenue for the governments of these countries. And like always, this sector is continually expanding its share in the gross earnings of these countries. As pointed out by Nasir et al (2015), Ghartey (2013) and Harvey et al (2017), this is significant because of the role it plays in economic growth and development of countries.

Many factors are responsible for the growth of the global tourism industry. Some of these factors include religious, climatic, social and technological factors, and global improvements in economic conditions which make people to seek pleasure travels. Ozturen and Sevil (2009) have stressed the importance of the hospitality industry to the growth of tourism. Also, economic integration, which promotes international trade by breaking down barriers to migration, has been frequently mentioned as a factor that promotes International tourism activities. International tourism is enhanced when limitations to migration are minimized. Tourists desire the cost effective international leisure travels. And this, its self, depends on the ease to accessing travelling documents, making travelling arrangements and the cost of living in the tourism destination; a function of the value of domestic currency of the host country.

In view of the above, it would not be out of point to say that the value of the local currency of tourism destinations, and variations in it, are major determinants of the demand for international tourism by potential tourists. When exchanges rates increase, leading to depreciations in the local currency, cost of living reduces for tourism visitors who come in with foreign currencies. For this reason, it is expected that tourist destinations like Turkey which has seen its local currency; the Turkish Lira, depreciate significantly in recent times, should be seen to enjoy increases in her inflow of international tourist. Kiliç and Bayar (2014), and Akar (2012) also share this thought. But this doesn't seem to be the case lately. The annual inflow of tourists to Turkey is taking a downturn for the first time since 2002. Available statistics reveal that the figure, which stood at about 12.9 million persons in 2002, rose to 13.7 million in 2003. And the upward trend was sustained from 2004 through to 2014 where the figure stood at about 36.5 million visitors (TurkStat, 2017). However, the numbers are beginning to drop. The figure fell from 36.5 million in 2014 to 35 million in 2015, and by the end of 2016, it dropped further to 25.3 million tourists (TurkStat, 2017). This is so, even in the face of significant depreciations in the value of the Lira.

Although the Lira has suffered its greatest depreciations between 2014 and early 2017, since it was redenomination in 2005, demographic evidence of a downturn in the traffic of tourists is now visible. This could also have implications on the expenditures on the tourists in Turkey, and as a result, affect the earnings accruing to her from International Tourism. It is against this backdrop that this paper sought to investigate the relationship between the exchange rate of the Lira and the inflow of international tourist and their expenditure in Turkey. We applied two separate Vector Error Correction Models (VECMs) to capture the dynamics in the relationship between exchange rate and the number on tourist visitors on one hand, and exchange rate and the expenditure of tourism visitors on the other hand, between 2002 and 2016.

LITERATURE

The relationship between exchange rate and tourism has been studied for several countries and from different viewpoints. Cheng et al (2013), Chi (2015) and Cheng et al (2013) wrote on the dynamics of this relationship within the context of the tourism sector in the United States of America (USA). There is a convergence of thoughts, based on their separate empirical findings, that variations in the real exchange rate have impacts on the export revenue from tourism in the United State. The relationship is such that increases in the exchange rate, which causes depreciation in its real value, would increase inflow of tourist, and by implication, tourism revenues to the USA. These results are similar to the findings of Nasir et al (2015), Martin Falk (2015), Ganchev (2014), Pavlic et al, Ghadban, S. (2014) and Falk, M. (2013) who have conducted similar investigations into the role of exchange rates variations in the development of the tourism sectors in Andalusia; Spain, Australia, Bulgaria, Croatia Greece and Switzerland respectively. The general agreement again is that upward variations tend to attract more tourists, as it connotes marginal reductions in cost of living for potential tourists, in the host countries. However, Vita and Kyaw (2013) argued that variations in exchange rates could be a misleading factor in tourism demand. This is because of the pass-through effect of exchange rate depreciation which causes rise in domestic price level. In that case, all expected benefits from the depreciation of the local currency could be eroded by the resultant increase in domestic prices.

Kiliç and Bayar (2014), Akar (2012), Yilmaz et al (2015), Aktaş et al (2014) and Dincer et al (2015) all made some appreciable efforts in modelling the relationship between exchange and its volatility on the growth of tourism in Turkey. Kiliç and Bayar (2014), and Akar (2012), writing separately, both agreed there is a positive long-run relationship between real exchange rate of the Lira and the

growth of the Turkish tourism sector. This means the depreciation of the Lira is expected to boost tourism activities in Turkey. Yilmaz et al (2015) Aktaş et al (2014) and Dincer et al (2015) have focused more on the impact of the volatility of the Lira on the tourism sector. They have applied various specifications of the traditional GARCH models in their studies. They both agreed that instability in the Lira has negative implications on the growth of the tourism sector in Turkey. Their results are similar to those of Saayman and Saayman (2013), and Agiomirgianakis et al (2015) who, studying this relationship for the tourism sectors of South Africa and Iceland respectively, found that exchange rate volatility has negative impact on both tourist spending and arrivals of tourists. Saayman and Saayman (2013) however claimed that the volatility in the South African Rand is more prone to influence spending than arrivals of tourists in the long-run.

The work of Kuncoro, H. (2016) is more concerned with the impact of international tourism on the exchange rate position of tourism exporting countries. Kuncoro, studying this relationship for the tourism sector in Indonesia, concluded, based on the estimates of his empirical investigations, that tourist arrivals boost external international reserve and therefore contribute in achieving stability in exchange rate.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The main variables of this paper are the Total Expenditure of Tourist Visitors to Turkey (TET); measured as the average expenditure per tourist in US dollars, the Exchange Rate of the Turkish Lira (EXR); measured as the amount of the Turkish Lira (TL) per unit of the US dollar, and the Total Number of Tourist Visitors to Turkey (NOTV). All variables are monthly dataset sampled between the periods January 2002 and December 2016; 180 months. These data were sourced from the data base of Turkish Statistical Institute via Thomas Reuters DataStream. TET, EXR and NOTV were transformed into their natural log and renamed LNTET, LNEXT and LNNOTV respectively.

The main technique of analysis is the Vector Error Correction Model (VECM), designed to capture both the short-run and long-run dynamics in the relationships among variables that are integrated of order one (1). In this study, we specify two VECMs. The first expresses LNNOTV as a function of predetermined LNEXT, while the second expresses LNTET as a function of predetermined LNEXT.

Model 1: $LNNOTV = f(EXR)$

$$\Delta LNNOTV_t = \theta + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_1 \Delta LNNOTV_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_1 \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \psi_1 EC1_{t-i} + e_{1t} \dots \dots \dots 1$$

$$\Delta LNEXR_t = \pi + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_2 \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_2 \Delta LNNOTV_{t-i} + \psi_2 EC2_{t-i} + e_{2t} \dots \dots \dots 2$$

Model 2: $LNTET = f(EXR)$

$$\Delta LNTET_t = \theta + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_1 \Delta LNTET_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_1 \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \psi_1 EC1_{t-i} + e_{1t} \dots \dots \dots 3$$

$$\Delta LNEXR_t = \pi + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_2 \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_2 \Delta LNTET_{t-i} + \psi_2 EC2_{t-i} + e_{2t} \dots \dots \dots 4$$

Where $ALNNOTV$, $ALNEXR$ and $ALNTET$ are first differences of Total Number of Tourist Visitors to Turkey (NOTV), the Exchange Rate of the Turkish Lira (EXR), and the Total Expenditure of Tourist Visitors to Turkey (TET) respectively. θ , π , α , β and ψ are parameters to be estimated, EC is the error correction terms,

and e is the error term. All variables and parameters have been incorporated into each equation correctly, and labelled appropriately.

One of the conditions for the application of VECM is that all variables in the model must be integrated of order one (1), and that they should be co-integrated. As a result, it is important to always verify the unit root properties of all the series, and co-integration properties of all the related variables before the estimation of VECM. In this study, we applied the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) test proposed by Dickey and Fuller (1979) and that of Phillip and Peron (1988), to test the unit root status of all the variables. These tests are usually conducted under the null hypothesis of ‘unit root’.

Testing for unit root using the ADF test is synonymous with testing the statistical significance of $\hat{\alpha}$ in any one of the three equations below.

$$\Delta Y_t = \mu + \beta t + \psi Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + u_t \dots \dots \dots 5$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \beta t + \psi Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + u_t \dots \dots \dots 6$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \psi Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + u_t \dots \dots \dots 7$$

Where ΔY_t represents any of the variables taken at a time; in first difference, Y_{t-1} is lag of any of the variables taken at a time; in level, μ is the intercept, βt is the trend and u_t is the error term. In our study, we began the test by estimating the test equation with Trend and Intercept (equation 5) and evaluating the statistical significance of the Trend and Intercept in each case. Where they were found insignificant, we dropped them and estimated either equation 6 or 7, depending on their statistical significance. We therefore drew conclusions on the unit root properties of each variable based on the output of the most appropriate test equation (either of equation 5, 6 or 7) in each case. These steps have been applied in previous studies, like that of Itodo (2017), with satisfactory results. The optimum lag selection was determined by the Schwarz Information criterion (SIC). These steps were also followed in conducting the PP tests. We found all variables to be nonstationary but integrated of order one (1). This was necessary for the application of Johanson test for co-integration and, by implication, the estimation of the proposed VECMs.

The co-integration test was conducted using the Johanson-Juselius (1990) Maximum Likelihood technique of cointegration for multivariate models, used to determine the presence of long-run equilibrium among integrated variables. This test involves the estimation of the model (equation 8) below.

$$\Delta X_t = \Gamma_1 \Delta X_{t-1} + \Pi X_{t-K} + u_t \dots \dots \dots 8$$

Where ΔX_t , represents the vector of variables in first difference, ΠX_{t-K} is the error correction term, u_t is the error

term. And Π can be factored into two separate matrices A and B such that $\Pi = AB'$ and A are the vector of co-integrating parameters and vector of error correction coefficients, measuring the speed

of adjustment, respectively. In this study, we found the presence of one co-integrating equation.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Table 1: Descriptive Statistic of Variables

Descriptive Statistic	TET	EXR	NOTV
Mean	726.0302	1.749167	2135901
Median	709.6998	1.55	1792723
Maximum	997.2597	3.52	5782819
Minimum	434.8897	1.16	304652
Std. Dev.	112.8865	0.523613	1267619
Sum	130685.4	314.85	384000000
Observations	180	180	180

Source: Authors' Estimation

Table 1 above presents the descriptive statistic of TET, EXR and NOTV. The expenditure per Tourist visitors to Turkey within the period under review ranges between 434.89 US dollars and 997.26 US dollars, with an average of 726.03 US dollars. Within the same period, the Turkish nominal exchange rate, which averaged 1.75 lira to a US

dollar, fluctuated between a minimum of 1.16 lira to a US dollar and a maximum of 3.52 lira to US dollar. On the number of Tourist Visitors (NOTV), an approximately 384 million tourists visited Turkey within the sample period. This amounts to a monthly average of 2,135,901 visitors within the period under review.

Figure 1 below is a plot of the graph of the monthly Turkish exchange rate between 2002 and 2016. This graph reveals that major depreciations in the value of the Lira began from around 2010 and continued up to 2016. EXR rose from a value lower than 2.0 in 2010 to as high as 3.5 in 2016. This depreciation in its value is the most ever witnessed since the redenomination exercise of 2005.

Figure 1: Graph of EXR



Source: Authors' Estimation

The result of the unit root tests of the variables are presented in tables 2A and 2B below. Table 2A presents the ADF and PP tests, in levels, on the three variables. The results of the ADF show that LNEXR, LNTET and LNNOTV are not stationary as we failed to reject the null hypothesis of ‘unit root’ under all three specifications; trend and intercept, trend, and without trend and intercept. However, in the lower part of table 2A, the PP tests on the variables, in exception of LNEXR, indicate the variables only have unit root under the specification of ‘without trend and intercept’ (equation 7). But as stated earlier in the methodology, our inferences on the unit root properties of the variables depends on the statistical insignificant of trend and intercept, or both, in the estimated ADF and PP models. In this case, we found the trend and intercept to be insignificant in the estimated ADF and PP models for LNTET and LNNOTV. For this reason, we rely on the estimates of equation 7, and conclude that LNEXR, LNTET and LNNOTV are both unit root processes.

Table 2A: Unit Root Tests Results.

	LNEXR	LNTET	LNNOTV
ADF($\mu, \beta t$)	-0.9983	-2.218	-0.162710
ADF(μ)	0.6049	-2.32423	-1.885469
ADF(*)	1.8607	0.067361	0.885199
PP($\mu, \beta t$)	-1.0354	-4.67*	-5.245321*
PP(μ)	0.679	-4.438*	-5.719256*
PP(*)	1.953	0.3043	-0.005167

*Significant at 1%, ** Significant at 5%, ($\mu, \beta t$) Intercept and Trend, (μ) Trend no Intercept
(*) No Intercept and Trend, Δ = First Difference

From table 2B below, the ADF and PP tests in first difference of LNEXR, LNTET and LNNOTV show that the three variables are stationary in their respective first differences. Here, the null hypothesis of ‘unit root’ is rejected under all three test specifications, equations 5-7. LNEXR, LNTET and LNNOTV are therefore integrated of order one (1). Next, we proceed with verifying whether there exist long-run relationships between these variables. This was done within the contest of the Johanson test for co-integration.

Table 2B: Unit Root Tests Results.

	ΔLNEXR	ΔLNTET	ΔLNNOTV
ADF($\mu, \beta t$)	-12.29053*	3.926**	-4.106274*
ADF(μ)	-12.13849*	-3.870*	-3.590395*
ADF(*)	-12.00198*	-3.913*	-3.486032*
($\mu, \beta t$)	-12.30919*	-15.6*	-6.325495*
(μ)	-12.09046*	-15.383*	-6.338487*
(*)	-12.09046*	-15.389*	-6.392583*

*Significant at 1%, ** Significant at 5%, ($\mu, \beta t$) Intercept and Trend, (μ) Trend no Intercept
(*) No Intercept and Trend, Δ = First Difference

In specifying the co-integration tests, we began by estimating two Vector Autoregressive (VAR) Models, representing the relationships presented in model 1 and 2, with each having two (2) lags. The lags were selected arbitrarily, and then, following the optimum lag selection criteria of AIC and SIC, we found lag of one (1) to be most appropriate for our proposed models. For this reason, both the tests for co-integration, and the proposed VECMs were estimated with one (1) lag specification.

In table 3A, the co-integration test for the relationship between LNNOTV and LNEXR indicates that there exists one co-integrating equation between these variables. Here, while we fail to reject

the null hypothesis of ‘At most one co-integrating equation’, the null hypothesis of ‘No co-integrating equation’ is not rejected for the Trace statistic and Max-Eigen statistic.

Table 3A: Co-integration Test Result for Model 1

Hypothesized	Trace	Max-Eigen
No. of CE(s)	Statistic	Statistic
None *	51.95649*	51.79868*
At most 1	0.157817	0.157817

*Significant at 1%

Similarly, the co-integration test for model 2, presented in table 3B below, reveals one co-integrating equation between LNTET and LNEXR. In this case, while the null hypothesis of ‘At most one co-integrating equation’ cannot be rejected at 1% level of significance; as both the Trace statistic and max-Eigen statistic are insignificant, the null hypothesis of ‘No co-integrating equation’ is rejected for the Trace statistic and Max-Eigen statistic. Next we estimated the VECMs for both models 1 and 2. The results are presented in tables 4A and 4B below.

Table 3B: Co-integration Test Result for Model 2

Hypothesized	Trace	Max-Eigen
No. of CE(s)	Statistic	Statistic
None *	25.22283*	25.08419*
At most 1	0.138633	0.138633

*Significant at 1%

The estimates of the VECM of model 1 are presented in table 4A below. We focused only on the estimates of equation 1 of model 1, in line with the objective of our study. In the upper part of the table, the coefficient of predetermined LNEXR is positive and significant. This implies that, in the long-run, exchange rate has a positive and significant relationship with LNNOTV. This is in contradiction of the short-run relationship presented in the lower part of the table. There, the coefficient of lagged LNEXR is positive and but statistically insignificant.

However, the coefficient of lagged LNNOTV was found to be positive and significant in the short-run equation. The speed of adjustment, which stands at about -0.22, is also significant.

Table 4A: VECM Result of Model 1

Cointegrating Eq:	CointEq1
LNEXR(-1)	0.627704*
C	6.515024
Error Correction:	D(LNNOTV)
ECT	-0.223030*
D(LNNOTV(-1))	0.642640*
D(LNEXR(-1))	-0.431952
C	0.003195

***Significant at 1%**

Table 4B below presents the result of equation 4 of the VECM of model 2. This result shows, in the long-run, exchange rate has positive but insignificant relationship with LNTET. This situation is the same in the short-run. There, the coefficient of predetermined LNEXR is found to be positive but insignificant. The coefficient of lagged LNTET in the short-run equation is also positive but insignificant, implying that predetermined values of LNTET do not have effects on the contemporaneous realizations of LNTET. Finally, just as was the case in model 1, the speed of adjustment in model 2, which stands at about -0.24, is negative and statistically significant.

Table 4B: VECM Result of Model 2

Cointegrating Eq:	CointEq1
LNEXR(-1)	0.120017
C	6.515024
Error Correction:	D(LNTET)
ECT	-0.241390*
D(LNTET(-1))	0.141762
D(LNEXR(-1))	0.110686
C	0.000952

***Significant at 1%**

In confirmation of the findings of the VECM of model 1, the VEC granger causality tests presented in table 5A below reveals no short-run causality running either direction between LNEXR and

LNNOTV. Here, the null hypotheses that ‘LNEXR does not Granger Cause LNNOTV’ and ‘LNNOTV does not Granger Cause LNEXR’ are not rejected at 5% level of significance. The implication is that predetermined values of LNEXR cannot be used as explanatory variable for contemporaneous values of LNNOTV in the short-run and likewise, predetermined values of LNNOTV cannot be used to explain movements in LNEXR in the short-run.

Table 5A: VEC Granger Causality/Block Exogeneity Wald Tests for Model 1

Dependent variable: D(LNNOTV)	
Excluded	Chi-sq
D(LNEXR)	1.068759
All	1.068759
Dependent variable: D(LNEXR)	
Excluded	Chi-sq
D(LNNOTV)	0.200394
All	0.200394

From table 5B below, just as in model 1, the VEC granger causality test between LNEXR and LNTET reveals no granger causality running either direction between LNEXR and LNTET in the short-run; LNEXR does not granger cause LNTET and LNTET does not granger cause LNEXR. Again, this implies predetermined values of LNEXR cannot be used as explanatory variables of contemporaneous and future values of LNTET, and vice versa. This result re-echoes the output of the VECM presented in table 4B above.

Table 5B: VEC Granger Causality/Block Exogeneity Wald Tests for Model 2

Dependent variable: D(LNTET)	
Excluded	Chi-sq
D(LNEXR)	0.466037
All	0.466037

Dependent variable: D(LNEXR)	
Excluded	Chi-sq
D(LNTET)	0.135355
All	0.135355

POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This paper investigates the relationship between exchange rate variations and the tourism industry in Turkey. Specifically, we sought to assess the impact of the exchange rate of the Turkish Lira on the number of tourists visiting Turkey and their expenditure in Turkey between 2002 and 2016. This was necessary because recent variations in the Turkish Lira, which has seen its nominal value depreciate significantly, has potentials of influencing the flow of tourism activities to Turkey. And considering that, in recent times also, the usual high traffic of tourist to Turkey is taking a downward turn, it's important to examine the role, if any, of variations in exchange of the Lira in tourism activities in Turkey. In this light, using two separate Vector Error Correction Models, attempts were made to explain the role of exchange rate variations in this regard.

The outputs of our models reveal that predetermined exchange rate has no significant effect on the volume of tourist to Turkey and their expenditure in Turkey in the short-run, within the period under review. These results were further confirmed by the granger causality tests which reveal the absence of granger causality, from either direction, between exchange rate and the number of tourist visitors to Turkey on one hand, and exchange rate and the expenditure of tourist visitors to Turkey on the other hand. The outcome of this investigation is in contradiction of earlier findings of Kiliç and Bayar (2014), and Akar (2012), who have conducted similar study for Turkey over earlier sample space.

The implication of these findings is that variations in the traffic of tourists to Turkey and their expenditure within the period under review are influenced primarily by factors other than variations in the nominal exchange rate of the Turkish Lira. Some of these factors may be the recent terrorist attacks in Turkey, particularly in Istanbul. Liu and Pratt (2017) and Bassil (2014), have shown the negative impact of terrorism and political instability on the development of tourism in a sample of 95 countries. Goldman (2014), on the other hand, claims there is an inverse U relationship between number of arrivals and number of attacks perpetrated by foreigners, and also, there is a significant relationship between number of arrivals to a country and terror attacks in which both the attackers and the victims are foreigners. In recent times, Turkey has experienced attacks, with one of the most devastating being the attack on Ataturk airport in Istanbul. Also, the attempted coup d'etat of 2016 added in no small measure to the consideration of Turkey as safe tourist destination; even though Tekin (2015) claims earlier political instabilities in Turkey have not affected her tourism sector. This should be a constant reminder to Turkey that the sustainability of the gains they have always enjoyed from the inflow of international tourism would depend largely on the efforts put into changing the 'unsafe' image already created by the terror attacks on its soil.

REFERENCES

- Agiomirgianakis, G., Serenis, D., & Tsounis, N. (2015). Effects of Exchange Rate Volatility on Tourist Flows into Iceland. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 24, 25-34.
- Akar, C. (2012). Modeling Turkish tourism demand and the exchange rate: the bivariate Garch approach. *European Journal of Economics, Finance & Administrative Sciences*, Jul2012, (50), p133.
- Aktaş, A. R., Ozkan, B., Kaplan, F., & Brumfield, R. (2014). Exchange Rate Volatility: Effect on Turkish Tourism Incomes.
- Bassil, C. (2014). The effect of terrorism on tourism demand in the Middle East. *Peace Economics, Peace Science and Public Policy*, 20(4), 669-684.
- Cheng, K. M., Kim, H., & Thompson, H. (2013). The exchange rate and US tourism trade, 1973-2007. *Tourism Economics*, 19(4), 883-896.
- Cheng, K. M., Kim, H., & Thompson, H. (2013). The real exchange rate and the balance of trade in US tourism. *International Review of Economics & Finance*, 25, 122-128.
- Chi, J. (2015). Dynamic impacts of income and the exchange rate on US tourism, 1960-2011. *Tourism Economics*, 21(5), 1047-1060.
- De Vita, G. (2014). The long-run impact of exchange rate regimes on international tourism flows. *Tourism Management*, 45, 226-233.
- Dickey, D. A., & Fuller, W. A. (1979). Distribution of the estimators for autoregressive time series

- with a unit root. *Journal of the American statistical association*, 74(366a), 427-431.
- Dincer, M. Z., Dincer, F. I., & Ustaoglu, M. (2015). Reel Effective Exchange Rate Volatilities Impact on Tourism Sector in Turkey: An Empirical Analysis of 2003-2014. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 23, 1000-1008.
- Falk, M. (2013). The sensitivity of winter tourism to exchange rate changes: Evidence for the Swiss Alps. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 13(2), 101-112.
- Falk, M. (2015). The sensitivity of tourism demand to exchange rate changes: an application to Swiss overnight stays in Austrian mountain villages during the winter season. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 18(5), 465-476.
- Ganchev, G. T. (2014). Tourism industry: Role of the real effective exchange rate. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 10, 174-179.
- Ghadban, S. (2014). Greek Tourism Secret Recipe: Is Exchange Rate The Main Ingredient?. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Research (Online)*, 25.
- Ghartey, E. E. (2013). Effects of tourism, economic growth, real exchange rate, structural changes and hurricanes in Jamaica. *Tourism Economics*, 19(4), 919-942.
- Goldman, O. S., & Neubauer-Shani, M. (2017). Does international tourism affect transnational terrorism?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(4), 451-467.
- Harvey, H., Furuoka, F., & Munir, Q. (2017). The Role of Tourism, Real Exchange Rate, and Economic Growth in Malaysia: Further Evidence From Disaggregated Data. *Asia-Pacific Social Science Review*, 16(3), 1-1.
- Itodo, I. A., Safaeimanesh, S., & Bekun, F. V. (2017). Energy Use and Growth of Manufacturing Sector: Evidence from Turkey. *Academic Journal of Economic Studies*, 3(1), 88-96.
- Johansen, S., & Juselius, K. (1990). Maximum likelihood estimation and inference on cointegration—with applications to the demand for money. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and statistics*, 52(2), 169-210.
- Kiliç, C., & Bayar, Y. (2014). Effects of Real Exchange Rate Volatility on Tourism Receipts and Expenditures in Turkey. *Advances in Management and Applied Economics*, 4(1), 89.
- Kuncoro, H. (2016). Do Tourist Arrivals Contribute to the Stable Exchange Rate? Evidence from Indonesia. *Journal of Environmental Management & Tourism*, 7(1 (13)), 63.
- Liu, A., & Pratt, S. (2017). Tourism's vulnerability and resilience to terrorism. *Tourism Management*, 60, 404-417.
- Nasir, M. A., Wu, J., & Guerrero, J. C. (2015). Economic Growth, Exchange Rate and Constrained Competitiveness of the Tourism Sector in Andalucia. *International Journal of Management and Economics*, 48(1), 84-100.
- Ozturen, A., & Sevil, G. (2009). Supply chain management as a sustainable performance booster for the accommodation enterprises: evidence from North Cyprus tourism sector. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(2), 97.
- Pavlic, I., Svilokos, T., & Tolic, M. S. (2015). Tourism, real effective exchange rate and economic growth: Empirical evidence for Croatia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 282-291.

- Phillips, P. C., & Perron, P. (1988). Testing for a unit root in time series regression. *Biometrika*, 335-346.
- Saayman, A., & Saayman, M. (2013). Exchange rate volatility and tourism-revisiting the nature of the relationship. *European Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(2), 104.
- Tekin, E. (2015). The Impacts of Political and Economic Uncertainties on the Tourism Industry in Turkey. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2 S5), 265.
- TurkStat (2017) <http://www.turkstat.gov.tr/Start.do>
- Vita, G. D., & Kyaw, K. S. (2013). Role of the exchange rate in tourism demand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 624-627.
- Yilmaz Kandir, S., Karadeniz, E., & Erismis, A. (2015). The Exchange Rate Risk of Turkish Tourism Firms. *The Journal of Hospitality Financial Management*, 23(1), 63-71.

STUDENTS EXPOSURE TO A MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT: DOES CULTURAL EXCHANGE INDUCE CULTURE AND RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE?

Steven W. Bayighomog Likoum

Uju Violet Alola

Shahrzad Amelshahbaz

Victoria Ademilua

Eastern Mediterranean University Famagusta, North Cyprus, Via Mersin 10 Turkey

ABSTRACT

International students represent a very important source of cultural exchange among students, in the current context of increasing need to acquire education abroad. Using the internalization theory, the paper attempt to assess and understand cross-cultural interaction process of students in North Cyprus. Applying a qualitative approach, the study found that students' sustained exposure to multicultural exchange leads to their open-mindedness about cultural differences, and hence their tolerance. Implications for universities administrators, tourism planning policy makers and other bodies of educational tourism are further extensively discussed.

Keywords: Multi-cultural Exchange, Tolerance, Internalization theory, International Students, Educational Tourism.

INTRODUCTION

In an ever-growing world, a need to acquire foreign education has been on an increase. According to the Institute of International Education (2016), there were 1,043,839 foreign students in the United States for the period of 2015-16, increasing by 7.1% from the previous period. These figures just express the educational tourism or edu-tourism growth magnitude, and its increasing importance for the economy over the years. Educators have seen that international experience leads to intercultural competence; yet, some scholars (Lou, Andresen, & Myers, 2011; Sutton & Rubin, 2010; Vande Berg, 2007; Vande Berg & Paige, 2009) pointed out that some students return to their home country after living abroad as ethnocentric and not willing to adapt with people from different religion and different culture. Cultural exchange exist where there are two or more culture inhabitation in the same geographical area (Halualani, Chitgopekar, Morrison, & Dodge, 2004; Jackman & Crane,

1986). Students from different countries otherwise called international students are a very important source of cultural exchange among students, who usually emigrate from their native country not only to seek a perceived heightened education quality, but also to come across a different sociocultural setting than their home's one. Cultural exchange is said to enhance the appreciation and accommodating spirit for others (Bervis, 2002). Yet, its potential value is still underappreciated with regard to the current shocking daily news headlines, which feature intense forms of domestic or international conflicts fueled by religious, racial or ethnic discrimination, hatred and prejudice (Kim, 2008). In such world characterized by even more compelling 'us-against-them' ideologies, the abovementioned statistics for instance significance is striking. People and the young generation is particular; challenge these antagonist forces by choosing to embrace diversity and getting to know other cultures, thanks also to the Internet and the information technologies.

In this regard, few scholars have dwelt on examining the experience of international students studying abroad. For instance, Tian and Lowe (2014) explores the impact of eight American students' intercultural experience on their personal identity during their 5-month exchange program. These authors also cited two stream-convergent studies (Yang, 2009; Chen, 2003) which explored international students' daily life experience and cross-cultural adaptation in China. In addition, Burkhardt and Bennett (2015) examined daily cross-cultural interactions influences on the adjustment of undergraduate international students, who are enrolled in a private research university in the northeastern United States. A commonality between these studies is that the cultural setting, where the foreign students where embarked in, is overwhelmingly represented by the autochthonous culture. In other words, international students represented a trivially fractional cultural influence in the host country. Thus, they were mostly influenced by the local culture, due to the proportion of local people on- and off-campus.

Little is known however about the results of a relatively evenly spread cultural setting, where the incumbents are to face not one major dominant culture, but diverse interwoven and cohabiting cultures. The dearth of the literature on this issue consequently elicited the aim of this paper, which is to deepen the extant literature by taking into account such multi-cultural interactions under the realm of an educational multicultural environment, whereby there is relatively no majority of domestic students and minority of foreign students. A qualitative approach will help discovering the multiculturalism exposure phenomenon on international students, i.e., which potential disclosures may be enlighten out upon the confrontation between a student own religion and culture components

such as the communication, cognitive, material and behavioral factors and others ones?

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Internalization is the ability of an individual to consolidate, imbed his or her own beliefs, attitude and values when it comes to displaying one's moral behavior. The ability to be able to embrace others' attitude may be contingent on a person's cultural background, or as a function of early consciousness which normally predict future social, environmental and competent adaptability. According to Seddoh (2001) internalization is said to be considered when talking about education, skill and learning revolution in higher schools of learning in the world, with proposition that such must hold in high esteem the local beliefs, customs, norms and priorities of every others ways of life in the 21st century (Knight & de Wit, 1997; Knight, 1999). Knight opined that internalization carries its own importance like globalization. Thus, it is not a subject without advantages. An individual with high level of internalization ability will be able to cope maximally in any given community, and will possess good managerial capabilities especially in the world of globalization economy. Likewise a community with high internationalization will be a good host for visitor with in turn is of benefit to the government and individual citizen at large.

With the high need for capacity building and development in the last 20 years according to OECD (2004) there has been a double increase of cross border education with a 1.2 million movement in 2002, OECD receiving 85-90 %. This has prompted students to seek for knowledge that will make them more lucrative in their areas of discipline with countries too competing to receive more students to their end by provision of education to serve students from every part of the world (de Wit, 2008; OECD, 2008; Knight, 2007). These have undoubtedly increased the complexity of internalization among students and even the host communities. Knight (2004) was of the opinion that internalization of post-secondary education as a step by step adventure which revolves round the ability of the host to build in all ramifications global dimensions of culture. This will allow students internalization, expected assimilation of students' sustainable skills and learning, among diverse education providers in the world (Knight, 2004; OECD, 2007, p. 23). With increase growth of students, cross border education in 21st century Sanderson (2008) stated that *"We all have to cross borders. The ones in our heads may well prove to be the most difficult"*.

This has called for a more advance form of internalization which may not work at individual level without the help of the organization or institutions, from the top management to the grassroots.

Internalization of diverse culture in higher institutions of learning is an idea to make the place more cosmopolitan and make it a relaxing environment for knowledge acquisition. The main aim of cross border education is to improve one's understandings and skills, to increase self-reliance and to directly impact the environment and progressively the economy of the community, when the acquired knowledge is transferred (Knight, 1999, p. 20). Knowledge acquired by the students will be directly correlated to the source, which is a direct reflection of the staff and the stakeholder capability, and international experience. Several factors such as age, family life, personal experience, socio-economic status, ethnicity and religion, may influence students internalization (Bakker et al., 2012; Fransen et al., 2007; Fransen et al., 2010; Maxwell et al., 2011; Tischler et al., 2011; van den Berg et al., 2005; Yu, 2012).

Culture

Culture is a general and common term defined as a way of living, unique to a particular set of people in a specified geographical region or location, at a specific time, and a major factor that distinguishes one person or community from another. Hofstede (1980) explained culture as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics by which a

group responds to its environment. Culture embraces individuals behavior, values, believes, rules of conduct, political, organization, economic activity that are predominant in that locality.

Cultural identity

It is enlightenment on what drives individual to step forward into associative multicultural undertakings and behaviors is given by Kim's (2005b) "*identity inclusivity*" and "*identity security*" as important factors in her interethnic communication theory. A human being's open-endedness to interaction with surrounding systems (Bertalanffy, 1956) enhances his acquisition of new cultural identity through a dynamic and flexible process: acculturation and deculturation (Kim, 2008). Kim postulates that *acculturation* arises upon an individual's exposure to a new or different culture to his native one. This implies cognitive processes of learning from this culture doings, language, aesthetics and emotional sensibilities. However this goes alongside with *deculturation* which on the other hand will progressively extinct some aspects of the natural-born culture. The interaction of the acculturation and deculturation leads to a "*stress-adaptation-growth*" dynamics. Stress arises from an identity conflict embedded in the lack of psychological heterostasis resilience. At this stage, a person faces two forces where he is confronted to a new culture and its learning or acquisition

requirements i.e. *acculturation*, and the resistance to the old culture's traditions annihilation i.e. *enculturation*. This disequilibrium-making force often causes emotional depression or "*cultural shock*". The needs to uphold and sustain to the new environment throughout time make this person to adapt, i.e., strive to establish congruousness between him and the new environment. Controlling this stress and adaptation inexorably enhances the individual growth whereby he finds new and innovative ways to deal with cultural issues. For Kim, a person cultural or rather multicultural identity will materialize upon the combined experience of acculturation-enculturation and the stress-adaptation-growth dynamics.

Cultural competence

Moule's (2011) model of cultural competence is the aptitude to deal with people from different culture and being mindful of existing dissimilarities. A study by Long (2013) shows for instance the characteristics of a culturally competent instructor. According to him (Long), such features include empathy, stereotypes and other's cultural domination avoidance, biases and prejudice. Garneau and Pepin (2015) also mention tolerance and respect of others (e.g., Williamson & Harrison, 2010).

Intercultural

Interest in what constitutes culture, has become a topic of debate among scholar, with an increased desires to visit other countries for short holiday or for job in this millennium of globalization. These studies are concerned with the coping capacity of the people, their experience of studying and working abroad and interactive adaptability with the home and the host culture. Cross-cultural is embedded within the intercultural, though often used interchangeably. Cross-cultural experience and intercultural experience tend to be used interchangeably in the literature. Although they are not mutually exclusive, they embrace different focuses. The notion of cross-cultural experience inherently stresses on boundary crossing, differences and diversity. *Intercultural* experience, on the other hand, "*encompasses both domestic and international contexts and implies cultures interacting*" (Landreman, 2003, cited in King and Baxter Magolda, 2005, p. 572). In a multicultural environment, individuals may experience both cross- and inter- cultural experiences simultaneously. The urge to manage or cope with the diverse culture may be strenuous especially at the initial stage, but with time as the coping ability increases one becomes adjusted. Knowingly or unknowingly the visitor of yesterday become like the indigenes, though it may be positive or negative.

However, as some writers note (Berger & Luckman, 1966; Byram, 2003; Paulston, 1992), some parts

of host culture are beyond modification or integration by non-indigenes and may not be abandoned for others as the case may be. There are every tendency to always feel a sense that one does not belong to, especially when there are conflicting values, norms and beliefs (Kim, 2005). Ward and Kennedy (1993) in their work mentioned two major types of reactions that a person is likely to face in a foreign land, the intercultural stress, which we need adjustment psychologically when one is satisfy along with the coping process and secondly the need for cultural adaptation.

This is the personal ability to get adjusted to the foreign culture (i.e. relating to social skills and predicted on cultural learning) (see also Leung, et al., 2006, Li & Gasser, 2005, Mori, 2000, Searle & Ward, 1990, Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Learning is a gradual process and is dependent on individual personality.

International students are engaged in continuous negotiation and mediation with the surrounding environment, to gain their feet on ground through a thorough self-analysis (of their values and beliefs), self-reflection, and selfreorientation. The development of each component of their intercultural competence - attitude, knowledge, skills and critical cultural awareness (Byram et al., 2001) - influences and is influenced by the development of the others, and is moderated by the environment in which the individual is engaged. The word 'others' connote a person or group of people outside ours, a stranger or visitors outside ours, different from the world of our customs, norms, believes which reflect the reason for the fear of others and reason for wandering at them. When this is given excessive focus in an institution may impair learning and students internalization. Comparative pilot study on Chinese learners' experiences in the UK and in British projects in China, Gu and Schweisfurth (2006) found that in addition to culture, factors such as the identities and motivations of the learners and the power relationships between them and their teachers were also significant issues in the strategic adaptations made by Chinese students. The study showed that despite various intercultural challenges and struggles, most students managed to survive the demands of the learning and living environment, and to change and develop.

Religion

The boundary between culture and religion is very narrow and in most cases difficult to distinguish. What is the religious practice of a nation can affect the people's culture and vice versa. According to Cohen (2009), religion can legally be interchanged with culture or can be said to be a part of culture. In comparison between Asians and Westerners, Saroglou and Cohen (2013) pointed out that

Westerners are more positive and they are independent while the Asians are more dependent and relate to more another closely. In differentially religion from each other, the western religion (Ji et al., 2010) there is emphasis on unity and harmony between individuals while the Asian religion are less focused on religions activities and duties.

Tolerance

Charity, the proverb says, begins at home; likewise tolerance begins at home too. The level to which an individual can tolerate another will be directly related to how accommodating he is from his upbringing and genetic nature. When a student enters an environment that is totally new from where he is coming from, there exists a struggle within and without, trying to get a balance and fit in the new environment which of course again depends on individual personal ability to cope with change and adapt. Study abroad will of necessity increase the tolerance level of every individual though with a varying percentage according to personality .Students in learning environment have a lifetime experiences, impressions, and different perceptions of the host community and country at large. The perception of individuals depends on the student's exposure, culture, age and religion, which can change overtime. All humans possess an orientation towards the world study abroad experiences work with existing feelings, for better, or for worse. Family attitudes, demographic factors, global trends, and educational attainment shape personal values and outlook. The overall lesson being: Tolerance begins at home.

METHODOLOGY

This research's methodology is qualitative in its orientation, since qualitative methods permit immersing deeply into the understanding of a phenomenon. It combines case study and grounded theory. The case study is purposely used, because the study aims at exploring a "*contemporary phenomenon within its real life context...*" (Robson, 2002, p. 178). The research was carried out at Eastern Mediterranean University campus of Famagusta, North Cyprus. In line with this research framework, EMU reported among one of its primary objectives "*To develop cultural diversity*" and "*cultural competence*" (EMU, 2015) for its 120 countries-born 19,000 students (EMU, 2015). The particularity of EMU is that there are more enrolled foreign students than local ones, and the academic staff comprises about 60 different nationalities. Furthermore, the off-campus life does not show any sign of dominantly-driven Cypriot cultural influence, which could be explained by the

massive amount of foreign students' influence on the local community. Thus, the settings and context for this work provide the justification to proceed as a case study. Furthermore, the grounded theory is implemented as a second approach. As the researchers go beyond the simple observation of the multicultural exchange phenomenon, this approach is appropriate to use. The authors consider a theoretical framework (Kim, 2008) to convey the study and analyze the data. However, this research's objective differs from Kim's bi-dimensional culture context. We do consider the convergence of more than 2 cultural legacies. So the aim is to find if it possible or not to "*develop an inductively derived theory*" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 24) for the research context. For this reason, by going on the field to collect our data, the use of grounded theory is supported.

The time constraint faced during this research, coupled with the nature of the methodology undertaken, led the research team to use a purposive sampling technique to enroll participants, contacted face-to-face. Also, it was agreed to focus on a single nationality to get the sample. Hence the participants consisted of 20 Nigerian students registered across three program (Bachelor, Master and PhD), 7 males and 13 females, 7 Muslims and 13 Christians, aged between 19 and 33 years. Stay duration went from 3 months to nearly 6 years with most participants stay varying between 1 and 2 years.

During a one month period, data were collected using taped-recorded (upon the participant approval) semistructured interviews and then transcribed for coding. Interviewers' personal notes were also taken to support the primary method. A pilot study including 5 students was conducted and no changes were added to the initial questions. The advantage in this environment is that the main language used by students is English, which avoids losing response meanings in translation. Social desirability bias was controlled by informing the participants about their answers anonymity and confidentiality (Abubakar, Shneikat, & Oday, 2014). The real names were undisclosed; instead, the participants were denoted as from S1 to S20, accordingly with their order of interview. Initial ice-breaking questions were use prior to the main questions to capture and relax the atmosphere. So, questions about their hobbies or preferences back home came out to enhance their serenity. The sample size was stopped at 20 because of the respondents repetitive set of answers and attainment of the saturation point.

FINDINGS

Predeparture settings

Most of the participants heard about Cyprus for the first time through a friend or a family or relative's friend, school agents, local Nigerian newspaper's article:

"I have a friend... he told me there's a place called Cyprus and admission is easier than other places" (S4)

I met [him] through a friend of mine ... he introduced me to Mr. Mike (attributed name to the agent) that [he] is an agent" (S5)

".. I read it through the Nigerian newspapers and went to meet the agents at the venue in Abuja to discuss about the admission process" (S12).

The two exceptions to prior information about Cyprus was based on biblical or general knowledge

"I have heard about Cyprus in the Bible ... some disciples of Jesus-Christ came here to preach ... they passed through Cyprus ... that is the only thing I knew about Cyprus"" (S5)

"I read about the land, is on top of a sea, muslim country, very small island without export or import, in fact I even read about their crisis on the web" (S12).

The nearly general ignorance about Cyprus triggered the need for further information for few participants only: "When I was about to coming here then I went at my home to search about the place" (S2) and "When I was given admission then I was meant to search about it" (S1).

Consequently, this resulted to high cognitive (socioeconomic landscape) and affective (level of security and discrimination) expectations about the island and the school for most of them, or to no expectation at all:

"... I thought it was a country on its own, that is was not an island. So I was happy. Actually I have even thought this was the center of Europe. Europe is very organized and developed" (S14)

"I was asking about normal things... electricity, normal amenities. That is the only thing I was caring about. I don't care whether they speak English or not. Once the school I'm going they speak English, then I'm ok [...] besides, you cannot go to somewhere worse than where you come from. " (S11)

"..she told me Cyprus was not good, don't expect high. It's not as beautiful as Nigeria at all!!!" (S16).

Firsthand experience and status of expectations

Arrival and first months in Cyprus feelings were disappointment, frustration and homesickness essentially caused by inaccessibility of information, communication issues, perceived discrimination and racism.

“ ..the only thing they didn’t tell me was about the fees, that we would be paying every semester. She told me whatever you pay for that semester it will be for the whole year” (S20)

“ ..when I got to the airport that was when I started going crazy... I thought Nigeria has the worst everything ... My parent think everything is perfect here, that we have trains, snow, everything ...

NO, my God!!!” (S13)

“..you can’t even tell them back home that you have mosquitoes ... and some places just look like my village” (S16)

“I was really frustrated that day ... I couldn’t even do my registration like I wanted ... I just went back in my hostel” (S9)

“My first experience was horrible. I was going to my class the first day and I did not know the way ...

I continued to rum round the school until the lecture was over” (S1)

“ ..during the city tour organized by the school, they show us the central mosque, talk about the small one on the campus and the other big one they are building. They don’t mention something like churches, as if we were all Muslim. It is so sad!” (S19)

“.. the pay is not worth the effort the person is putting into it” (S14)

The nature of the encounters with foreign students experienced by participants was mixed. Some did experience positive meeting while other went through hard time:

“... everybody I have met so far have been quite nice ... they made me feel comfortable” (S10)

“... they lodged us in a room with one guy ... he is even the one who introduced himself... he was actually friendly ... it as nice meeting him ” (S7)

“She acted with some force, Terrible! She said because of her first encounter with a lady in the hostel who refused her from passing the night in their room and she said the girl was from an African country, so she refused me to pass the night in that room ” (S8)

“... his was carrying a knife ... so immediately I shut up and I ran away from that place. I don’t want to be a victim of circumstances” (S15)

Friendship, cultural and religious exchange

The respondents admitted to have made some foreign friends. Few agreed on the sensitivity related to some other foreign students’ origins characteristics, all the rest were either balanced or optimistic.

“NO, most of them are hostile especially when they are angry, making friends with them can be dangerous, we only greet hello” (S13)

“Some of them are actually very dangerous and some of them are very friendly” (S5)

“All of them are friendly but when they get annoyed they become something else ” (S4)

“The one I am very closed to is from Libya, he is very nice... .almost 99% of them are humble ” (S11)

When questioned about cultural exchange among students and off-campus, most reactions were positive and optimistic as declared by:

“The university is saturated with culture, people speak different languages ... everywhere you go ... the first day I tasted Iran food, it was so delicious, I also try to learn their dance...I can boldly say there is cultural exchange among student” (S9)

“I don’t think I can eat Nigerian food in a Nigerian way, because am in love with the Turkish people eat their food with a lot of vegetables ... cultural exchange has happened to me” (S18)

“Most students have friends from different countries. From there they learn different languages even if they can’t really speak much ... from there they abide to some aspects of their culture, the ways of greeting, the morals... ” (S12)

The back side of the medal was about the perceived racism suffered, both off-campus: “... *most of these Turkish people they don’t want to even move close to any Black at all... they don’t like Blacks*” (S3) and on-campus either with student “... *there is this Turkish girl with racist behavior in my dormitory...* ” (S2) or with academic staff: “... even among teachers ... because of [him] I disliked the course.” (S11).

Relative understanding and tolerance

Despite the negative aspects of their life in Cyprus pointed out by the students, they did show some sign of maturity and sense of philosophical analysis toward the situation they faced. This was driven

by attempting to understand others' behavior based on their culture and tradition, laws and interdictions, and their home country's sociopolitical settings:

"I think the reason for this their humility is because of the things happening in their country ... their country is under chaos... " (S4)

"I think what happens to them is some of them have never tasted freedom before. So most time when they come from home... they tend to misbehave" (S7)

Ultimately, they expressed a pragmatic cohabitation orientation with the other cultures and religions even when highlighting some weird behaviors. The intercultural maturity they acquired for the very first time in their life significantly enhanced their sense of tolerance vis-a-vis others:

"... it is just about the communication between us... everybody knows the truth but sometimes we just try to ignore it, to break it aside... " (S9)

"it's all about choice. you can't force someone who has been used to wearing something before for years and thinking it is right to suddenly start covering" (S7)

"Two of my friends believe in Buddhism... they are from Nepal. It is so nice to be with them when you learn all these things their religion teaches. This is actually the real purpose of religion in my opinion, to bring out values of humanity" (S12)

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In this research, students expressed their view and their encounter with the different students from different nationalities. The results showed that students' exposure to a multicultural environment shape their cultural and religious tolerance. This tolerance is a sequentially structured process, which starts with the incumbents' firsthand immersion and multicultural exchange with other foreign students into the new environment, and then internalized understanding and appreciation of differences and similarities after a relative acclimatization period. The main drivers for this are a more opened-minded and global oriented generation, the curiosity to learn and know about

others culture. Most of their answers could be explained by their personality trait, family background and exposure to other culture before coming to the island. Most of the students, especially the ones that had been on the island for long, experienced some level of racism from classmates, other students and people off-campus. But with time it started to fade away. Secondly, the students from other country were seen as hostile but with time, the notion try to reduce while the relationship begins to

build up. Time plays an important factor in intercultural exchange among the students. Intercultural exchange helps the students not only acquire the education but develop themselves with other people's cultures and tradition. Most of them became familiar with other and it reduced some level of discrimination among the students.

The results of this paper draw significant implications for educational tourism actors, planners and policy makers, should they keep expecting heightened international students arrivals and the spillover effect on their country economy. First, higher education institutions administrators should address the issues of international students' cultural clash and adjustment, as it is de facto a salient aspect of their academic success and foreign experience growth. Advocating their multicultural orientation should not be limited to boasting the statistics on their international students and organizing some festive campus events, but also some more integrative intellectual activities and brainstorming to stimulate students' awareness; schools officials may put efforts in getting more involved in physically assisting new students in their first semester concerning especially registrations and getting their benchmarks in the campus. A multi-culturally unadjusted student is a potential drop out candidate. Another point is that succeeding in fuelling effective multi-cultural exchange and tolerance among international students is an investment with a future value consisting of culturally educated and competent future generation. Third, policy makers and tourism planners may also consider that foreign students' multicultural exchange and subsequent tolerance is moderated by their level of satisfaction with the society where they live. If they perceive being discriminated or marginalized by the host community members, it will likely heightened the perceived prejudice on them and dampen their resilience in adjusting to the multicultural exposure. Thus these professionals should for instance, implement, monitor and follow up international students-friendly policies and strategies that reduce the opportunism of local economic actors in taking advantage of students. Fourth, the need for educational tourism actors and to an extent host communities, to integrate foreign students' multicultural exchange/experience is critical in view of the world current sociopolitical unrest. The daily news on conflicts and increasing nationalist diatribes which promote political instability, affect [edu]tourists intentions and thus dampen the whole tourism industry (Ivanov et al., 2017). However, Farmaki (2017) suggested that tourism has an underlying potential to transmute the socio-politico-economic setting through a tourism-peace nexus. Subsequently, these actors can adopt a proactive stance in this regard by moving forth in making multicultural learning environment a spearhead for global tolerance education, with international students and educational tourism as ambassadors.

A major set of limitations in this work is the time constraint that also led to the small number of interviews (20), the choice of only one nationality for the participants, and the selection of EMU students although the island comprises few other universities. Thus, the generalizability of the present results in considering multicultural exchange must be taken with cautious. Another limitation is matching the time of the students to be interviewed and the venue for the interview. Most of the students had a very tight schedule coupled with the approaching examination period, which was a negative time anchor reminder to them when they felt the interview was extending and were showing some signs of lassitude and tiredness. This might have inhibited potential extra information the reseachers could have gotten. This study did not explore the relationship between the students and language, a further study should consider and exploit this in a further studies. Secondly, this study can be done using quantitative approach to determine the correlation among variables in the study in order to generalize the findings. Furthermore, a study should be conducted in the same school using people from different nationals as the study only considered one country against the others. Furthermore, another study should consider individual intrinsic factors such as the personality, personal history of the students, or their temperament in a further study when drawing the conclusion.

REFERENCES

- Abubakar, A. M., Shneikat, B. H. T., & Oday, A. (2014). Motivational factors for educational tourism: A case study in Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 11, 58-62.
- Berger, P. L. and Luckmann, T. (1966). *The Social Construction of Reality*. Harmonds-worth: Penguin.
- Bevis, TB (2002). At a glance: International students in the United States. *International Educator*, 11(3), 12-17.
- Burkhardt, J., & Bennett, E. E. (2015). Shaping the future of a globalized world: A qualitative study of how undergraduate international students' everyday cross-cultural experiences were impacted by university diversity initiatives. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 39(3), 162-181.
- Byram, M., Nichols, A., and Stevens, D. (2001). Introduction. In M. Byram, (Ed.) *Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Limited.
- Cohen, A. B. (2009). Many forms of culture. *American Psychologist*, 64(3), 194-204.
- de Wit, H. (2008). Changing trends in the internationalisation of higher education. *Centre for the Study in Higher Education, University of Melbourne*.
- EMU. (2015). *Mission and Vision: The objectives and Principles*. Retrieved May 5, 2015, from Eastern Mediterranean University website: <http://ww1.emu.edu.tr/en/about-emu/mission-and-vision7c/594>
- EMU. (2015). *Why EMU?* Retrieved May 5, 2015, from Eastern Mediterranean University website: <http://ww1.emu.edu.tr/en/about-emu/why-emu/c/699>
- Gu, Q. & Schweisfurth, M. (2006). "Who adapts? Beyond cultural models of 'the' Chinese learner."

Language, Culture and Curriculum, 19/1 (pp. tba).

- Halualani, R. T., Chitgopekar, A., Morrison, J. H. T. A., & Dodge, P. S. W. (2004). Who's interacting? And what are they talking about?—intercultural contact and interaction among multicultural university students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 28(5), 353-372.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 15-41.
- Institute of International Education. (2016). "International Student Totals by Place of Origin, 2014/15- 2015/16." Open Doors Report on International Educational Exchange. Retrieved from <http://www.iie.org/opensdoors>
- Ivanov, S., Gavrilina, M., Webster, C., & Ralko, V. (2017). Impacts of political instability on the tourism industry in Ukraine. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 9(1), 100-127.
- Jackman, M. R., & Crane, M. (1986). "Some of my best friends are black.": Interracial Friendship and Whites' Racial Attitudes. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 50(4), 459-486.
- Ji, L. J., Lee, A., and Guo, T. (2010). The thinking styles of Chinese people. *The Handbook of Chinese Psychology*, pp. 155-167.
- Kim, M. S. (2005) Culture-based conversational constraints theory: individual and cultural-level analyses. In W. B. Gudykunst, (Ed.) *Theorizing about Intercultural Communication* (pp.93-118). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kim, Y. (2008). Intercultural personhood: Globalization and a way of being. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32, 359-368.
- Knight, J. (1999). Internationalization of Higher Education. In *Quality and Internationalization in Higher Education*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. IMHE Publication.
- Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodelled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 8(1), 5-31.
- Leung, C., Pe-Puab, R., and Karnilowicz, W. (2006). Psychological adaptation and autonomy among adolescents in Australia: A comparison of Anglo-Celtic and three Asian groups. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30 (1), 99- 118.
- Li, A. and Gasser, M. (2005). Predicting Asian international students' sociocultural adjustment: a test of two mediation models. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29: 561-576.
- Lou, K., Andresen, C., & Myers, C. (2011). Small private liberal arts colleges: Supporting international students. In Poster presented at the NAFSA 2011 conference Vancouver, Canada.
- Mori, S. (2000). Addressing the mental health concerns of international students. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 78 (2), 137-144.
- OECD (2007). Globalisation and Higher Education. *Paris: OECD*.
- OECD (2008). Policy brief: Cross-border higher education and development. *Paris: OECD*.
- Paulston, C. B. (1992). Biculturalism: some reflections and speculations. In C. B. Paulston, (ed.) *Sociolinguistic Perspectives on Bilingual Education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real world research* (Vol. 2). Oxford: Blackwell publishers.

- Sanderson, G. (2008). A foundation for the internationalisation of the academic self. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 12 (3), 276-307.
- Saroglou, V., and Cohen, A. B. (2013). Cultural and cross-cultural psychology of religion. In R. F. Paloutzian and C. L. Park (Eds.), *Handbook of the psychology of religion and spirituality* (2nd ed., pp. 330-354). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Sato, T., & Hodge, S. R. (2009). Asian international doctoral students' experiences at two American universities: Assimilation, accommodation, and resistance. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, 2(3), 136.
- Searle, W. and Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and socio-cultural adjustment during cross-cultural transition. *International journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 449-464.
- Seddoh, F. K. (2001). Internationalisation of Higher Education: What for, how and at what cost? *International Association of Universities Newsletter*, 7 (3), 1, 3.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques. *Sage Publications, Inc.*
- Sutton, R., & Rubin, D. (2010). Documenting the academic impact of study abroad: Final report of the Glossary project. In Paper presented at the 2010 NAFSA conference Kansas City, MI, USA.
- Thorbecke, E. (2000). The evolution of the development doctrine and the role of foreign aid, 1950-2000. *Foreign aid and development*. Routledge.
- Tian, M., & Lowe, J. A. (2014). Intercultural identity and intercultural experiences of American students in China. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(3), 281-297.
- Vande Berg, M. (2007). Intervening in the learning of U.S. students abroad. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 11(3-4), 392-399.
- Vande Berg, M., & Paige, R. M. (2009). Applying theory and research: The evolution of intercultural competence in U.S study abroad. In K. Deardorff (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of intercultural competence* (pp. 419-437). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ward, C. and Kennedy, A. (1993). Where's the "culture" in cross-cultural transition: comparative studies of sojourner adjustment. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24 (2), 221-249.
- Ward, C. and Kennedy, A. (1999). The measurement of sociocultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 23 (4), 659-677.

MEASURING CUSTOMER-BASED BRAND EQUITY FOR BURSA: A CITY OF HISTORY AND CULTURE

Çağatan Taşkın, Uludağ University Bursa, Turkey

Erdoğan Koç, Bandırma 17 Eylül University, Bandırma, Turkey

Hakan Boz, Uşak University, Uşak, Turkey

Ahmet Akif Karadamar, Uludağ University Bursa, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Customer-based brand equity is considered to be as one of the most influential factors on customer equity, differentiating a brand from other brands in the same category, the assessment of a brand's performance and establishing competitive advantage. The frameworks developed by Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993) are the two pioneering models which conceptualized customer-based brand equity. Aaker considers customer-based brand equity as a group of assets (or liabilities) associated with the name of a brand and its symbol that increase or decrease the value provided by a product or service to its potential customers. Keller (1993) describes customer-based brand equity as “the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand”. As a brand's equity is positively associated with brand success and customer equity, researchers have shown a significant amount of interest in the concept of customer-based brand equity. On the other hand, from a practical point of view customer-based brand equity is also crucial for the management of destinations in terms of differentiating one destination from the others. However, studies on the application of customer-based brand equity models to destinations appear to be somewhat limited in the literature.

This study aims to investigate the relationships among the dimensions of customer-based brand equity for a destination called Bursa in Turkey, a town famous for its historical and cultural features. Bursa has great tourism potential especially for historical and cultural tourism. In spite of these strengths, Bursa has a relatively limited market share both in terms of domestic and international tourists. By measuring customer-based brand equity of Bursa, this study intends to address this dilemma and helps destination managers make better and more effective decisions.

In order to test the relationships among the dimensions of destination brand awareness, destination brand image, destination brand quality, destination brand value and destination brand loyalty structural equation modeling was used.

Multiple items were used to measure each dimension of destination brand awareness, destination brand quality, destination brand image, destination brand value and destination brand loyalty. The research sample consists of domestic tourists living in 12 different provinces, in Turkey. Data were collected from domestic tourists who have visited Bursa at least once in their lifetimes.

The modeling results indicate that both destination brand awareness and destination brand image influence a destination's perceived value positively. In turn, a destination's perceived value influences its brand loyalty. The findings also indicate that a destination's brand quality influences that destination's brand image. The results have implications for decision-makers in tourism both at micro- and macro-levels, in terms of effective decision-making and resource allocation.

Key Words: Customer-based brand equity, destination branding, structural equation modeling, Bursa, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of customer-based brand has relevance both from academic and practical perspectives. The customer-based brand equity enables a business to develop competitive advantage and helps establish barriers of entry for potential competitors (Gomez et al., 2016). The two early frameworks developed by Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993) are the two pioneering models which conceptualized customer-based brand equity first. Aaker defines customer-based brand equity as a group of assets (or liabilities) associated with the name of a brand and its symbol that increase or decrease the value provided by a product or service to its potential customers. Keller (1993) explains customer-based brand equity as “the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand”.

As destination branding is an important field of research within tourism and hospitality, it has attracted the attention of several scholars to study this specific field from a wide variety of perspectives (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Gnoth, 2007; Stepchenkova & Li, 2014; Taskin, Koc, & Boz, 2016). Customer-based brand equity is also an important concept from the perspective of destination branding and it has been successfully applied to destination branding in several studies. The studies of Boo et al. (2009), Konecnik and Gartner (2007), Pike and Bianchi (2016) and Herrero et al. (2016) are a few of the examples of studies applied the concept of customer-based brand equity to destination branding (Kladou et al., 2016). Measuring customer-based brand equity enables the assessment of performance of a particular destination over a period of time and the determination of potential benefits which may accrue based on the success of that particular destination (Wong & Teoh, 2015).

The study aims to investigate the relationships among the dimensions of customer-based brand equity for a destination called Bursa, in Turkey, a destination town famous for its history and culture. Bursa has a significant tourism potential especially for historical and cultural tourism segments. In spite of these strengths, Bursa has a relatively limited market share both in terms of domestic and international visitors. By measuring customer-based brand equity of Bursa, this study intends to assess the actual potential of Bursa as a destination and draw conclusions which may be relevant and useful for practitioners.

METHODOLOGY

The research sample consists of domestic tourists living in 12 different provinces, in Turkey. Data were collected from domestic tourists who have visited Bursa at least once in their lifetimes. Data were collected in the months of June, July and August of 2016. A total of 265 questionnaires were collected. Based on the initial screening of the collected questionnaires 36 of them were excluded as they were incomplete. IBM SPSS 21.0 and Lisrel 8.71 programs were used for the analysis of data. The reliability and validity of the scales used in the research have been proven by several research studies. However, as the survey was applied on a different sample, a pilot study was administered to retest the reliability and validity of the scale.

Profile of Respondents

The profile of the respondents are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Profile of Respondents

Age	Frequency	%	Education	Frequency	%
20-29	54	23.6%	Primary School	58	25.3%
30-39	78	34.1%	High School	56	24.5%
40-49	62	27.1%	College Graduate	64	27.9%
50-59	35	15.2%	Postgraduate	51	22.3%
Total	229	100.0%	Total	229	100.0%
Sex	Frequency	%	Income	Frequency	%
Male	98	42.8%	<=1300 TL	7	3.1%

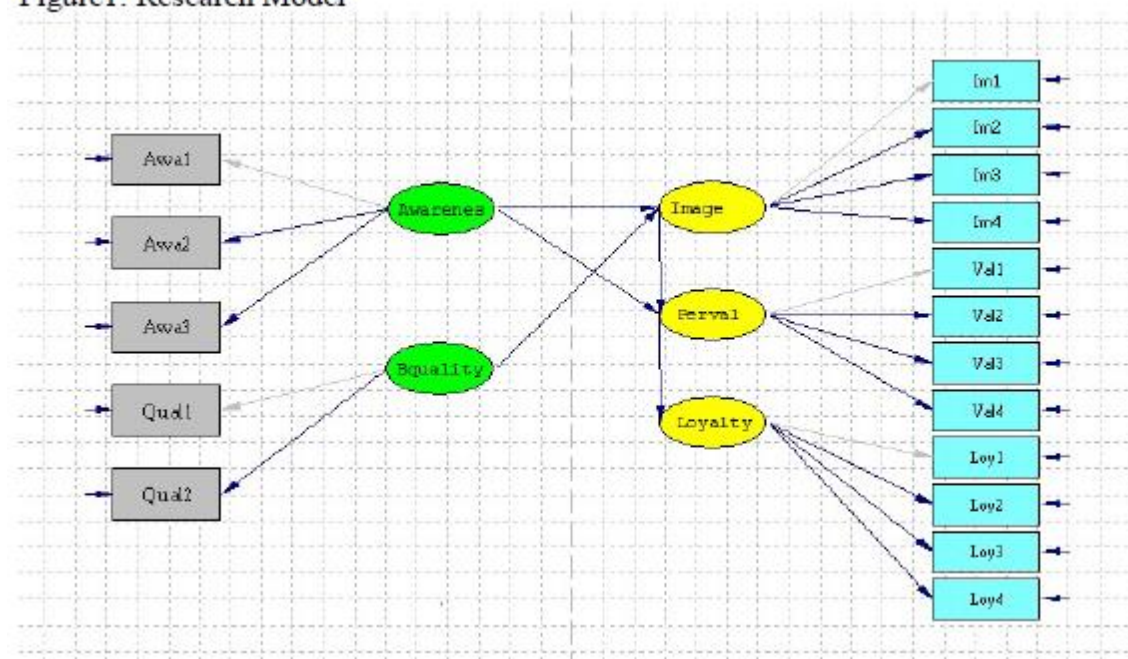
Female	131	57.2%	1301-2500 TL	72	31.4%
--------	-----	-------	--------------	----	-------

Total	229	100.0%	2501-3500 TL	64	27.9%
			3501-5000 TL	56	24.5%
Marital Status	Frequency	%	>5000 TL	30	13.1%
Married	162	70.7%	Total	229	100.0%
Single	67	29.3%			
Total	229	100.0%			

Research Model and Hypotheses

The model is shown in Figure 1. The variables included in the research model are; destination brand quality, destination brand awareness, destination brand image, destination brand loyalty and destination perceived value.

Figure1: Research Model



As seen from Figure 1, research hypotheses are:

H1: “Destination brand awareness” influences “destination brand image” positively.

H2: “Destination brand awareness” influences “destination perceived value” positively.

H3: “Destination brand quality” influences “destination brand image” positively.

H4: “Destination brand image” influences “destination perceived value” positively.

H₅: “Destination perceived value” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively.

The Scale Used in the Study and Reliability Analysis

A comprehensive review of the literature was conducted to test the “customer-based brand equity” model proposed for Bursa as a tourist destination and a final scale was developed (Arnett et al., 2003; Boo et al. 2009; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Pappu & Quester, 2006). Reliability analysis was applied on the collected data. The Cronbach Alpha values obtained as a result of the reliability analysis are shown below.

Table 2: Reliability Analysis Results

Dimensions	Cronbach Alpha
Destination Brand Awareness	0.70
Destination Brand Quality	0.92
Destination Brand Image	0.84
Destination Perceived Value	0.85
Destination Brand Loyalty	0.91

Testing the Research Model by Using Structural Equation Modeling

The results of the structural model are provided below. The reliability of the structural model can be assessed by using a number of statistics. In general, these statistics are termed as goodness of fit statistics. Table 3 lists the some of the frequently used goodness of fit statistics values.

Table 3: Goodness of Fit Statistics

Goodness of Fit Statistics	Value
Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom	1.63
GFI	0.87
AGFI	0.83
CFI	0.98
RMSEA	0.06
NFI	0.95
RMR	0.04
Standardized RMR	0.06

The GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI and IFI are widely used statistical tests and they provide evidence for

goodness of fit and hypothesized model. The goodness of fit statistics shows that the structural model fit the data set. The RMSEA, RMR and SRMR values also show a good fit.

Figure 2 depicts the structural model with the standardized path coefficients. The modeling results indicate that both destination brand awareness and destination brand image influence a destination's perceived value positively. In turn, a destination's perceived value influences its brand loyalty. The findings also indicate that both destination brand awareness and destination brand quality influence that destination's brand image.

Figure 2. Structural Model and Standardized Path Coefficients

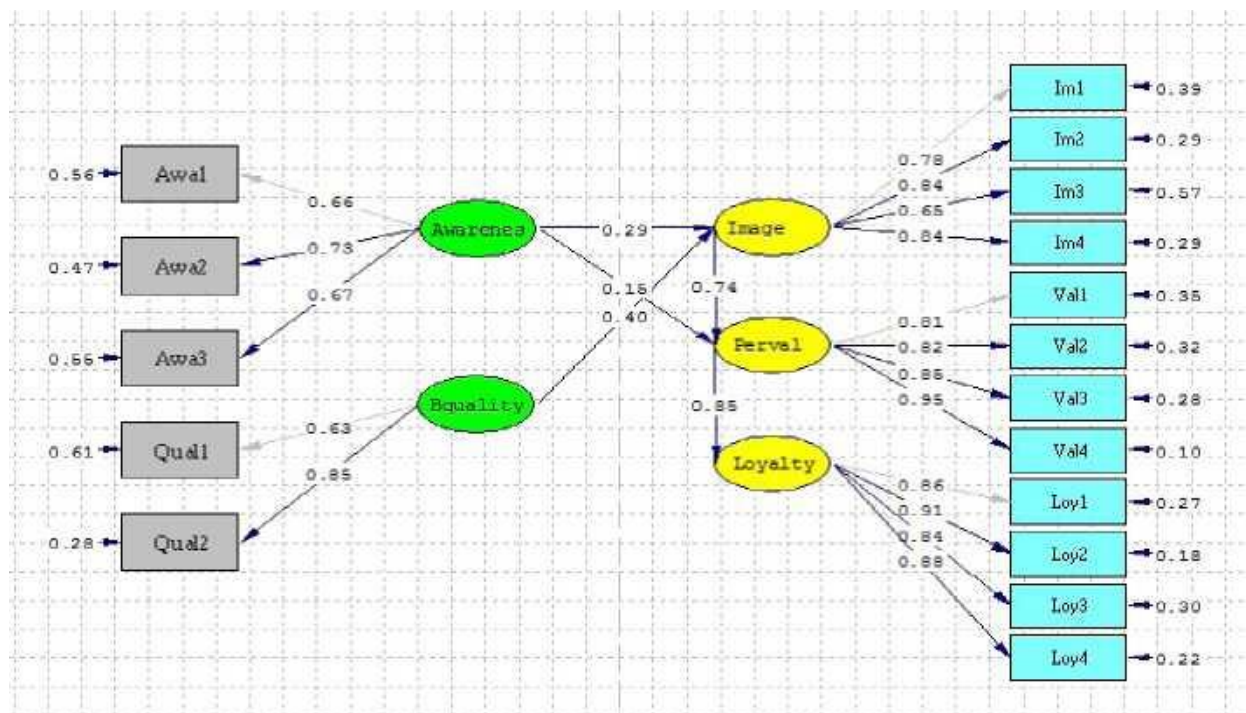


Table 4: Results of Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

Paths	Hypothesis	Path	T Values	Result
Brand Awareness - Brand Image	H1	0.29	2.62	Accepted
Brand Awareness - Perceived Value	H2	0.15	1.98	Accepted
Brand Quality - Brand Image	H3	0.40	3.57	Accepted
Brand Image - Perceived Value	H4	0.74	7.75	Accepted
Perceived Value - Brand Loyalty	H5	0.85	10.28	Accepted

The path coefficients between “brand awareness” and “brand image”, “brand awareness and perceived value”, “brand quality and brand image”, “brand image” and perceived value” and “perceived value and brand loyalty” are 0.29, 0.15, 0.40, 0.74 and 0.85 respectively.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study helps draw relevant and useful implications for both academics and practitioners in tourism and hospitality. It is important for destination managers, local authorities and other practitioners to investigate the relationships among the dimensions of customer-based brand equity. Thus, destination managers may develop strategies which would allow them to evaluate their position in the market in relation to its direct and indirect competitors. Additionally, the above practitioners may also use the findings to establish competitive advantage by reassessing and redesigning their value offerings.

Findings showed that a destination's brand image and its perceived value can be considered as two important dimensions of a destination's customer-based brand equity. Besides, a destination's brand awareness and brand quality proved to be the antecedents of a destination's brand image and perceived value. The findings in the proposed model indicated that perceived value of a destination was an important factor in determining destination loyalty. This finding supports the findings of Boo et al. (2009). Additionally, the brand image of a destination was found to have a positive influence on the perceived value of the destination. This finding is also in line with the findings of the studies of Boo et al. (2009). Moreover, the findings relating to the importance of brand image draw parallels with the study of Konecnik and Gartner (2007).

According to the results of the structural model, there were different influences among the dimensions of customer-based brand equity for the town of Bursa. The insight gained based on the findings of the study are believed to enable allow above mentioned practitioners to make effective decisions and develop strategies in terms of segmenting, targeting and positioning.

The results are also believed to provide the practitioners with the necessary background so as to be able to align marketing communications strategies and campaigns with the requirements of the target market.

Destination managers of Bursa are recommended to position Bursa as a historical and cultural destination and resort to emotional campaigns to develop positive attitudes towards Bursa.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building strong brands*, New York: Free Press.
- Arnett, D. B., Laverie, D. A., & Meiers, A. (2003). Developing parsimonious retailer equity indexes using partial least squares analysis: a method and applications. *Journal of Retailing*, 79(3), 161-170.
- Boo, S., Busser, J., & Baloglu, S. (2009). A model of customer-based brand equity and its application to multiple destinations. *Tourism Management*, 30(2), 219-231.

- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2–12.
- Gnoth, J. (2007). The structure of destination brands: leveraging values. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(5-1), 345-358.
- Gomez, M., Fernandez, A. C., Molina, A., & Aranda, E. (2016). City branding in European capitals: An analysis from the visitor perspective. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*.
- Herrero, A., San Martin, H., & Collado, J. (2016). Examining the hierarchy of destination brands and the chain of effects between brand equity dimensions. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*.
- KELLER KL, C. Measuring and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1 -22.
- Kladou, S., Kavaratzis, M., Rigopoulou, I., & Salonika, E. (2016). The role of brand elements in destination branding. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*.
- Konecnik, M., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Customer-based brand equity for a destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 400-421.
- Pappu, R., & Quester, P. (2006). A consumer-based method for retailer equity measurement: Results of an empirical study. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 13(5), 317-329.
- Pike, S., & Bianchi, C. (2016). Destination brand equity for Australia: testing a model of CBBE in short-haul and long-haul markets. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 40(1), 114-134.
- Stepchenkova, S., & Li, X. R. (2014). Destination image: Do top-of-mind associations say it all?. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 45, 46-62.
- Sweeney, J.C. & Soutar, G. N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: the development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing*, 77(2), 203-220.
- Taskin, C., Koc, E. & Boz, E. (2016). An EEG and eye tracker analysis of the influence of risk on the perceptual image of conflict-ridden destinations. *International Congress of Management, Economy and Policy (ICOMEPE)*, Istanbul, 26-27 November 2016.
- Wong, P. P., & Teoh, K. (2015). The influence of destination competitiveness on customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 4(4), 206-212.
- Yoo, B., & Donthu, N. (2001). Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Business Res*

CRUISING MOTIVATION OF CRUISE PASSENGERS VISITED ISTANBUL

Serhat HARMAN

Batman University, Batman, Turkey

Ozan KAYA

Mugla Sitki Kogman University, Mugla, Turkey

Erol Duran

Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Canakkale, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Cruise tourism is an important segment in the world tourism market. Tourist motivation is one of the most studied topics in the tourist behaviour field. In this paper, cruising motivations of cruise passengers visited port of Karakoy, Istanbul were examined. The findings of the research indicate that main cruising motivations are; social recognition/self-esteem, escape, learning, novelty, socialization and cultural entertainment. Significant differences in cruising motivation were also detected according to demographics and trip related characteristics of the respondents. The paper ends with some suggestions for cruise businesses and future researchers.

Key Words: Cruise Tourism, Cruising Motivations, Istanbul.

INTRODUCTION

Cruise tourism is one of the fast growing segments in the world tourism market (Dwyer and Forsyth 1998). The number of cruise travellers was around 7,5 million people in 2000 (Elliot & Choi, 2011: 41). This number reached to 23,2 Million by 2015 (cruising.org, 2016). These numbers indicate that the market has been grown nearly 300 per cent between 2000 and 2015. So that Cruise passengers are an important segment in tourism market.

In order to understand consumer behaviour more deeply, the reasons which directs a consumer to purchase a particular product or service should be examined. Cakici (1999) states that motivation is one of the major forces underlying consumer behaviour. Thus, it can be said that the more we understand motivation; the more we understand consumer's buying process.

Understanding the reasons directing a traveller to have cruise travel experience is very important with regard to predicting the future of the cruise market. Defining the reasons that directing a traveller to have a particular travel experience bring a number of advantages both for tourism business operating in this market and public authorities which are responsible to develop tourism policies and marketing

plans for cruise market. Cakici (2000) points out that travellers with motivations look for different attributes from tourism businesses and their expectancies differ greatly as well. Knowing travel motivations also helps tourism business owners and cruise managers to identify which cruise attributes should be featured in promotional campaigns (Kozak, 2002).

In this paper, cruising motivation of cruise travellers was examined by a survey conducted at the port of Karakoy, Istanbul, between the dates between 1st of July and 31st of August 2014. 396 usable questionnaires were obtained. The findings indicate that cruising motivations of cruise travellers participated to the survey can be examined under six headings as; social recognition and self-esteem, escape, learning, socialization, novelty and cultural entertainment. And it was also found that importance of cruising motivations differs significantly according to the demographics and trip related characteristics of the respondents.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In consumer behaviour discipline, the main focus of researchers is “why do the consumers buy a specific good or service?”. The answer is related to the term “consumer motivation”. Motivation is defined as “internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals” (Hung & Petrick ,2011,p. 386). In terms of travel and tourism, motivation is a very important factor in explaining tourist behaviour, and it is not possible to define it with a question of “Why do people travel”. Travel motivation is a deep and complex term referring “Why do certain groups of travellers seek particular holiday experiences? And Why do certain groups of travellers travel to destination X?” (Goldner & Ricthie 2012, p. 207).

Tourist/travel motivation is a widely studied topic in tourism and hospitality marketing and especially in consumer behaviour in tourism (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2014; Gilbert, 1991; Oh, Kim & Shin, 2004; Line & Ruyan 2012). Being a widely studied topic in tourist behaviour literature has brought a number models or frameworks developed for understanding tourist motivation paradigm. Crompton’s (1979) push-pull framework is one of the most cited models which developed to explain tourist motivation. In Crompton’s framework, there are two groups of variables directing a person to travel and selecting a specific destination. Push motives direct a person away from home as it refers to the general desire to somewhere else (Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Kozak 2002). Push motives are related to the internal psychological forces. Push motives can be accepted as; desire for escaping, resting and relaxation, gaining prestige, health and fitness, adventure and social interaction, family togetherness, and excitement (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). On the other hand, pull motives are referring to external forces directing a person to travel a specific destination (Bansal & Eiselt 2004). Pull motives are destination related attributes directing people to choose destination for vacation such as climate, attractions,

events, and so on.

Iso-Ahola's (1982) model is another model that tried to explain why people travel. According to Iso-Ahola (1982), individuals see tourism activity as a satisfaction-producer. Tourism activity can provide intrinsic rewards and opportunity to escape from routine daily environment (Yoon & Uysal 2005). Pearce (1988, 1991, 1993), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), and Moscardo and Pearce (1986) also developed another model to examine tourist motivation. Pearce's model is called as "Travel Career Ladder" (TCL), this model is based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. According to this TCL, tourist motivation consists of five different levels: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self-actualization/ fulfilment needs. Following Maslow's Hierarchy, the needs of travellers were seen as an organized hierarchy or ladder with the relaxation needs being at the lowest level, followed by safety/security needs, relationships need, self-esteem and development needs, and finally, at the highest level, fulfilment needs (Pearce and Lee 2005).

World tourism market is not homogeneous, tourists come from different age groups, social groups and different cultural backgrounds and have different preferences. And there is no a single type touristic activity. Thus, it is normal that tourist motivations can differ according to the different forms of touristic activities. For example, motivations for backpacking tourism can differ from motivations for senior tourism. And rural tourism motivations can differ from marine tourism motivations. Increasing importance of cruise tourism has brought an increasing interest to the cruise tourists and in return, a number of researchers have focused on the area. And the studies dealing with cruising motivation and experience continue to rise as well.

Teye and Leclerc (1998) analysed product and service delivery satisfaction among North American cruise passengers. Their findings indicated that meeting or exceeding passenger expectations are key factors creating product or service delivery satisfaction in cruise tourism market. On the other hand, Duman and Mattila (2005) tried to find out the role of effective factors in perceived cruise vacation value. They found that effective factors are the important determinants of perceived cruise vacation value. Xie, Kerstetter and Mattila's (2012) work focused on impact of cruise ship attributes on decision making of cruisers and potential cruisers. According to their findings; entertainment attributes, recreation and sport attributes, supplementary attributes, core attributes, fitness and health attributes, children attributes and crew attributes affect the decision making process of cruisers and potential cruisers. Baker (2014) tried to explore experience creators of cruisers visiting Western Caribbean's. He found that environmental factors are main experience creators in cruise tourism market. Brida, Scuderi and Seijas (2014) segmented cruise passengers of Uruguay depending on their

demographics and cruise experience perceptions. Their analysis yielded six segments as loyal neighbours-care of transportation, first timers-care of tourism related aspects, social tourists, tourists from industrialized countries, loyal young visitors and middle aged tourists.

Qu and Ping (1999) conducted a study on Hong Kong cruise travellers. They focused on the impact of cruising motivation and satisfaction level on intention to take cruise vacation again. In Qu and Ping's (1999) study, the main cruising motivations were; escape from normal life, social gathering, environment and scenery, cultural understanding, social status, business purpose, health and exercise and self-discovery. In Jones's (2011) study, cruising motivations of North American cruise passengers were examined. Jones found that the main cruising motivations of North American cruisers were; relaxing physically, relaxing mentally, avoiding hustle and bustle of daily life, being in a calm atmosphere, discovering new places and people, using the imagination, using physical abilities, gaining feeling of belonging, being with others, building new friendships, having good times with friends and develop close friendships. Elliot and Choi (2011) also tried to find out cruising motivations. According to Elliot and Choi's (2011) study, the main cruising motivations are; learning, relaxation, self-esteem and family/social bonding. Yingzhi, Tian, Jianfeng and Kun (2014) study was also about cruising motivations. Yingzhi et. al's (2014) study examined cruising motivations as social recognition, family bonding, socialization and relaxation.

Hund and Petrick (2011) tried to developed a cruising motivation scale. Their cruising motivation scale consists of self-esteem and social recognition, escape and relaxation, learning, discovery, novelty/thrill, socialization and bonding dimensions. Fan, Qui, Hsu and Lui (2015) analysed motivations and cruising intentions of potential cruisers from different demographic groups. In their study, motivational factors were relaxation and family, discovery, enjoyment, wellness and socialization and social/esteem need. Fan and Hsu's (2014) examined cruising motivations within push and pull framework. Chen, Neuts, Nijkamp and Lui (2016) examined cruising motivations under four headings as self-esteem, escape, learning and bonding.

In Fan and Hsu's (2014) study, push motivation of cruising were included as reducing stress, getting moral enlightenment, having family gathering, accompanying family members. Pull motivations were included as enjoying, visiting friends and relatives in the destination, having through shows in the cruise, looking for excitement, enjoying SPA, building networks and enjoying luxury cruise attributes. Josiam, Huans, Bahulkar, Spears and Kennon (2012) explored cruising motivations in a similar way. Their push motives consisted of discovery, enjoyment, social-esteem need, escape and family time. Pull motivations consisted of always wanting to take a cruise vacation, enjoying environment, all-inclusiveness of tour, enjoying high quality services. They also included another

motivational group as “influence motivators” including media and people influences.

Existing literature proves that cruising motivations are in diverse and complex nature. But it is possible to say that escape, social recognition and self-esteem, socialization, learning, relaxing and discovering new cultures are the main cruising motivations.

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this paper is to determine which cruising motivations motivate passengers to take cruise travel visiting Istanbul and to determine whether the importance level of cruising motivations differ significantly according to demographics and trip related characteristics of cruise passengers. For this purpose, a survey was conducted on cruise passengers visiting the port of Karakoy, Istanbul between the dates 1st of July and 31st of August 2014. It was reported that in 2014, 317 cruise ships and 518.935 cruise passengers visited the port of Karakoy, Istanbul (udhb.gov.tr, 2017). At the end of the data collection process, 396 cruise passengers participated in the survey.

The data was collected by a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part included the questions about demographic and trip related characteristics of cruise passengers. In the second part, Hung and Patrick's (2011) cruising motivation scale was employed. The measurement tool of cruising motivation consisted of 25 items measured with a 5-point Likert-Type Scale (from 1: Not at all Important, to 5: Very Important). Firstly, Exploratory Factor Analysis was used in order to explore dimensions of cruising motivation scale from the data obtained. Then, Independent Samples t-Test and One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were employed in order to determine significant differences among different demographic and trip related characteristics of cruise passengers.

FINDINGS

The findings of the research were presented within two headings as demographics and trip related characteristics of respondents and findings on cruising motivations.

Demographics and Trip Related Characteristics of the Respondents

The Demographics and trip related characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1 as seen below. According to the Table 1, 52 % of the respondents are female, and nearly 78 % married. More than 60 % of the respondents are above 58 years old. The education level of the respondents indicates that more than 60 % of respondents have bachelor and post graduate degrees. More than 50 % of the respondents have monthly income more than 7501 US Dollars and more. The nationalities of the respondents were distributed as American (48,2 %), Canadian (22,5 %), British (14,1 %), Australian

and New Zealander (10,9 %). The trip related characteristics of the respondents indicated that more than 75 % of the respondents had the cruise trips longer than 10 days. The half of the respondents' total trip expenditures were under 4000 US Dollars. And 54 % of the respondents have taken a cruise trip before.

Table 1.

Demographics and Trip Related Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1.

Demographics and Trip Related Characteristics of Respondents

		N	%			N	%
Gender	Female	208	52,5	Nationality	American	191	48,2
	Male	188	47,5		Canadian	89	22,5
Marital Status	Married	308	77,8		British	56	14,1
	Single	88	22,2		New Zealander	28	7,1
Age	18-27	26	6,6		Avustralian	15	3,8
	28-37	19	4,8		Other	17	4,3
	38-47	42	10,6	Trip Duratin (days)	1-4	11	2,8
	48-57	71	17,9		5-9	82	20,7
	58-67	118	29,8		10-14	297	75,0
	68 and above	120	30,3		15 and above	6	1,5
Education	Secondary School	55	13,9	Total Trip Expenditures	2000 \$ and under	34	8,6
	Vocational School	88	22,2		2001-4000	159	40,2
	Bachelor Degree	142	35,9		4001-6000	118	29,8
	Master and PhD.	111	28,0		6001-8000	49	12,4
Monthly Income	2500 \$ and under	33	8,3		8001-10000	28	7,1
	2501-5000 \$	59	14,9		10001 and above	8	2
	5001-7500 \$	90	22,7	Cruise Experience	Took Cruise Trip Before	214	54
	7501-10000 \$	122	30,8		Never Cruised Before	182	46
	10001-12500 \$	49	12,4				
	12501 \$ and above	43	10,9				

Findings on Cruising Motivations

Before implementing factor analysis to the 25 item cruising motivation scale. The reliability of 25 items was examined. Cronbach's Alpha of 25 items was calculated and found that the scale's Cronbach's Alpha was 0,912. And also, the Item-total Correlation coefficients were calculated and found that the item-total correlations varied between 0,287 and 0,708. Exploratory Factor analysis was implemented to the 25 item cruising motivation scale. The Factor analysis yielded six factors and explained 75,48 % of the variance. The factor loading of each item was checked. It was detected that both 11th and 16th items had cross loading scores to the first and second factors. Thus, these two items were eliminated from the factor analysis and another exploratory factor analysis was then implemented to the 23 item scale.

The second factor analysis explained 76,75 % of the total variance and yielded six factors. First factor

explained 21,50 % of variance and called “social recognition and self-esteem”. Second factor was called as “escape” and explained 13,21 % of variance. Third factor consisted of the items related to the learning and called as “learning” explained 12,65 % of variance. Fourth factor was named as “socialization” and consisted of four items. Fifth Factor explained 9,38 % of variance and named as “novelty”. The last factor consisted of three items and explained 7,49 % of variance and was called as “cultural entertainment”. It is possible to say that this factor analysis’s results are similar with the existing literature. Because, the existing literature proves that escape, social recognition and self-esteem, socialization, learning, relaxing and discovering new cultures are the main cruising motivations.

Table 2.
Factor Analysis Results for Cruising Motivation Scale

FACTORS	Communi- nality	Loadings	Eigen Value	Variance %	Mean	Cronbach 's Alpha
1. SOCIAL RECOGNITION and SELF-ESTEEM (6 ITEMS)						
I cruise to be thought of more highly by others for doing this.	,875	,898	4,947	21,507	2,356	,943
I cruise to do something that impresses others.	,857	,889				
I cruise to help me feel like a better person	,874	,888				
I cruise to increase my feelings of self-worth.	,791	,811				
I cruise to photograph an exotic place to show friends.	,730	,743				
I cruise to derive a feeling of accomplishment	,710	,713				
2. ESCAPE (4 ITEMS)						
I cruise to give my mind a rest	,860	,862	3,040	13,216	2,902	,894
I cruise so that I can be free to do whatever I want.	,862	,840				
I cruise to escape.	,855	,796				
I cruise because I want to be pampered	,673	,656				
3. LEARNING (3 ITEMS)						
I cruise to gain knowledge.	,878	,905	2,910	12,651	3,726	,926
I cruise to enjoy nature.	,833	,882				
I cruise to satisfy my curiosity.	,823	,870				
4. SOCIALIZATION (4 ITEMS)						
I cruise to interact with friends/family	,702	,784	2,875	12,502	2,789	,845
I cruise because my friends/family want to cruise.	,710	,749				
I cruise because I like to meet different people on a cruise ship.	,736	,722				
Cruising provides me a chance to meet new people.	,651	,646				
5. NOVELTY (3 ITEMS)						
I cruise to do something new.	,746	,775	2,159	9,387	3,316	,752
I cruise to enjoy activities that provide a thrill.	,681	,673				
I cruise to enjoy the company of the people who come with me.	,591	,607				
6. CULTURAL ENTERTAINMENT (3 ITEMS)						
I cruise to “let my hair down”.	,843	,855	1,723	7,491	3,721	,457
I cruise to have fun.	,763	,689				
I cruise to experience other cultures.	,608	,519				

Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation. Explained Total Variance: % 76,75
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measures of Sampling Adequacy: % 84,6; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: X^2 : 7352,660, d.f.: 253, $p < 0.001$;
Grand Mean: 3,024 Cronbach's Alpha for Whole Scale: ,900;
Scale Points: 1: Not at all important, 2: Not important, 3: Neither Important nor Unimportant 4: Important 5: Very Important

In this study, the mean scores of cruising motivations differing significantly according to the demographic and trip related characteristics of the respondents were also examined. For this purpose, a number of t-tests and One-Way ANOVA Analysis were implemented. The significant differences

were detected in escape and socialization dimensions according to gender of the respondents. Male respondents' mean was higher in both dimensions. Also a significant difference was found in the socialization dimension in terms of marital status. The single respondents' mean score was significantly higher than the married respondents. According to the age of the respondents, there were also significant differences in escape, socialization, and cultural entertainment dimensions. In escape and socialization dimensions, younger respondents' (especially age group 18-27) mean scores were higher than the older age groups. In novelty and cultural entertainment dimensions, mean score of 38-47 age group was significantly lower than the older age groups.

Significant differences in all dimensions were also detected according to the education level except the social recognition and self-esteem dimension. In escape dimension's mean score of the respondents with secondary education level was significantly higher than respondents with the bachelor degree. In the learning dimension, mean scores of the respondents with bachelor or master degree were significantly higher than the secondary education level. There were significant differences in socialization, novelty and cultural entertainment dimensions. The findings further indicate that mean scores of the motivational dimensions significantly differ in escape, learning, novelty and cultural entertainment dimensions according to monthly income of the respondents.

Significant differences in mean scores of trip duration and taking a cruise trip previously or not were also examined in this paper. And significant differences were detected. For example, according to the trip duration there were significant differences in social recognition/self-esteem, socialization, novelty and cultural entertainment dimensions. In all the dimensions' mean scores of the respondents taking 10 days or longer duration were significantly higher than the respondents with trip duration under 10 days. And the respondents having never taken a cruise trip before see the novelty dimension more important than taking a cruise trip of the respondents before.

Table 3.
Comparison of Means (One-Way ANOVA and T-Test) for Cruising Motivations

Group No. Factors	Sample Size	SOCIAL RECOGNITION and SELF-ESTEEM	ESCAPE	LEARNING	SOCIALIZATION	NOVELTY	CULTURAL ENTERTAINMENT
Gender							
1. Male	188	2,43	3,02	3,72	2,97	3,26	4,36
2. Female	208	2,29	2,79	3,72	2,78	3,35	4,39
T-Test (Sign. Value)		0,189	0,039*	0,967	0,047*	0,313	0,657
Marital Status							
1. Married	308	2,36	2,84	3,70	2,80	3,32	4,36
2. Single	88	2,31	3,09	3,80	3,13	3,28	4,44
T-Test (Sign. Value)		0,659	0,063	0,402	0,004*	0,676	0,216
Cruise Experience							
1. Cruised before	182	2,30	2,88	3,72	2,87	3,18	4,34
2. Never Cruised Before	214	2,40	2,91	3,72	2,88	3,42	4,40
T-Test (Sign. Value)		0,331	0,831	0,968	0,921	0,007*	0,325
Duration of Trip							
1. 1-9 Days	93	1,88	2,79	3,66	2,55	2,95	4,36
2. 10 days and more	303	2,50	2,93	3,74	2,97	3,42	4,38
T-Test (Sign. Value)		0,001*	0,277	0,484	0,001*	0,001*	0,774
Age							
1. 18-27	26	2,21	3,96	3,98	3,79	3,15	4,38
2. 28-37	19	2,64	3,36	4,12	3,19	3,43	4,40
3. 38-47	42	2,34	2,77	3,89	2,83	2,84	4,19
4. 48-57	71	2,31	2,91	3,56	2,53	3,12	4,38
5. 58-67	118	2,55	2,94	3,65	2,98	3,53	4,51
6. 68 and above	120	2,17	2,58	3,71	2,74	3,39	4,30

ANOVA (Sign. Value)		0,082	0,001*	0,117	0,001*	0,001*	0,020*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison			<i>G1>G2,G3,G4,G5,G6</i>		<i>G1>G2,G3,G4,G5,G6</i>	<i>G3<G5&G4</i>	<i>G3<G5</i>
Education							
1.Secondary	55	2,32	3,25	3,27	3,30	3,50	4,27
2. Vocational	88	2,32	2,99	3,64	2,97	3,25	4,42
3. Bachelor	142	2,29	2,70	3,81	2,53	3,12	4,50
4. Master/Phd	111	2,48	2,90	3,88	3,02	3,51	4,24
ANOVA (Sign. Value)		0,536	0,012*	0,001*	0,001*	0,002*	0,002*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison			<i>G1>G3</i>	<i>G3&G4>G1</i>	<i>G1>G3, G2>G3, G4>G3</i>	<i>G4>G3</i>	<i>G3>G4</i>
Income							
1. 2000 \$ and under	33	2,36	3,64	3,25	3,25	3,67	4,31
2. 2001-4000	59	2,31	2,82	3,86	2,80	3,41	4,36
3. 4001-6000	90	2,44	2,86	3,58	2,75	3,26	4,45
4. 6001-8000	122	2,24	2,88	3,72	2,84	3,15	4,48
5. 8001-10000	49	2,44	2,63	4,06	2,94	3,43	4,20
6. 10001 and above	43	2,44	2,86	3,79	2,98	3,33	4,21
ANOVA (Sign. Value)		0,715	0,002*	0,005*	0,164	0,044*	0,015*
Scheffe Multiple Comparison			<i>G1>G2,G3,G4,G5</i>	<i>G1<G5</i>		<i>G3<G1</i>	<i>G6<G3</i>

Significance at the 0,05 level is shown in bold and italics.

CONCLUSION

Cruise tourism can be examined under marine tourism (Dilek et al., 2015) and is a growing segment in world tourism market. Turkey is one of the most preferred destinations by international tourists as well as international cruise tourists. It is reported that Turkey was visited by 1,9 Million cruise passengers in the year 2015 (udhb.gov.tr, 2017). Tourist motivation is a key concept in tourist behaviour. Because, understanding what motivates individuals to decide travel and to select a specific destination will improve marketing efforts for businesses and will provide useful information for tourism planning activities. Further, understanding tourist motivation can contribute to predict behavioural intentions of tourists in future.

In this paper, cruising motivations of cruise passenger visited the port of Karakoy were examined. For this purpose, a survey research was conducted in the summer 2014. 396 cruise passengers were participated in the survey. Hung and Petrick's (2011) cruising motivation scale was employed in order to determine motivational factors of cruise passengers visiting the port of Karakoy, Istanbul. The findings of the research indicate that the main cruising motivations of the respondents are social

recognition/self-esteem, escape, learning, novelty, socialization and cultural entertainment. These motivational factors are similar to, Qu and Ping (1999), Elliot and Choi (2011), Hung and

Petrack (2011), Josiam et. al (2012), Yingzhi et. al (2014), Fan et. al (2015) and Chen et. al's (2016) studies. Heterogeneous nature of the demographics and trip related characteristics of the respondents can affect cruising motivations of cruise passengers. In this study, significant differences were also detected in the demographics and trip related characteristics of the respondents.

There are some suggestions for cruise businesses. For example, learning, cultural entertainment and novelty dimensions have higher mean scores than other cruising motivations. Thus, cruise businesses' promotional messages should include learning, novelty and cultural entertainment opportunities. Significant differences according demographics of the respondents also prove that different promotional messages should be delivered to younger cruisers. For example, socialization opportunity of cruising should be focused on promotional campaigns for the potential young cruise passengers.

This study also has a number of limitations. The first limitation is the sample size of this study. The sample size should be increased and data should be collected not only in July and August but also in other months of a year. The port of Karakoy, Istanbul is the most preferred port by cruise businesses in Turkey. But, some other surveys should be conducted on respondents visiting other cruise ports in Turkey.

REFERENCES

- Baker, D. M. A. (2014). Exploring cruise passengers' demographic experience and satisfaction with cruising the Western Caribbean. *International Journal of Tourism & Hospitality Review*, 1(1), 33-43.
- Bansal, H., & Eiselt, H. A. (2004). Exploratory research of tourist motivations and planning. *Tourism management*, 25(3), 387-396.
- Brida, J. G., Scuderi, R., & Seijas, M. N. (2014). Segmenting cruise passengers visiting Uruguay: a factor-cluster analysis. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 209-222.
- Chen, J. M., Neuts, B., Nijkamp, P., & Liu, J. (2016). Demand determinants of cruise tourists in competitive markets: motivation, preference and intention. *Tourism Economics*, 22(2), 227-253.
- Cohen, S. A., Prayag, G., & Moital, M. (2014). Consumer behaviour in tourism: Concepts, influences and opportunities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 17(10), 872-909.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of tourism research*, 6(4), 408-424.
- Cakici, A. C.. (2000). Seyahat Sikligi Degışkenine Gore Muşterilerce Otel Ozelliklerinin Degerlendirilmesi, *Anatolia Turizm Arařtırmaları Dergisi*, Hasan Olali Ozel Sayisi, Yıl 11, Eylul-Aralik, 160-168.
- Cakici, A. C.. (1999). Turist Satın Alma Davranışlarının Otel işletmeciliği Agisindan incelenmesi,

Pazarlama Dnyasi, Sayı: 78, 31-37.

- Dilek, S. E., Kaygalak, S., Turksoy, S. S., & Timur, A. (2015). Kruvaziyer Turizmi: izmir Merkez Liman Olabilir Mi?. *Yaaşam Bilimleri Dergisi*, (5), 33-56.
- Duman, T., & Mattila, A. S. (2005). The role of affective factors on perceived cruise vacation value. *Tourism Management*, 26(3), 311-323.
- Dwyer, L., & Forsyth, P. (1998). Economic significance of cruise tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 393-415.
- Elliot, S., & Choi, H. C. (2011). Motivational considerations of the new generations of cruising. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 18(1), 41-47.
- Fan, D. X., & Hsu, C. H. (2014). Potential mainland Chinese cruise travelers' expectations, motivations, and intentions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 31(4), 522-535.
- Fan, D. X., Qiu, H., Hsu, C. H., & Liu, Z. G. (2015). Comparing Motivations and Intentions of Potential Cruise Passengers from Different Demographic Groups: The Case of China. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 11(4), 461-480.
- Gilbert, D. C. (1991). An examination of the consumer behaviour process related to tourism. *An examination of the consumer behaviour process related to tourism.*, 78-105.
- Goldner, C. & Ritchie, B. (2009). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, Wiley Science,
- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). Why do you cruise? Exploring the motivations for taking cruise holidays, and the construction of a cruising motivation scale. *Tourism Management*, 32(2), 386-393.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of tourism research*, 9(2), 256-262.
- Jones, R. V. (2011). Motivations to cruise: An itinerary and cruise experience study. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 18(1), 30-40.
- Josiam, B. M., Huang, T. Y., Bahulkar, G. A., Spears, D. L., & Kennon, L. (2012). Segmenting Taiwanese travelers on cruises in North America: comparing the involvement and cluster approach. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 8(1), 78-96.
- Kozak, M. (2002). "Comparative Analysis Of Tourist Motivations By Nationality and Destinations", *Tourism Management*, 23(2), 221-232.
- Line, N. D., & Runyan, R. C. (2012). Hospitality marketing research: Recent trends and future directions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 477-488.
- Oh, H., Kim, B. Y., & Shin, J. H. (2004). Hospitality and tourism marketing: recent developments in research and future directions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23(5), 425-447.
- Pearce, P. L. (1988). *The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Pearce, P. L., (1991). "Dreamworld: A Report on Public Reactions to Dreamworld and Proposed Developments at Dreamworld." In A Report to Ernst and Young on Behalf of the IOOF in Conjunction with Brian Dermott and Associates. Townsville, Australia: Department of Tourism, James Cook University.
- Pearce, P. L., (1993). "Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation." In *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*, edited by D. Pearce and R. Butler. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, pp. 85-105.
- Pearce, P. L., and M. L. Caltabiano (1983). "Inferring Travel Motivation from Travellers' Experiences." *Journal of Travel Research*, 22 (2): 16-20.

- Pearce, P. L., & Lee, U. I. (2005). Developing the travel career approach to tourist motivation. *Journal of travel research*, 43(3), 226-237.
- Qu, H., & Ping, E. W. Y. (1999). A service performance model of Hong Kong cruise travelers' motivation factors and satisfaction. *Tourism management*, 20(2), 237-244.
- Teye, V. B., & Leclerc, D. (1998). Product and service delivery satisfaction among North American cruise passengers. *Tourism Management*, 19(2), 153-160.
- Yingzhi, G., Tian, H., Jianfeng, H., & Kun, D. (2014). An Empirical Study on the Correlation Between Cruising Motivation and Cruising Intention. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 2(3), 114-123.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism management*, 26(1), 45-56.
- Xie, H. J., Kerstetter, D. L., & Mattila, A. S. (2012). The attributes of a cruise ship that influence the decision making of cruisers and potential cruisers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), 152-159.

LUNCH CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE FACTORS IN THE RESTAURANT BUSINESS

Hanne Ala-Harja

Faculty of Food, Seinajoki University of Applied Sciences, Seinajoki, Finland

Tuija Pitkakoski,

Faculty of Food, Seinajoki University of Applied Sciences, Seinajoki, Finland

Inari Aaltojarvi

School of Architecture, Tampere University of Technology, Tampere, Finland

ABSTRACT

This empirical research points out elements which effect lunch customers ' experience. Successful customer experiences are the base for a successful business. According to the Five Aspects Meal Model (FAMM) developed by Gustafsson (2006) the restaurant customers ' experience consists of the experience of the product, room, meeting, atmosphere and management system. The atmosphere is a result of the other four aspects. In the case study, three focus working people groups ate lunch twice in two different lunch restaurants. Between the first lunch and the second one microarchitectural changes were made e.g., colours, soundscape, lunch table, trays, napkins, plates, and runners. After the second day, the focus groups were interviewed and the interviews were transcribed.

The results show that: the food itself, high quality service and room factors are the most important elements for a successful lunch experience. A good lunch was supposed to be tasty and taste like self-prepared food. A good lunch included a wide, high-quality and surprising variety of salads. The room and environment was supposed to be clean and light and transactions fast. Every group emphasized gentle meetings with the personnel. The economical indications of the customer's experience were discussed, and some suggestions for the restaurant business and for future academic research are given.

Key Words: Food experience, FAMM-model, lunch, restaurant management

INTRODUCTION

The role of experiences has increased in the field of consumer behavior research. Postmodernism has affected e.g. hedonism of consumers and has increased complexity in consumer behavior research

since the 1980's (Pitkakoski, 2015). Experience is holistic and multisensory, but also a personal event with engram. Positive emotions, activities, concentration and deep consciousness are parts of the experience (Pitkakoski, 2015). Pine and Gilmore (1999) disclosed the possibilities of the experiences as the source of business and at the end of the 90's experience products got a new kind of characteristic, purpose and content.

Finnish restaurant culture, food consuming and food preferences have met many changes. The cycles of restaurant trends have shortened and restaurants have had to meet new kinds of customer preferences and to adapt. New concepts of business spread quickly and concepts that were not good enough are driven out. Lunch is an important meal in Finland. Most Finnish people eat lunch in restaurants between 11:00 and 13:00 and there are a lot of lunch restaurants in Finland.

Achieving, sustaining and strengthening competitive advantages are the key to good business strategy. A successful restaurant has to know their own business, customers and competitors. The core of a competitive advantage is understanding the sources and mechanisms of customer experiences and benefits.

Economic results depend on costs and sales. Sales depend on the number of customers and price. For example, price elasticity and competition effect also price setting, besides the quality and material cost of the food. Improvement of the customer experience leads to increased sales. There are many ways to improve customer experience. Some elements of experience do not cost anything and some of them need investments or increased operational costs. Some changes may even improve customer experience and decrease operational costs. Restaurant business is based on the customers' experience. Nowadays they share their experiences on the internet as well as choose a restaurant based on other peoples experiences that they read about there. The financial result of the restaurant strongly correlates with experiences in the long term (Pitkakoski, 2015).

The number of people ($n = 1559$) who eat at restaurants have increased (MaRa, 2016 a). A typical Finn eats 3.5 times at a restaurant during a two weeks period. Younger Finns eat more often than older people and managers (8.5 times/2 weeks) eat more often than workers (3.8 times / 2 weeks). In 2016 51 % of those who ate at a restaurant thought that the quality of the food is the most important criteria, 49 % thought it was the location, 42 % thought it was the price level, 25 % thought the most important criteria was the service, 24 % it was the delivery time of the service, 23 % thought it was the variety on the menu. A peaceful environment was the most important criteria for 13 % (11th) of the respondents and 7 % (15th) thought it was the interior of the restaurant. (Mara, 2016 b; Figure1)

51 % of thought that the location was the most important criteria to choose lunch restaurant. The

quality of the food was the most important criteria for 49 %, 22 % thought the most important criteria was the service, 23 % it was the delivery time of the service, 24 % thought it was the variety on the menu. A peaceful environment was the most important criteria for 11 % (11th) of respondents and 4 % (15th) thought it was the interior of the restaurant. (Mara, 2016 b). In Finnish personnel restaurants the share of raw material costs was 31 %, personnel costs 37 %, gross margin 4 %, depreciations 1 %. The share of rents was 12.5 % (Mara, 2016 a)

RESTAURANT EXPERIENCE

Experience cannot be managed, but experience about production has to be managed. Management is a continuous process cycle of planning, doing, checking and acting (Deming, 2000) and is based on measuring. Overall customer satisfaction is one critical factor behind business success. Service attributes are unclear compared to product satisfaction attributes because services are immaterial and heterogenic, but is also consumed and produced at the same time. Touching, tasting, hearing, smelling and seeing a product have an important role in our understanding. A good perception of these roles has a valuable advantage in the market today. The use of senses may effect, for example, the experience of a brand, its interest, preference and loyalty of customers. These senses create the image of our daily lives, and by using them, we satisfy our needs and desires. (Wansink & Van Ittersum, 2012)

The food acceptance index describes how contextual variables affect the acceptability of food. For example, ethnic food was consumed more in an authentic environment. Contextual and situational factors as well as personal exceptions and experiences affect the acceptance. (Meiselman, 1996). Cardello (1996), Edwards (2003) and Meiselman (2000) found that the eating environment correlates strongly with the overall experience and acceptance as well as food acceptance. Environment changes cognitive processes and emotions (Werner et. al., 2013). Contextual variables are more important as a part of the overall acceptance than as a part of an individual meal (King et al., 2005).

Werner et al. (2103) found cognitive and emotional differences and control for the kind and amount of food consumed between a restaurant meal and solitary meal situations. They changed social context (in the company compared to alone), availability of time (plenty compared to limited), service (being served compared to selfservice), environment (spacious restaurant with music compared to a small, plain office with no music), control over food choice (choice from 20 dishes and 3 soft drinks compared to no choice), and a 15-minute walk after lunch compared to before lunch. They found that a meal eaten in a restaurant increased sensitivity to threatening facial expressions and diminished cognitive control and error monitoring. They did not find any effects in semantic memory. As a conclusion the restaurant meal with a social component may be more relaxing than a meal eaten alone

in a plain setting and may reduce cognitive control.

There are several models, frameworks and measures to describe customers' opinions Parasuraman et.al. (1988) developed Servqual-metrics, for service quality measurement. Knutson et al. (1990) developed a model for hotels and named it Lodgserv. Steven et al. (1995) developed Servequal to fit restaurants and named it Dineserv-metrics. Both of the models have a narrow scope of the environment including visual attractability and cleanliness. They emphasize service quality, communication and empathy. Ruy (2005) developed the Servicescape-based Dinescape- model for fine dining restaurants. It includes restaurant interior and customers' emotions.

The Five Aspects Meal Model developed by Gustafsson et al. (2016) is used to describe a customer's restaurant experience. It has five aspects, which are: room, meeting, product, the atmosphere and the management control system. According to the model, the first aspect is to describe the restaurant visit starting from entering the restaurant. The second aspect is "meeting" including customers meeting personnel but also other customers. The third aspect is product (food and beverage). The fourth aspect is the management control system covering the economic aspects, laws and logistics. The fifth aspect is the atmosphere and is a result of the other four aspects. (Gustafsson, 2016)

The room. The room can be a restaurant, hospital, school, home or open air. Fulfilling customers' needs to pay attention to the room as a part of the entirety. When decorating a room professionally, one has to have knowledge about history, architectural style, textiles, design and art. (Gustafsson, 2016) The experience is different in different rooms (e.g. school, restaurant, army) even if the meal is the same (Cardello AV, 1996; Edwards, 2003 & Meiselman HL, 2000). The lighting, colours, and textiles can have a large impact on this (Meiselman et al., 1987; Edwards et al., 2003). Earlier experiences and senses in similar environments can affect the appreciation of the same meal in different contexts. (Gustafsson, 2016) The meal situation, social interaction and physical environment have a positive effect on food acceptability. Changes in contextual factors change the acceptability of some dishes (King et al. 2004). The meal needs to be in accordance with the overall style of the restaurant (Bowen & Morris, 1995). Restaurant interiors have an important role in the meal experience (Andersson & Mossberg 2004; Ahlgren et al., 2004a; Finkelstein, 1989; Nissen, Johansen, & Blom 2003)

The meeting. The meeting includes meetings between service staff and customers but also meetings between customers as well as meetings between service staff members. Contact between service personnel and the customer have an impact on the experience. The waiters have authority and power more than customers do. They are supposed to use the power gently and handle customers with an observant and helpful attitude. The importance of meetings is found in many studies. Personal service

was found to be as important as the delivery of service (Mattila, 2010). The meetings between customers are important too.

The product. The product aspect consists of the food and beverages. The product is very important according to research. (Gustafsson, 2006). The visual effect of the core product was an important factor according to Hansen et al (2005). The appearance of the dish decided in some situations if restaurant was successful or not. An error in product and the service process can decrease experience. Successful products and optimal experience require craftsmanship, science and aesthetical/ethical knowledge of the processes. (Gustafsson, 2006; Pitkakoski, 2015). The menu has to take into account variations and balance in foodstuffs, taste, flavours, nutrition, cooking methods, temperature, consistency, colour, form and suitable beverages (Dornenburg & Page, 1996).

The management control system. The management control system covers all aspects of administration, leadership, economic and legal aspects as well as logistics. Different restaurant concepts have different management control systems. The management control system issues include: pricing, following legislation of hygiene, alcohol and kitchen as well as dining room logistics, labour etc., staff requirements and training. Deficiencies in the management process easily lead customers' to disappointments, even if customers only see deficiencies in the management process as failures in meeting or product. Successful management requires knowledge about business administration, marketing, work organization, statistics and practical-productive knowledge. Leaders, preferably with academic education, should be able to combine scientific knowledge with practical and productive knowledge and see guests' expectations and the meals in their entirety (Gustafsson, 2006).

The atmosphere. The meaning of atmosphere is discussed in Gustafsson's research paper and means the result of the room, product, meetings and the management control system, which altogether means the atmosphere and is the entire meal experience or hotel experience. A restaurant meal with a social component may be more relaxing than a meal eaten alone in a plain setting and may reduce cognitive control (Sommer et.al 2013). Kontukoski et al. (2016) have argued that people associate shades of green with peacefulness, which is favorable in a restaurant environment.

METHODS

Research questions and methodological choices. This empirical research was a part of the Varina project in the Finnish cities of Seinäjoki and Tampere in March and June 2016. The aim of this research was to discover lunch customer's experience and how changes in the room's aspect affected customer experience.

The research questions were formulated as follows:

(RQ1) What aspects are involved in a successful customer experience?

(RQ2) How changes of the room aspect affect customer experience?

(RQ3) What aspects of the lunch restaurant may affect the economical results of the restaurant?

The empirical research setting is described with elements named by Johansson (2004). The elements used in the research set planning are: the type of restaurant concept, the type of meal, the type of guests/diners and what do they want, the season, the dining room exterior, the way how the tables are laid, textiles and utensils used, the lights and the sounds (Table 1). The FAMM model was selected for the framework for results of the study because it has been used in 76 academic written papers (between 1997 - 2012) according to the Magnusson Sporre et al (2103).

Focus groups. There were three focus groups (G1, G2 and G3), who ate lunch twice and then they were interviewed as groups. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed. Each group was observed having lunch on two consecutive days and the researchers modified the eating environment for the lunch on the second day and that was followed by the focus group interview. Two groups consisted six participants and one with five participants, were observed and interviewed. Two groups with university education, one of women and one of men, had lunch at a staff canteen situated in Seinajoki in a complex of buildings comprising of over 80 organizations and companies. Women with university degree. Ages of women (G1) were: 23, 34, 37, 50, 56, 62. Ages of men with university degrees (G2) were: 33, 44, 45, 48, 52, 62 and ages of men with vocational degree (G3) were: 40, 48, 57, 58, 61

The third group, composed of men with vocational education, had lunch at a popular lunch restaurant in Tampere. Restaurant has traditional furnitures, low froom and many interior elements. The restaurant in Seinajoki is popular among white-collar workers having university degrees. It is chain owned canteen restaurant, and has simple furnitures and high and light rooms in new office building. The restaurant in Tampere, in turn, is well liked by blue- collar workers and privately owned. The research groups were divided by gender and education, as these are the major background factors affecting one's attitudes towards food and eating (e.g. Caplan 1997; Makela 2002; Raulio & Roos 2012).

Changes in the eating environment. The eating environment was modified between day one and two. The aim was to build a calm and relaxing lunch environment that would direct the respondents to ponder their eating environment. "The microgeography of the table" (Sobal & Wansink, 2007) was changed by changing the plastic tray to a wooden one, thin and small napkins to heavy high-quality napkins, and heavily-worn plates with brand new more elegant ones. Grass green runners were placed

onto the table to complement the earthy colors of the place setting. The soundscape was also changed. Normally both research restaurants have a commercial radio station playing in the background. The channel is chosen by the restaurant workers and on every focus group ate at the first day when the channel was a commercial station playing contemporary pop music. For the lunch on the second day, attended by respondents with university degrees, the instrumental music chosen by a sound designer was played in the background. Also the sound reproduction was changed. For the third group, men with vocational educations, music was not played on day two, because the earlier comments about the use of background music were primarily criticized by the respondents. Finally, for the second day's research lunch, the respondents were seated at the same table that was reserved for them in the corner of the restaurant. On the first day of the study, they were instructed to sit wherever they wanted and at the table they normally use. In that way it was possible to see if the company of others has an effect on the ways in which the respondents assess their lunch experience. The research setting and changes to the environment are displayed in table 2.

Table 2. Research setting and differences between first and second day

	DAY 1		DAY 2 (after manipulation)
Utensils used	tray	plastic	wooden
	napkins	thin and small	heavy and high-quality

	plates	heavily worn	new and elegant
Textiles used	place setting	-	a grass green runner
The lights	G1 & G2	big windows, lot of light, view to parking place	candles in the tables + big windows, lot of light, view to parking place
	G3	daylight and strip lighting	daylight and strip lighting
The sounds	G1 & G2	commercial station playing contemporary pop music	tested instrumental music chosen by a sound designer
	G3		no music

Focus group interviews and analysis. After the modified lunch on the second day, the respondents were gathered into a separate room to take part in a focus group interview. Robinson (1999, 905) says that a focus group is “an indepth, open-ended group discussion of 1-2 hours' duration that explores a specific set of issues on a pre-defined and limited topic. Such groups consist typically of between five to eight participants and are convened under the guidance of a facilitator”. A set of themes were prepared, but the conversation was kept as free as possible and the respondents were instructed to talk with each other and comment on the remarks of others. As Puchta and Potter (2004) suggest, the researcher may direct the conversation if some subject needs more elaboration, some theme is uncovered, or some of the participants do not have a chance to talk. The themes of the interviews were food choices, lunch routines, lunch environment (including table setting, space, and soundscape), and emotions and feelings before, during, and after lunch.

In earlier research, pictures and articles have been used to facilitate interaction in the group (Barbour, 2007, 84-88; Stewart et al., 2007, 92). In this case study an article from the newspaper Aamulehti (Aamulehti 17 November 2015) on the subject of healthy lunches had been used to facilitate interaction. The headline of the article was “How to Prevent Afternoon Tiredness” and it introduced various aspects of a healthy lunch including: working in a standing position after having lunch, drinking a sufficient amount of water during the day, and having enough protein from your meal. The interviews lasted approximately one hour and they were transcribed for analysis. Data was described and summarized, and analyzed in the context of the FAMM model (Gustafsson, 2014). Finally, the results are compared to the previous body of knowledge.

RESULTS OF LUNCH CUSTOMERS EXPERIENCES

Elements of a successful customer experience. The most important elements of a successful lunch experience were food, service and the room. Good food was supposed to be tasty and taste like self-prepared, not industrial prepared food. A good lunch included wide, high-quality and a surprising variety of salads. The room and the environment were supposed to be clean and light and transactions fast. Every group emphasized friendly meetings with personnel. The results are explained in the following chapters according to the aspects of the FAMM model (Gustafsson, 2006). They are product, room, meeting, atmosphere and the management control system aspects.

Product. The product is supposed to be tasty and good looking. The salad buffet is supposed to have a wide variety and include surprising ingredients. The experience with salads affected pretty much the total experience of the restaurant. If the salad buffet is fine, then the final restaurant selection decision was made based on the main dish and the location of the restaurant. It did not matter if there were some left over food from the previous days, but it lead to a bad experience if something is totally missing towards the end of the opening hours. Every group highlighted the importance of food prepared the restaurant instead of the industrial food. If food was recognized or supposed to be convenience food, it was a reason for disappointment. Group A appreciated the information about the foods’ origin and preferred to buy local food. Every group appreciated the fish courses in the menu but groups A and B did not like codfish at all and would like to eat local fish. Pricing issues were raised in every interview. Group 3 felt that if the price of the lunch is higher than lunch coupon they used, they thought that lunch is too expensive. Groups A and B in Seinäjoki restaurants felt the price is too high compared to convenience food bought from a nearby market. Especially men thought the soups and vegetarian food were too expensive.

Room. Cleanliness and the clearness of the room was highlighted in every focus group interview. The interviewees thought it is important to have windows and natural light, but group 1 had a very pleasant

experience in the restaurant which did not have any windows at all. Some people preferred to look outside during lunch, and another part of interviewees wanted to look to the centre of the restaurant. People (groups 1 and 2) were not disturbed about the parking place behind the window but mentioned that they preferred good views. Group 1 thought the central item in the table diminished the overall experience if the central item is not clean or is cheap or does not fit into the environment. Men did not pay attention to the central item. The interviewees preferred small tables instead of the long tables. The big tables were felt to be more of a canteen than a restaurant; even a small empty space between the tables created privacy.

Meeting. Customers do not necessarily meet any other personnel but the cashier and other customers. That is why the cashier should be very kind and helpful and meet every customer personally. Every group emphasized that personal meetings and conversations with the cook or restaurant's chef had a positive effect, and group 1 especially appreciated meeting with entrepreneur. For them it was value in itself to know the entrepreneur instead of it being a chain restaurant. If a customer asks, for example, for diet or food origin information it should be given in a very friendly way without becoming frustrated and it is thus possible to lift the overall experience.

The atmosphere. The purpose of the lunch for the interviewees in the restaurant was: to have healthy and good tasting food, for social purposes and to have a pleasant break. A few customers prefer to eat their lunch as late as possible because they have had breakfast with a lot of protein or in some other way a filling breakfast. Another reason was to have a peaceful moment after peak hours. Some felt comfortable when they ate alone at the table. However, they also enjoyed the general atmosphere created by voices of restaurant customer. Other customers were felt as an important factor of the atmosphere. Personnel created the atmosphere with friendly service attitude and friendly meetings. Music on day 2 divided opinions but the interviewees thought the background discussion between customers created a good atmosphere.

Most of the interviewees eat home-made snacks because of saving money and also for social reasons; colleagues ate also home-made snacks and they had a pleasant moment together. Most of the interviewees were ready to spend money and eat lunch at the restaurant for social reasons. At the restaurant, the interviewees were supposed to have healthier food than the home-made snacks would be. This means having excellent salads and vegetables, but also high-quality fish.

The management control system. Every group thought the queuing time should be very short even if a queue or rush is seen as "a guarantee" of the quality of the lunch restaurant. Groups 1 and 2 in Seinäjoki considered the lunch restaurant should have some changing themes in the menu and decoration and give some inspiration to home cooking.

Menus should be available on the internet very easily. The group of white-collar women (G1) thought that it is important to have a printed menu on the coffee room table. They thought that they often make decisions to have lunch at the restaurant instead of their own homemade snacks, because of a good dish on the menu that creates the desire to have lunch at the restaurant. Every group discussed the importance of meetings and even short discussions with the cook or entrepreneur. Especially it was important to ask for customers' opinions about the restaurant. Especially the white-collar women group (G1) felt it is important to know the entrepreneur.

The effect of room aspects on customer experience. The interviewees thought that long tables suit canteens instead of restaurants. Long tables were associated with negative emotions. On the other hand, they discussed also that both long and smaller tables are needed. The interviewees thought that privacy and intimacy were not so important at lunchtime than at dinner. Some of the interviewees in every focus group felt more comfortable when they were sitting facing a window, but others liked to watch other customers and the restaurant.

Women enjoyed the central item when it was low enough and absolutely clean and of high quality and did not prevent placing trays on the table. Candles divided opinions, but if there were candles, they should absolutely must be lit. Table clothes created a sense of dignity. Bigger and higher quality napkin caused a feeling of guiltiness because of the waste, even if the interviewees liked them. The interviewees appreciated the cutlery placed ready on the tray.

Music on day 2 was felt to be more of an irritation instead of relaxing. Group 2 (white collar men) did not recognize the music on day 2 and thought that there was no music on day 2 at all. Every focus group thought that the conversations in the background was a good thing.

The interviewees in every focus group felt that one big plate would be more comfortable instead of separate plates for salad and the main dish. The interviewees prefer have only one plate and when it is big enough, they have possibility to have the courses separately, but also they felt it is easier to place one plate onto the tray instead of two plates. The interviewees also wanted to reduce the load for dishwashing.

Effect of customer experience on the economical results. Service and sensitivity to meet customers and the ability to make customers feel happy and welcome are not expensive but lead to better economic results. The higher the price is the higher were the expectations of the interviewees. The price also affected the experience. Disappointment in the food's high prices caused disappointment and especially group 2 felt disappointment is easier to accept with lower prices. The price of the lunch was also the reason for many interviewees deciding if they ate lunch at a restaurant or not. The

interviewees were ready to pay for the experience and social context of eating lunch at the restaurant compared to homemade snacks.

Self-service did not cause any strong feelings for or against it. The self-service buffet however causes more food waste. Ready proportioned meals were felt to be healthier in group 3 than self-service meals, because then one cannot so easily overeat. On the other hand, the interviewees appreciated the possibility to choose for themselves. A clean and pleasant room is not a cost issue as much as it is a management issue. The right temperature, not too cold or not too warm may require some investments, but usually it is a management and interior design issue as well as lighting. Data also raised the need to pay attention to special occasions or business guests. Groups 1 and 2 wanted to have changing themes and changes in the interior at the lunch restaurant. They also wanted to have new ideas and innovations to inspire their own cooking.

Every point achieved that is increasing customer loyalty improves economic results. A great impact on customer loyalty seems to be the quality, innovativeness and variety of the salad buffet. In addition, a dessert is a way to increase the experience but it also causes a small increase in costs. The interviewees thought it would be nice to have the possibility to have a small dessert. The previous experiences about the food itself affected customer loyalty a lot. The most important criteria when choosing a lunch place was the location and one's own previous experiences. In many cases, the course is already selected from the menu on the internet. When the interviewees arrived at the restaurant, they often wanted to see the buffet first. They paid attention to what the buffet looked like and it was possible that they might change the restaurant after seeing the buffet. Reasons given to go somewhere else other than restaurants in the local area were special occasions, like a colleagues birthday, or a joint decision (made together beforehand) to have lunch somewhere else.

CONCLUSIONS

The economic results of a restaurant depends upon costs and sales. Sales depend upon the number of customers and price. For example, price elasticity and competition effect price setting besides the food quality and costs. Improvements to the customer experience lead to increased sales. There are many ways to improve customer experience. Some elements of experience do not cost anything and some of them need investments or increased operational costs. Some changes may even improve customer experience and decrease operational costs.

Total costs consist of fixed (e.g. rent, permanent personnel) and variable costs (e.g. raw material). Some elements of the lunch experience need investments (e.g. new decorations and furniture) or inputs to operational costs (e.g. raw materials with higher quality). Some other experience factors do

not need monetary inputs, but are managerial issues. Many operational or strategic decisions have no cost effect but lead to changes (for better or worse) of the customers' experience. The manager and personnel have to be very conscious about the changes and be very sensitive to make corrections if needed.

The restaurant's success is based, in the long term, on the customers' experience. Customers share their experiences on the internet and choose a restaurant based on the experiences they read about on the internet, and also on their own experiences. The result on the restaurant strongly correlates with experiences (Pitkakoski, 2015). Like Mara (2016) found, the results of this study show that restaurant choice depends also on the location of the restaurant. In case of lunch the better the closer the restaurant is from the office. Inputs to quality and improvements to the customer experience increase customer loyalty and at least in the long term sales increases. The senses were an important part of experience as Wansink and Van Ittersum (2012) also found. Results of this study strongly correlates factors of the Gustafsson et al. (2016) FAMM-model.

Results of this study show the importance of good food and service, a clean environment and the location of the restaurant which Mara (2016) also found. However, this study points out the deeper meanings of service quality, meetings and menu variety, especially concerning fish and salad dishes. Contextual and situational factors, and personal exceptions and experiences affected experience and acceptance as Meiselman (1996) also found. It can be said that the eating environment also affected the experience and food acceptance as Edwards (2003), Cardello (1996), Edwards (2003) and Meiselman (2000) have also described. Lunch was also a source of relaxation which is in line with (Werner et al., 2013; King ym., 2005). The visual effect of the food was as important factor, as it was in Hansen et al (2004). The social and relaxing component of a lunch was very important in the case when home made snacks were eaten around a coffee room table or at a restaurant. This is in line with Sommer et al (2013).

In the context of the FAMM-model, product is a necessity for lunch customers and it has to fit with customers expectations. The room has a great potential to create atmosphere and improve customer loyalty. The lighting, colours, and textiles have an impact on this as Meiselman et al. (1987), Edwards et al. (2003) also found. Changing themes are recommend based on this study, because customers are not only having lunch but also seeking inspiration for thier home. The experience of the interviewees about e.g. napkins and candles suggests that the meal needs to be in accordance with the overall style of the restaurant as Bowen and Morris (1995) also found. Also, the restaurant's interior has an important role in the meal experience according to this study and in previous studies such as Nissen Johansen and Blom (2003), Andersson and Mossberg (2004), Ahlgren et al. (2004a) and Finkelstein

(1989).

The following figure 2 is an attempt to illustrate how the factors affecting the lunch customers' experiences are related and / or depend upon restaurant costs and managerial operations. The location and size of each experience factor is not absolute, but figure is an attempt to describe which of the factors need investments or inputs to the operational costs and which of the factors need managerial efforts (either personnel or operation management). The lunch customer's experience factors are based on the results of this case study and placement of the cost- management scale is a conclusion from a small group of restaurant business professionals and information about lunch restaurants cost factors (Marary, 2016).

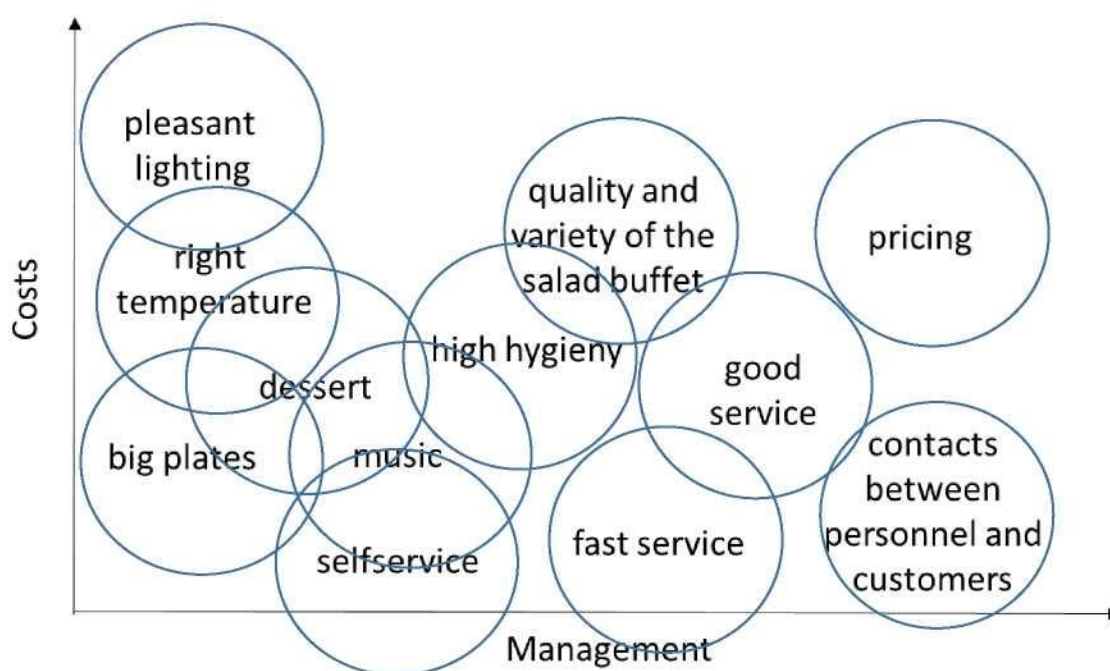


Figure 2. Cost-efficiency of the lunch customer's experience factors

Dessert is not only a cost factor, but also a potential source of extra sales or customer loyalty. It may also be a criteria when selecting a restaurant and a potential opportunity to have additional sales. Cheaper salads, vegetarian food and soups could be considered. The role of a self-service buffet as a cost factor is incoherent because of material costs and food waste compared to personnel costs of the ready-made meals. Bigger plates could increase raw material costs and food waste, but placing cheaper dishes at the beginning of the line could compensate for the higher costs. Anyhow, the results of this study show that customers appreciate big plates and even think there is no need for salad plates. Cleanliness is mostly a question of management but may also need some extra work (costs) as well

as service. The figure summarizes that the experiences are the source of business (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) but also show how they are related to the financial performance of the company.

Meetings are free and the potential source of free improvements to the customers' experience. The waiter has authority and power but customers need also meetings with the entrepreneur and cook. Personnel are supposed to be interested in the customers' opinions. The management has to be competent because customers see a lack in the management process as failures in meeting or product and customer loyalty decreases. In the words of Gustafsson (2006) successful management requires knowledge e.g. business administration, marketing, work organization, statistics, practical-productive knowledge and leaders should be able to combine scientific knowledge with practical and productive knowledge and see guests' expectations and the entirety of the meal. There is a potential to increase sales and productivity at the lunch restaurants with zero investment by using only managerial ways.

REFERENCES

- Aamulehti 17.11.2015. <http://www.aamulehti.fi/ihmiset/lounas-tyopaivan-keskella-voi-piristaa-taitainnuttaa/>.. Accessed 10 August 2016.
- Andersson TD, Mossberg L.(2004). The dining experience: do restaurants satisfy customer needs? Food Service Technology.
- Ahlgren M, Gustafsson I-B, Hall G. (2004). The impact of the meal situation on the consumption of ready meals. International Journal of Consumer Studies.
- Barbour, R.,(2007). Doing focus groups. London: Sage Publications.
- Bowen & Morris (1995). Menu design: can menus sell. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 7 (pp. 4-10).
- Caplan, P. (1997). Approaches to the study of food, health and identity. In Caplan, P. (ed.), Food, health and identity, London: Routledge, (pp. 1-17).
- Cardello AV, Bell R, Kramer FM (1996). Attitudes of consumers toward military and other institutional foods. Foods QualPrefer 7. (pp. 7-20).10.1016/0950-3293(95)00028-3.
- Deming, W. Edwards (2000). The New Economics for Industry, Government, Education - 2nd Edition. MIT Press. ISBN 0-262-54116-5.
- Dornenburg A, Page K. (1996). Culinary Artistry.
- Edwards JSA, Meiselman HL, Edwards A, Leshner L. (2003). The influence of eating location on the acceptability of identically prepared foods. Foods Qual Prefer 14. pp. (647-652). 10.1016/S0950-3293(02)00189-1
- Hansen KV, Jensen O, Gustafsson I-B. (2005). The meal experiences of a la carte restaurants customers. Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 5 (pp. 135-51).
- Edwards JSA, Meiselman HL, Edwards A, Leshner L. (2003). The influence of eating location on the acceptability of identically prepared foods. Food Quality and Preference, 14 (pp. 647-52).
- Gustafsson, I.-B., Ostrom, A., Johansson, J. & Mossberg, L. (2006). The Five Aspects Meal Model:

- a tool for developing meal services in restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice*, 17 (pp. 84-93) doi:10.1111/j.1745-4506.2006.00023.
- King SC, Weber AJ, Meiselman HL & Lv N. (2004). The effect of meal situation, social interaction, physical environment and choice on food acceptability, *Food Quality and Preference*, 15 (pp. 645-53).
- Kontukoski, M., Paakki, M., Thureson, J., Uimonen, H., & Hopia, A., 2016, Imagined salad and steak restaurants: Consumers' colour, music and emotion associations with different dishes. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*, 4 (pp. 1-11).
- Magnusson Sporre C., Jonsson I. M., and Pipping Ekstrom M.(2013). The Five Aspects Meal Model, FAMM From Michelin Guide to public meal sector. *Culinary Arts and Sciences. Global, local and national perspectives*, 188-197, Conference Proceedings, International Conference on Culinary Arts and Sciences VIIIICCAS 2013, Porto, Portugal, ISBN: 978-989-8631-08-4
- Mara ry, 2016 a. Hotelli- ja ravintola-alan taskutilasto (2016) Updated 11.4.2017, Available at: <https://www.mara.fi/taskutilasto>.
- Mara ry, 2016 b. Ravintolaruokailu 2016. TNS, (2016). Available at: <https://www.mara.fi/tilasto>.
- Mattila AS. (2001). Emotional bonding and restaurant loyalty. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*.
- Meiselman, H. L. & MacFie H. J. H. (1996). *Food Choice, Acceptance and Consumption*: Edited. By H. L. Meiselman and H. J. H. MacFie. London: Blackie Academic & Professional.
- Meiselman HL, deGraaf C, Leshner LL. (2000). The effects of variety and monotony on food acceptance and intake at a midday meal. *Physiol Behav* 70 (pp. 119-125). 10.1016/S0031-9384(00)00268-7 PubMed: 10978486.
- Meiselman, Herbert L. and Schutz, Howard G. (2003). History of Food Acceptance Research in the US Army. US Army Research. Paper 37, Cited 25.4.2017, available at: <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usarmyresearch/37>.
- Meiselman HL, Hirsch ES, Popper RD. (1987) Sensory, hedonic and situational factors in food acceptance and consumption in: *Food Acceptability* (ed. DMH Thomson). Elsevier: London.
- Makela, J. (2002) *Syömisen rakenne ja kulttuurinen vaihtelu*. Helsinki: Kuluttajatutkimuskeskus.
- Nissen Johansen E, Blom T. (2003). The Fourth International Conference on Culinary Arts and Science Global and National Perspectives.
- Pine, B.J. & Gilmore, J.H. (1999). *The experience economy: work is theatre & every business a stage*. Harvard Business Press.
- Pitkakoski, T. (2015). Elämysperusteisen ruokapalvelutapahtuman tuottamisen konseptointi. Teemallisuus, prosessinomaisuus ja kokonaisvaikutelma markkinoinnin johtamisen haasteena. *Acta Wasaensia* 330, Liiketaloustiede 135.
- Puchta, C., & Potter, J. (2004). *Focus group practice*. London: Sage Publications.
- Raulio, S., & Roos, E. (2012). Työaikaisen aterioinnin väestöryhmäerot ja yhteys ruokavalion laatuun. *Sosiaalitieteellinen aikakauslehti*, 49 (pp. 140-147).
- Robinson, N. (1999). The use of focus group methodology — with selected examples from sexual health research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 29 (pp. 905-913).
- Sobal, J., & Wansink, B. (2007). Kitchenscapes, tablescares, platescapes, and foodscapes influences of microscale built environments on food intake. *Environment and Behavior*, 39 (pp. 124-142).
- Stewart, D., Shamdasani, P., & Rook, D. (2007). *Focus groups. Theory and practice*. Second edition. Thousand Oaks (CA): Sage Publications.

Wansink, B., & Van Ittersum, K. (2012) Fast food restaurant lighting and music can reduce calorie intake and increase satisfaction, *Psychological Reports*, 111(1) (pp. 228-232).

SUSTAINABLE DESERT-TOURISM DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN KHARA, IRAN: A SWOT ANALYSIS APPROACH

Hamed Rezapouraghdam and Banafshe Esmaeili

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, TRNC, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Arid and semi-arid climate and consequently deserts cover much of Iran. Such dry lands provide a little resource for human livelihood and local inhabitants in the periphery. Although the positive contribution of the sustainable form of tourism activities for the development of communities have been discussed a lot in the literature, very few focused on desert-tourism, a potential form in such areas, specifically in Iran. Taking a strategic approach to sustainability, this study intended to determine the opportunities and strength that desert tourism can have in Khara Desert, a peripheral desert in the central part of Iran. Moreover, the weaknesses and threats of desert-tourism in this region were outlined. The findings of the research indicated that desert-tourism can provide many opportunities to the studied area in favor of the local communities' sustainable development. The implications and recommendations were provided at discussion section of the study as well.

Keywords: Desert-tourism; SWOT analysis; Sustainable development; Khara Desert

INTRODUCTION

Approximately 20% of Iran's total area is covered by desserts (Amiraslani & Dragovich, 2011). The climatic characteristics of these regions have provided fewer opportunities for the inhabitants of periphery villages and cities to adequately benefit deserts in Iran. Warm and dry in summers, low rate of rain and dusty winds are some of the features of such areas (Maleki, 2011). However, there are potential capacities in these areas that can shift the negative aspects of these dry lands into opportunities to the sustainable development of the local communities residing around. The golden dunes of deserts, the spectacular flora, and fauna of these drylands and their brilliant night sky are only some of the wonders that can attract travelers. In comparison to the typical tourist destinations such as landscapes, deserts are called "Cinderella" ecosystems that are waiting to be discovered as traveling destinations (Weaver, 2001). Nowadays deserts are becoming increasingly popular tourist destinations, therefore, this study aims to analyze Khara Deserts' resources for desert-tourism and its potential contributions to the sustainable development of the region.

Desert tourism is the tourism activities related to the attractions of deserts that can satisfy the psychological needs of the travelers (e.g. exploration, expedition, camel riding, sand surfing, 4W-driving) (Zeng, 2015). To achieve that purpose an exploratory SWOT analysis research was chosen.

This study contributes to the scarcity of research in the literature on desert-tourism (Weber, 2013) and provides a holistic sustainable strategic planning avenue to the tourism authorities and practitioners in Iran.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The current study seeks to analyze the capacity of Khara Desert (Fig.1) as a destination for desert-tourism. The review of the literature, several hours of sightseeing and surveys from tourism experts and interview with stakeholders in the site region were the source of data for this research. Through this process, the opportunities, threats, strengths and weaknesses (SWOT) of sustainable desert-tourism development in Khara Desert were evaluated. This technique has been used in many studies to evaluate and identify the strategic elements that can affect a destination to reach its full potentials (Goranczewski & Puciato, 2010; Sariisik et al., 2011).

STUDY AREA

The area under study, with the geographical zone of N3223 to N3200 and E5240 to E5247, is located in the south of Isfahan province. "Khara Desert", with the area of about 17000 hectares, has limited to "Gavekhooni Swamp" from the east; to the "Varzaneh Town" from the north and to the "Hasan Abad Town" from the south (<http://www.irandeserts.com>).

Khara Desert has a hot and dry climate and the average rain in this area is about 80 millimeters. "The temperature goes up to 50 °C in summer, and sometimes day and night temperatures can differ up to 70°C" (Esmaeili et al., 2016, 23-24). The area covered by shifting sand dunes.

As can be seen from the above-mentioned information, the area under study suffers from drought. Lack of rain, lack of surface water as well as the lack of ground water have reinforced the climatic situation and caused the movement of sand dunes to the peripheral settlements.



Figure. 1. Khara desert

Source: <http://sahebnews.ir>

Settlement system

“Khara Desert” is located in the south of Esfahan province with a total population of 4,870,000. Also “Khara Desert has surrounded by 5 small towns and 168 villages with the total population of 63475. Urbanization rate in the Isfahan city is about 90.1% and in the Isfahan province is about 85.5% percent, while, 53% of settlements around Khara Desert are living in villages and 47% of the population live in small rural/towns” (Bureau of Statistics and Information, 1391, 121-122). Thus, the scope of research is a relatively rural sub where is located inside the heavily urbanized province. Settlements around Khara Desert generally are small rural/towns with the population of less than 5000, and the most important jobs in these Marginal settlements are Agronomy and husbandry.

Tourism attractions:

The most important tourist attractions of the region besides Khara Desert are Gavkhooni swamp, Salt Lake, and historical old buildings in the peripheral settlements such as castles and ancient inns.

The region under study includes a diverse range of attractions (natural, historic, cultural, etc.). One of the strengths of tourism attractions in the region is the accessibility to a variety of different types of tourist attractions with a distance of less than an hour (a package of tourism attractions). Another major advantage of this region is its proximity to the historical city of Isfahan, a well-known city for tourists in all around the world. This proximity can provide a great opportunity for the region under study to attract visitors from Isfahan to the Khara Desert region.

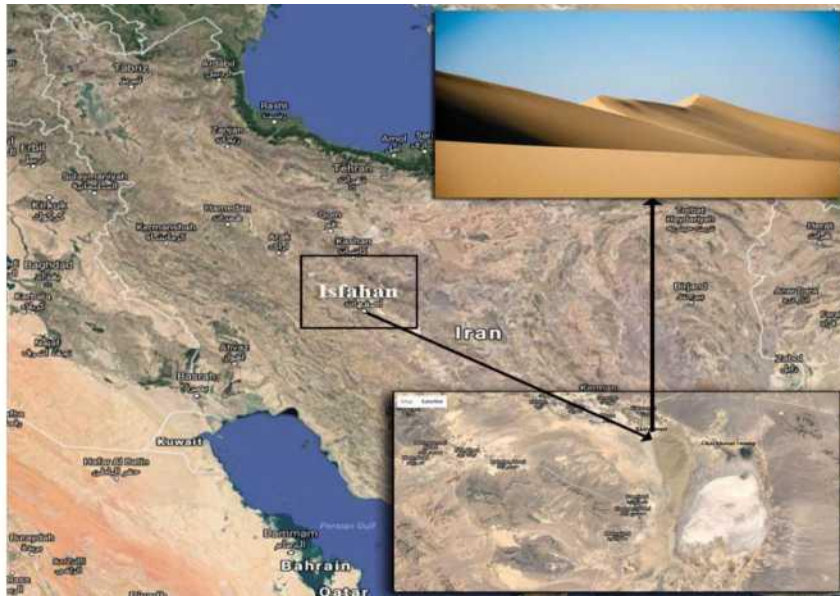


Figure 2. Location of Dashte-Kavir

FINDINGS

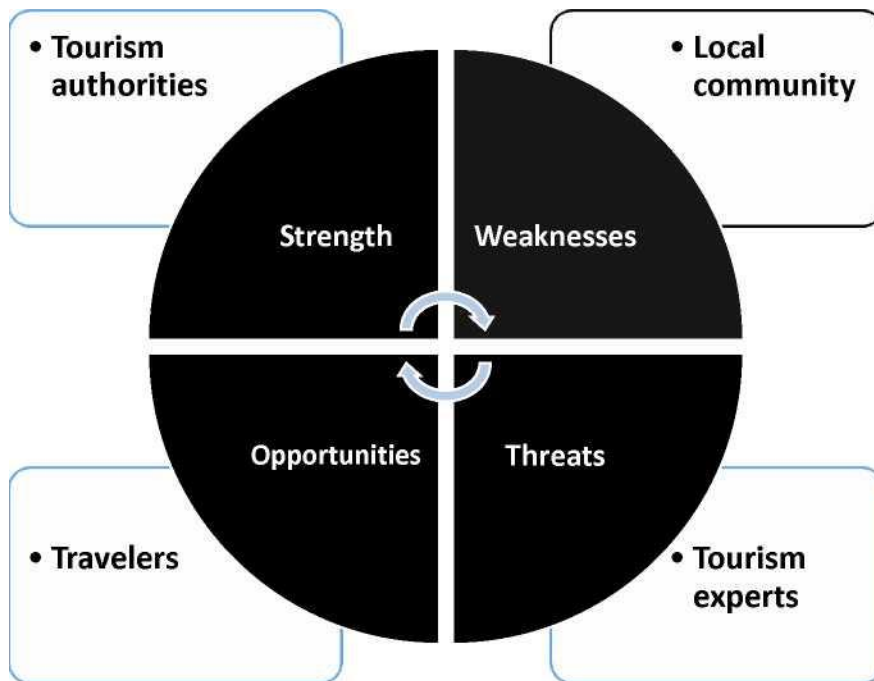


Figure 2. The process of obtaining results.

Source: Authors

Strength:

- Castles and historic houses suitable for tourist resort
- Many historical villages and ancient sites located in the area have increased the attraction of this destination
- Local indigenous is so eager to have tourism and tourists in their community
- The region is very sound and secure
- Intact and unexplored destinations that can create unique experience for travelers
- More than 50 monuments registered on the National Heritage and other valuable historical Monuments

Weaknesses:

- Many of the most historic and natural attractions remain unknown to tourists (e.g Ghourtan castle)
- Lack of physical infrastructure makes environment unsuitable for tourism
- Low level of education and lack of training people to attract tourists
- Lack of suitable infrastructure for tourism
- Exhaustion and the gradual destruction of castles, houses, and monuments

Opportunities:

- Khara Desert, Ghavkhooni swamp, and Salt Lake as the main factors to attract tourists;
- Close to the provincial capital (Isfahan) as one of the major tourism hubs;
- Relatively high potential of local residents to invest and participate in tourism plans
- The study setting is close to Isfahan city, a very famous tourism destination in Iran
- There is much enthusiasm among travelers for ecotourism and rural tourism activities.

Threats:

- This desert is under the risk of manipulation resulted from unsustainable constructions.
- Use of oil mulch as a technique for dune stabilization is threat for development of desert-tourism in the area
- The distinction of fauna and flora in the region decreases the tourism attraction in Khara Desert.
- The climatic change and global warming are shortening the length of desert tourism season.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Desert-tourism is a relatively new idea in Iran tourism sector that if receives enough attention from tourism authorities has huge potential for contributing to the economy, well-being and sustainable development of the peripheral communities to deserts in Iran such as Dashte-Kavir region. Based on the SWOT analysis a number of implications are proposed:

- Infrastructures are the basic needs for tourism development, therefore, the government has to invest in strengthening this aspect in the area.

- Conservation of the ecological resources of the deserts from the threats created by industrialization should be one of the priorities of the local and national stakeholders of tourism in this area.

- Collaboration between Isfahan province and other provinces located in Dashte-Kavir deserts peripheral in order to managing and expanding sustainable desert tourism properly.

- Protecting the historical and cultural monuments within and around the area as comparative advantage of Dashte- Kavir desert in comparison to rival.

- Training and increasing the awareness of the local indigenous about serving and hospitalizing tourists.

- Advertising desert-tourism in Dashte-Kavir and highlighting its distinctiveness at national and international level.

- Applying more sustainable techniques other than using oil mulch for dune stabilization (such as border afforestation).

In sum, this study tried to analysis the potential of developing desert tourism in Dashte-Kavir, Iran. A SWOT evaluation was done and a number of implications and recommendations proposed accordingly. The findings asserted that this region has many strength and opportunities that can be utilized as means for the sustainable development of the region. However, there are some weaknesses identified in this study and threats that can affect such development in the studied area. At the end, it should be noted that the most important step to be taken in this regard, begins with preparing a sustainable management master plan for the region that the current study sheds light to that aim.

REFERENCES

- Amiraslani, F., & Dragovich, D. (2011). Combating desertification in Iran over the last 50 years: an overview of changing approaches. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 92(1), 1-13.
- Eshraghi, M., Toriman, M. E., & Ahmad, H. (2010). Sustainable ecotourism in desert areas in Iran: potential and issue. *e-BANGI: Jurnal Sains Sosial dan Kemanusiaan*, 5(1), 38-51.
- Esmaeili, B., Esmaeili, H., & Molaasadollah, A. (2016). Desert Ecotourism Strategic Planning with an Emphasis on the sustainability of peripheral Desert Settlements: A case study of Dasht-e Kavir. *The international Journal of Environmental Sustainability*, 12(3), 21-32.
- Maleki, B. A. (2011). Traditional sustainable solutions in Iranian desert architecture to solve the energy problem. *International Journal on Technical and Physical Problems of Engineering (IJTPE)*, 6, 84-91.
- Weaver, D. B. (2001). A Regional Survey by Biome. *The Encyclopedia of Ecotourism*, 189.
- Weber, A. S. (2013). Sustainable tourism in extreme environments: Lessons from desert regions.
- Zeng, G. (Ed.). (2015). *Tourism and Hospitality Development Between China and EU*. Springer.
- Goranczewski, B., & Puciato, D. (2010). SWOT analysis in the formulation of tourism development strategies for destinations. *tourism*, 20(2), 45-53.
- Sariisik, M., Turkay, O., & Akova, O. (2011). How to manage yacht tourism in Turkey: A swot analysis and related strategies. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 1014-1025.
- <http://www.irandeserts.com>. Retrieved from Iran desert webpage (21/03/2017) Persian.
- <http://sahebnews.ir>. Retrieved from saheb news.ir webpage (21/03/2017) Persian.

FILM TOURISM AS OPPORTUNITY FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Dana Petranova

Faculty of Mass Media Communication, University of SS Cyril and Methodius in Trnava
Trnava, Slovakia

ABSTRACT

During the last fifty years tourism as a global socio-economic phenomenon has undergone dynamic quantitative and qualitative transformation. The demand for tourism has increased mainly in connection with the growth of standard of living and the change in value preferences related to the growth of social importance of tourism. Tourism has gradually become an integral component of the society's life and a measure of living standards. The tourism industry today is for many countries a strategic sector of the national economy and a source of wealth. The demand for tourism is simultaneously influenced by fashion, current and social trends that reflect the changes in economic and social conditions and lifestyle. As a result of the lifestyles transformation in recent years the behaviour of participants in tourism has been changing which leads to more goal-oriented and more differentiated offer and the emergence of new forms of tourism.

Participants in these new forms of tourism prefer more individual forms of tourism related to more personalized form of learning and gaining experience with high emotional impact. Film tourism might be regarded as one of those specifically oriented and developing forms of tourism.

Nowadays, film tourism is developing rapidly. It is a specifically targeted form of tourism where participants are motivated to visit places that were portrayed in a film or in another audio-visual work.

The introductory part of the contribution deals with the definition of the theoretical basis of tourism and identifies major economic influences and impacts both in the world and the Slovak Republic. The main part of the paper is the analysis of various forms, motivation and the importance of film tourism to tourist destinations. The final part deals with the development of film tourism in the Slovak Republic.

Key Words: film, tourism, film tourism, development

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has many definitions and interpretations. There is no universal definition of tourism and that

is why it has been the subject of research in numerous scientific disciplines including geography, economics, sociology, anthropology, history and psychology. An interdisciplinary approach is particularly apt in its study and definition.

Tourism can be seen through various prisms: a) in terms of transporting people as a transport phenomenon, b) in terms of sociology as the relationship between temporary visitors and local long-term residents of a specific location, c) in terms of geography as a space-time event, d) in terms of economics as a factor in consumption and e) in terms of marketing where film represents an effective tool for destination marketing, which seeks to build an image, promote and increase traffic to tourist destinations. Popular films may be used in the creation of tourism products and to motivate their fans to take their own trips. (Svoboda, Salgovicova, Polakovic, 2013).

A definition of tourism was developed in at the International Conference on Tourism Statistics under the auspices of the World Tourism Organisation (WTO1) in 1991. Subsequently, the UN Statistical Commission adopted and incorporated tourism into the international standardized system of statistics. All these definitions, classifications and indicators were revised in 2008 in a new document issued by the UN Statistics Division and the WTO titled: *International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics* (2008, s. 10), in which tourism is defined as “*activities of persons travelling to cities and moving to places outside their usual environment for less than a specified period for any primary reason (business, leisure or other personal reasons) other than to be employed as a resident entity in the visited location.*“ This excludes travelling within one’s own place of permanent residence, regular trips abroad, temporary moves for work and long-term migration from tourism but does not exclude business and similar work-motivated trips financially reimbursed by an employer at one’s place of residence or travel for the purposes of visiting family and friends (Palatkova, Zichova, 2011, p 11 - 12).

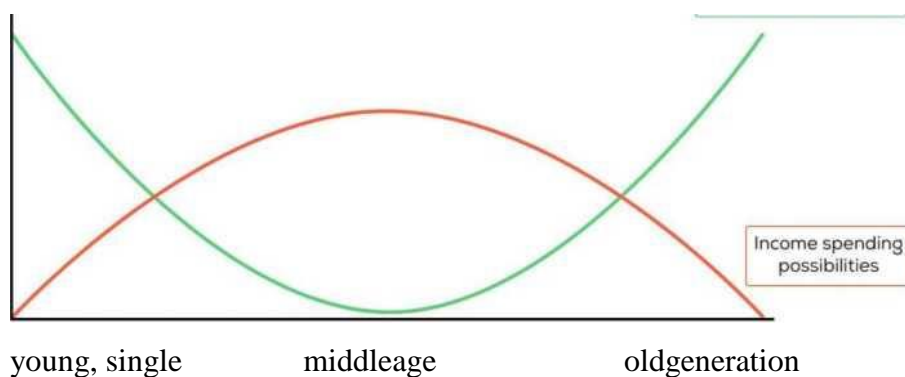
Free time, recreation and travel are all associated with tourism. Free time is a broad, internally structured term that can be viewed from a number of perspectives. Free time can be residual, i.e. the time that remains after the completion of working and non-working obligations.

The ability to participate in tourism may be expressed using the so-called *paradoxical curve at leisure time* during various stages of life which demonstrates the relationship between age and income among tourists (see the illustration: Certik - Fiserova, 2009, p 32)

Illustration 1: Paradoxical curve of leisure time

Paradoxical curve of leisure time

Possibility of spending leisure time



Free time has come to reflect the status, social standing and prestige of individuals. The usage of free time is often affected by social affiliation, i.e. income and the level of one's individual mobility. Changes in values and preferences induce differentiation in tourism supply and demand. The result of this has been the development of new forms of tourism, which includes film tourism. Free time is the space perfectly suited for the fulfilment of many different human needs, including regeneration, regaining balance, resting and finding entertainment.

Terms like tourism, free time, recreation and travelling therefore comprise a set of connected and overlapping phenomena. The classification of individual forms of tourism is driven by the motivations and content of activities of tourists themselves. In addition to basic forms of tourism, other alternative and specific forms of tourism also exist (including volunteering, religious, shopping, adventure, thematic and other types of tourism), including film tourism.

DEFINITION OF FILM TOURISM

The relationship between film and tourism gained attention in specialised, nearly exclusively American and British, studies beginning in the middle of the 1980s. These studies examined the relationship between film and increased tourist traffic in the depicted destinations. Over the subsequent three decades, film tourism study expanded as a research subject and in terms of regional interest in parallel with its development into a global phenomenon. Contemporary research into film tourism can be divided into two primary categories: economic research (mapping the most important film destinations and the influence of film tourism in connection with the destination management and marketing activities) and sociological research (analysing the social influence of film tourism on the life of the local community and the profile, motivation and experience of film tourists, etc.) (Conell, 2012). As noted in the introduction, the study of tourism requires a holistic, multi-disciplinary approach. Film tourism is considered a specific form of cultural tourism among domestic

and foreign authors (Pravdova, 2015). Literary tourism may be considered its predecessor. Both are considered experiential cultural tourism. A typical characteristic of these tourists is that they seek interactive activities and experiences that differ from the mundane nature and monotony of everyday life with the ability to influence the expectations for the destination itself and stimulate tourist traffic through the emotional connection with the story that is told or the primary characters in a story.

Film tourism has been studied by a number of scientific disciplines and is associated with a variety of terms in various specialised and scientific sources: *Film Tourism*, *Teletourism*, *Film-induced Tourism*, *Movie-induced Tourism*, *Screen Tourism*, *Media Tourism* and even *Cult Geography*.

Film tourism is considered a specific form of cultural tourism among domestic and foreign authors. Literary tourism may be considered its predecessor. Both are considered experiential cultural tourism. A typical characteristic of these tourists is that they seek interactive activities and experiences that differ from the mundane nature and monotony of everyday life with the ability to influence the expectations for the destination itself and stimulate tourist traffic through the emotional connection with the story that is told or the primary characters in a story.

Film tourism has been studied by a number of scientific disciplines and is associated with a variety of terms in various specialised and scientific sources (Karpovich, 2010): *Film Tourism*, *Teletourism*, *Film-induced Tourism*, *Movie-induced Tourism*, *Screen Tourism*, *Media Tourism* and even *Cult Geography*.

HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF FILM TOURISM

Film tourism is essentially a by-product of cinematography and demand for film tourism is largely derived from the success and popularity of a film with audiences.

The first feature film that influenced tourism development is considered *Mutiny on the Bounty* from 1935. The island of Tahiti featured in the film suddenly became a popular tourist destination. The musicals of the 1950s and 1960s likewise induced significant tourism interest. One film of note is the musical *The Sound of Music* from 1965, which was filmed around Salzburg, Austria.

Major tourism development came about together with innovations and technological development in transport and related international tourism in combination with the global phenomenon of Hollywood cinematography and the production of blockbuster films. These films were primarily eye-catching action, horror and science fiction films (such as director Steven Spielberg's horror film *Jaws*). Visual effects and 3D projection now playing a greater role (such as in *The Lord of the Rings* and *Harry Potter*). In addition to blockbuster films, television serials (especially those from America) have provided a real boost to the development of tourism. The epic fantasy *Game of Thrones* produced by the American cable channel HBO has been the driving force behind film tourism in several of the locations where the serial is filmed (Northern Ireland, Croatia and Malta).

CHARACTERISTICS OF FILM TOURISTS

The definition of a target group for film tourism is demanding given that individual films and television programmes have very different audiences, both in terms of quality and quantity. A typology of film tourists may be based on the premise that film tourists are only those who truly set out to visit a filming location, attraction or an event in a film. Their motivation is typically to satisfy a specific need. In the case of tourism, this represents the connection of internal or *push* needs (socio-psychological needs of the individual) and external or *pull* factors (especially the attractiveness of the destination). (Heitmann, 2010).

Three types of film tourists have been identified within this context (Macionis, 2004):

Table: Typology of film Tourist

INCREASING INTEREST IN FILM →		
CASUAL FILM TOURIST	OCCASIONAL FILM TOURIST	DECIDED FILM TOURIST
HE DOES NOT SEARCH FOR FILM LOCATIONS BUT VISITS THEM UNINTENTIONALLY DURING HOLIDAYS	HE VISITS FILM LOCATIONS BUT THEY ARE NOT THE MAIN OBJECTIVE OF HIS TRIP	ACTIVELY SEARCHES FOR FILM LOCATIONS WHICH ARE THE MAIN OBJECTIVE OF HIS TRIP
MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SOCIAL CONTACTS • ORIGINALITY 	MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESCAPE FROM EVERYDAY REALITY • ORIGINALITY • NEW KNOWLEDGE • NOSTALGY 	MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BOOSTING EGO • SELFACTUALIZATION • SEARCHING FOR IDENTITY • STATUS, PRESTIGE • DREAMS AND FANTASIES • EXPERIENCE • EMOTIONS AND NOSTALGY
THE GROWING IMPORTANCE OF SELF-REALIZATION →		→
THE DECLINING IMPORTANCE OF AUTHENTICITY →		→
THE GROWING INFLUENCE OF PRESSURE FACTORS →		→

Film tourists primarily seek experiences that allow them to immerse themselves into the story or a specific character by borrowing a film star's status or having the "privilege" of being present at the location the film or program was shot or directly on-set when a film is being shot. These experiences are presented as unusual, original, unique and unforgettable. Film tourism involves physical travel for the purposes of visiting a virtual place. According to Roesch (2009, pp 8 - 9) there is a need within the context of those involved in film tourism to differentiate between film tourist (involved in all forms of tourism) and film location tourist (film tourists who seek exclusively to visit specific locations depicted in the scenes of films and in television serials). Within this context, the success of a film tourism destination depends on the alignment of the imagination and expectations of film tourists with their actual experience from visiting the location. The feeling that they can be a part of

the story is critical in this instance. There is a need to ensure the appearance and atmosphere of the filming locations are approximated when building attractions and offering products thematically associated with the film. There is also another need to consider the fact that an excessive number of tourists or over-commercialisation typically has a negative effect on the quality of the experiences enjoyed by film tourists.

EFFECTS OF FILMS ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Films play an important role in the lives of people. They serve as a source of information and emotions that allow us to “experience” a broad spectrum of events and experiences (Hud^kova, 2013). They can take us to real and imagined locations around the world and even in space. Films take the audience on an imaginary ride that indirectly stimulates interest in travel in general and the desire to visit the places that are shown.

Film tourism offers unique experiences that cannot be provided by any other form of tourism. The audience can physically see and “touch” a place related to their favourite film. This can drive up interest among tourists in locations that had absolutely no visitors before a film is shot. Tourist destinations have the opportunity to work with this potential and to use film and television programs to build up an original brand simply by presenting the destination. The attractiveness of a destination for film production is influenced by costs, the uniqueness of the location, the quality and capacity of film industry infrastructure and the competency and skill of local film crews. Film tourism must be able to attract today’s tourists. These tourists are experienced and have a vast array of options to choose from. In terms of tourism, the primary benefit of film over other audiovisual works is in raising awareness for less well -known tourism destinations. Multiple studies have shown that films can influence consumer behaviour and can generate significant growth in traffic rates to locations used as filming locations. Participation in film tourism is influenced by the activities of destination management organisations and film commissions, government support and different attractive offers in terms of destinations and specific factors associated with the film. Aside from Hollywood blockbusters, classic films that represent milestones in the history of film-making (because of their high artistic value, unique characteristics, innovativeness and influence on subsequent film production) and those characterised by unconventionality and controversy have the best ability to interest international audiences and then attract film tourists. Visual attractiveness, an idyllic landscape, a romantic plot line in the film or a dark and secret filming location are all good prerequisites.

FILM TOURISM PRODUCTS

Every cinematic story has the potential to create tourism products. If this marketing potential is understood and developed, products based on a cinematic story may contribute to the expansion of

options for tourists and an increase in the attractiveness and traffic at a specific building, location or destination. In general, it is true that films with an explicitly defined connection between the filming location and the events in the film have the greatest potential with regards to the creation of film tourism products. Securing copyrights to a film or another audiovisual work is one of the conditions for creating film tourism products. Suitable film tourism products in this context include:

- filming locations where the film crew left behind film scenery and props,
- the sale of thematic souvenirs, staging and the organisation of thematic events,
- one-day film excursions abroad to visit well-known film locations,
- film maps and guides in printed or electronic form.

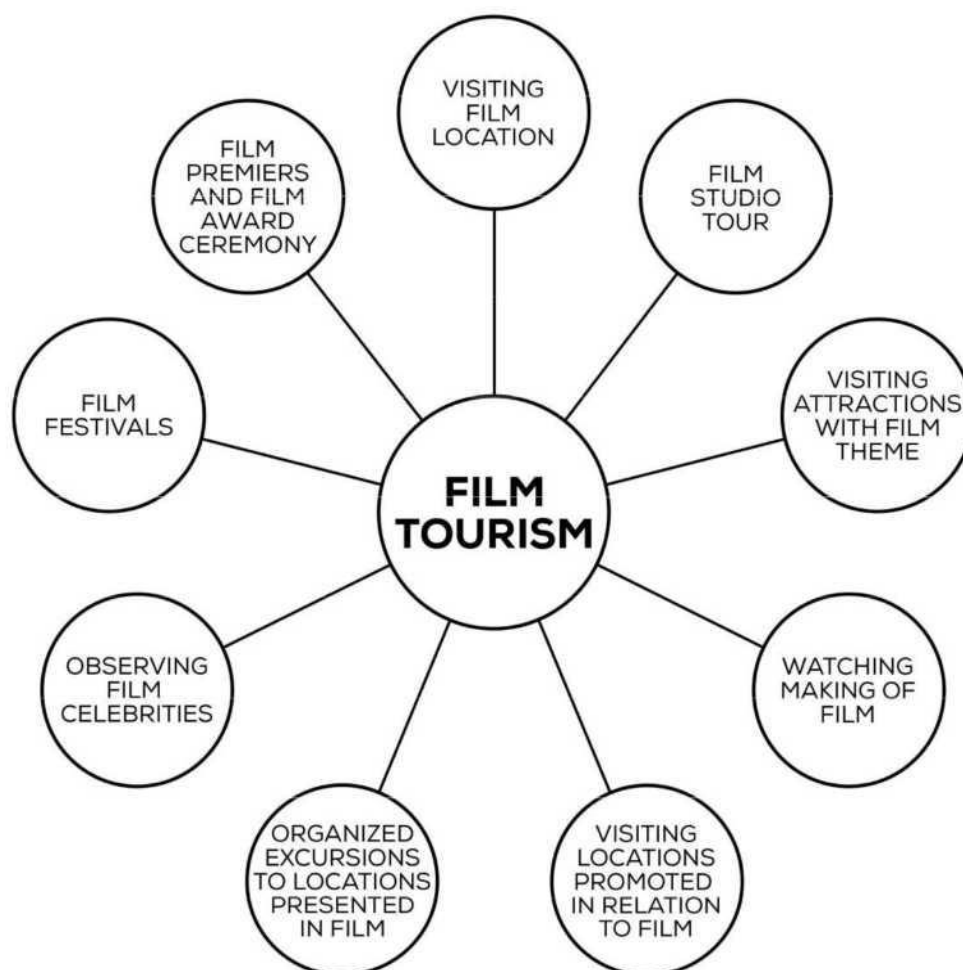
Increased spending by tourists is one of the positive impacts of increased tourist traffic induced by a film or other audiovisual work. In terms of the individual forms of film tourism, the highest traffic, and therefore revenues, are generated by film studio theme parks (such as Disney's Hollywood Studios in Florida and Universal Studios in California). Tourism destinations also generate economic benefits from film festivals. The benefit of this short-term type of tourism activity is primarily derived from the synergistic effects of the event itself, as visitors use accommodations, food service establishments and other services at the given destination. Film premieres are another opportunity to generate extraordinary tourism-driven revenues, even though these are irregular and one-off events. It is important to emphasise that films do generate immediate economic benefits during filming from the film crew staying in the filming location. While this is a short-term economic benefit, it can have a positive impact on the regional economy overall. Filming locations also profit from the free publicity they receive thanks to media interests in the film itself and the cast. Other benefits from film tourism include tax revenues, new jobs, support and the creation of new business opportunities in the tourism sector, modernisation and the diversification of tourism services, the creation of an image and brand for a tourism destination and increasing interest in environmental conservation. Conversely, the quick tempo and extreme intensity of film tourism development exerts tremendous pressure on the infrastructure of filming locations. Some residents in these locations have a negative impression of the publicity and popularity induced by filming a serial or film. They are primarily concerned with a loss of privacy, the degradation of authenticity and the overall commercialisation of the environment in which they live.

FILM AS A DESTINATION MARKETING TOOL

Destination marketing intends to increase traffic and build a positive image for the destination to influence its perception and the expectations of potential visitors. Films are one of the available sources of information that a potential visitor may use in deciding on where to visit. Communication is a critical prerequisite for creating demand for tourism. At the beginning, it is important to attract

interest and then foster the motivation and desire to travel among potential visitors. Films and audiovisual programs may use destination management organisations to create a brand for the destination with location placement used in this instance, specifically the placement of the destination inside a film plot. As mentioned previously, if destination management organisations want to make full use of the potential of films and television series to support tourism, there must be active support to attract film productions to their regions. The integration of actors and characters into destination promotions through interviews and advertising videos is another suitable activity. Social networks, travel portals and mobile applications also play an important role in film tourism marketing. Once filming is complete, the next step is *merchandising* of tourism products thematically associated with the film project and developing the image of the filming location with the goal of attracting new and repeat film tourists.

Illustration 2: Aspects of film tourism (Connell, 2012, p 1010)



Film tourism may have positive and negative effects on the destination itself. The significant increase in tourist spending and tax revenues, the new jobs that are created, the improvement and diversification of local services and increased interest in environmental conservation are balanced

out by the quick tempo of film tourism development, which puts pressure on local infrastructure, raises prices, changes the local labour market and the business environment, turns off certain groups of visitors, reduces the privacy for local residents and can reduce the authenticity of the destination itself. Destination management organisations must actively intervene in the development of film tourism to ensure positive impacts are maximised and the negatives are mitigated. Properly implemented marketing can even increase tourist traffic outside of the primary tourist season. Film tourism has tremendous potential for growth as a new form of tourism, in which demand has not yet been met and competition is relatively low. However, thorough scientific research into film tourism is still lacking.

FILM TOURISM IN SLOVAKIA

Film tourism in Slovakia is represented by two driving types of tourism: filming in attractive locations and film festivals. The latter is particularly well-developed given the relatively small size of the country and its population. In general, film tourism in Slovakia continues to have significant untapped potential, which has not yet been fully explored. Just as in Czech Republic, there is a long-term lack of interest in supporting film and the audiovisual arts from the government in Slovakia as well. Many film festivals and screenings, both large and small, exist but a more comprehensive and targeted offer for film tourists is lacking. Foreign and domestic filmmakers have filmed successful films in Slovakia but there is almost no promotion of filming locations. The organisations involved have so far completely ignored this need and film tourists lack sufficient information and motivation. (Zauskova, Rybansky, Miklencicova, 2015)

SLOVAK FILM LOCATIONS

Foreign film-makers have been happy to add Slovak cities, castles, chateaus and Slovakia in general to their shooting locations for films. Among the best known international projects include a serial about a beautiful and brave princess named Fantaghiro, played by actress Alessandra Martinez, in *Fantaghiro* and *The Cave of the Golden Rose* (1991 - 1996). The fairy-tale was filmed at Bojnice Chateau.

Spis Castle was another castle that attracted foreign film-makers in 1996. The castle and the beautiful Slovak Paradise National Park appeared in the film *Dragonheart* (1996). The film starred Dennis Quaid and Sean Connery.

The blockbuster *Peacemaker* (1997) with George Clooney perhaps resonated the most. Bratislava was used in the film to depict Vienna and a war-ravaged Sarajevo. St. Martin's Cathedral was used to stand in for a cathedral in New York with Hviezdoslav Square and nearby streets mimicking Vienna and yards and areas full of ruins used to represent a bombed-out Sarajevo.

The fantasy historical film *Kull the Conqueror* (1997) with Kevin Sorbo, best known for the role of

Hercules, was filmed at Devin Castle with water scenes shot on the Danube and the film studios on Koliba in Bratislava used for interior scenes.

A replica of Warsaw's Jewish ghetto was constructed in Bratislava for the filming of the war-period drama *Uprising* (2001) with Donald Sutherland. Critics consider *Uprising* to be one of the highest quality film projects that American studios completed in Slovakia.

Behind Enemy Lines (2001) with Owen Wilson and Gene Hackman was filmed in the forests of central and eastern Slovakia.

The Czech film drama from director Ondrej Trojan named *Zelary* (2003) with Anna Geislerova is a story from occupied Czechoslovakia in the 1940s when the main character was forced to hide in the mountains around the hamlet of Zelary. These film-makers used the Mala Fatra mountains and specifically Zazriva and in the attractive tourist destination of Terchova.

The adventure film *Eragon* (2006) with Jeremy Irons was primarily filmed in Hungary but the Tatra Mountains and Slovak Paradise National Park make appearances.

[Spis Castle was the site of filming for the film The Last Legion in 2007.](#) This feature film was set during of the fall of the Roman Empire and starred Ben Kingsley. It was filmed at Spis Castle and Cerveny Kamen Castle. The television serial *Marco Polo* was filmed in Slovakia in 2015. A crew of around 500 people filmed in the High Tatras at Sliezsky dom and later in Slovak Paradise National Park and the Sul'ov Rocks nature preserve in Bytca. Around 20 nationalities from around the world, including from New Zealand, Australia, Kazakhstan, China and Mongolia among others, were involved in shooting scenes depicting Mongolia and China in the Sul'ov Rocks nature preserve. The company invested more than €2.1 million in Slovakia during their two-week stay in the country.

FILM FESTIVALS

The *Ekotopfilm* film festival is in its 43rd year and is the oldest festival of its kind in the world. The festival has more than 5000 partnerships in more than 58 countries around the world. It is the largest festival of its kind in

[Slovakia. Cumulatively, the festival has welcomed](#) more than 1 million visitors. The Ekotopfilm film festival has [shown the ability to bring the public, private and](#) third sector together in a single platform to address the issue of [sustainable development. It has become one](#) of the largest and most visited film events in the country. The principles of sustainable development have been applied since 1974 and they were officially declared at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. The film festival is unique globally for bringing together the private, public and third sector. This platform combining these three sectors is unique in the world and is extremely respected and appreciated abroad. (www.ekotopfilm.sk)

International Mountain Film Festival. This prestigious event is thematically focused on the

mountains and life in them. Over its previous editions, the organisers have managed to integrate this festival in Poprad into professional global film-making structures, building up quality contacts with production centres, television companies and film-makers around the world. The International Mountain Film Festival in Poprad was accepted as a member of the International Alliance for Mountain Film in December 2000, which brings together the 20 most important mountain film festivals from around the world. The festival annually screens a broad spectrum of films from nearly forty countries on five continents. The festival regularly hosts prominent guests, including travellers and artists and documentary film producers. (www.mfhf.sk)

International Film Festival Bratislava is another major festival that is dominated by a broad international orientation and a distinctive urban esprit. The festival began eighteen years ago and it continues to draw attention to young film and the outstanding talents in contemporary world cinematography. (www.bratislavaiff.sk)

The *International Film Festival in Trencianske Teplice* offers a range of thematic categories, one of which is dedicated to screening short and medium-length films made by film students. The program reflects film's history and its present. In a formal sense, it gives the audience more accessible and eye-opening works that strive to push the boundaries of the traditional language of film. The mission of IFF Trencianske Teplice is to contribute to a better understanding of global and European film culture. It seeks to provide Slovak audiences with the opportunity to directly interact with films and their creators. IFF Trencianske Teplice is an important cultural event that has been enriching cultural life in the spa town and the entire region for nearly a quarter century. The event is traditionally held at the end of June and is a celebration of film art and a symbolic way to kick off the summer season. (www.festivalteplce.sk)

The *Artfilm* film festival was established in 1993, just like Slovakia itself. It holds the record as the longest running international film festival to operate without interruption. The Artfilm festival provides ample opportunity to present the latest works from global cinematography and important historical films as well as a quality selection of samples from the Slovak audiovisual scene. Feature-length and short films compete in the two separate yet dominant competitive categories at the festival. Submissions in both categories are judged by an international jury who awards top prizes, a Blue Angel award, to the best film, director, actor and actress. The non-competitive categories showcase the works of established artists, major films in national cinematography, iconic images that have written themselves into the history of cinematography, technically-focused film projects as well as profiles and retrospectives of award-winning artists. One of the permanent challenges facing the Artfilm festival's organisers is winning over and inspiring Slovak audiences to embrace

cinematography while educating and training film fans and enthusiasts. The philosophy of the festival is to generate spontaneous interest in the audience to attract students and young people. The Artfilm festival is characterised by a great atmosphere, an attractive program, stars and other dignitaries and ten thousand visitors. (www.artfilmfest.sk)

Cinematik is an international film festival held in Piest'any and is one of the largest film gatherings in Slovakia. It was established in 2006 and grew rapidly, welcoming more than 16,000 visitors during its 4th edition. The festival delivers more than 70 feature-length and short films every September with emphasis on European and Slovak cinematography. (www.cinematik.sk)

The *International Film Clubs Festival Febiofest* is a tribute to authors and club cinematography. [Febiofest](http://www.febiofest.sk) screens more than a hundred feature-length and short films in 10 categories and at premieres the public has the opportunity to get to know new domestic films and gain insight into the golden fund of world cinematography. A key program section is the short film competition named *In the middle of Europe*. (www.febiofest.sk)

CONCLUSION

The development of film tourism is based on more than simple demand. An increase in tourist traffic figures because of a film or other audio-visual work is simply a by-product and not their intended effect. Most film [productions don't consider the effects their work](#) may have on future tourism development when selecting a [filming location. This issue must be examined](#) from the other side to develop the potential it offers vis-a-vis [destination management and tourism services](#). The engagement of national tourism agencies and boards and destination management organisations has become more prominent recently and they have begun to develop activities for stimulating demand for film tourism and who attempt to appear "*film friendly*" to attract film productions to the region. The development of film tourism should be sensitive to the local environment and directed by a destination management organisation to ensure financial benefits are maximised and to ensure cultural and environmental threats are kept to a minimum.

REFERENCES

- Certik, M. - Fiserova, V. (2009): *Volny cas, zivotm styl a cestovm ruch*. Praha: Vysoka skola hotelova v Praze. Connell, J. (2012): Film tourism - Evolution, Progress and Prospects. *Tourism Management*. 7, (5), 1007 - 1029. Heitmann, S. (2010): Film Tourism Planning and Development-Questioning the Role of Stakeholders and Sustainability. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*. 7 (1), 31-46 [online]:
http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/14790530903522606#.UudAS_tNyt8
Hudikova, Z. (2013): Emotions as a commodity. In: *Marketing communications and society*. Prague: VSFS. Karpovich, A., I. (2010): *Theoretical Approaches to Film-Motivated Tourism*. Tourism

and Hospitality Planning & Development, 33 (1), 7-20,

[online]:

<[http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/14790](http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/14790530903522580#.Ut8nJPtNyt8)

530903522580#.Ut8nJPtNyt8>.

Macionis, N. (2014): Understanding the Film-Induced Tourist. In International Tourism and Media Conference Proceedings, 86 - 97.

Palatkova, M. & Zichova, J. (2011): Ekonomika turismu: turismus Ceske republiky: vymezem a fungovam trhu turismu, pnstupy k hodnocem vyznamu a vlivu turismu, charakteristika turismu Ceske republiky. Praha: Grada Publishing.

Pravdova, H. (2015): Manazment and marketing v kulturnych instituciach. Bratislava: UK BA.

Roesch, S. (2009): The Experiences of Film Location Tourists. Bristol: Channel View.

Svoboda, J., Salgovicova, J. & Polakovic, A. (2013): Religion and tourism in Slovakia. European Journal of Science and Theology. 9 (6), 125-132.

UNWTO Department of Economic and Social Affairs Statistics Division: International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 [online]:

<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/SeriesM/series_8_3rev1e.pdf>.

Zauskova, A., Rybansky, R. & Miklencicova, R. (2016): Eco Innovations in Slovakia and Their Marketing Communication. 3rd International Conference on Applied Social Science Research, May 22-23, 2015 Beijing, China/edited by: Li Chen.- Paris : Atlantis Press.

INTERNET SOURCES

www.artfilmfest.sk

www.bratislavaiff.sk

www.cinematik.sk

www.ekotopfilm.sk

www.febiofest.sk

www.festivalteplce.sk

www.mfhf.sk

THE ROLE OF URBAN SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY IN ACHIEVEMENT OF URBAN TOURISM: THE CASE OF IRAN'S TRADITIONAL ARCHITECTURE

Azar Ghaedi

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University,
Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

Ehsan Valipour

Faculty of architecture, Sapienza University,
Rome, Italy

Sedigheh Safshekan

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University,
Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

Samira Tayyebisoudkolaei

Faculty of architecture, Islamic Azad University,
Sari, Iran

Abstract

Social sustainability as part of the sustainability column has a specific role in the human aspects of cities. Nowadays, social sustainability as emerging issue of urban planning could collect many mentions to importance of social community and gathering. Iran's traditional architecture as one of rich architecture of Middle East has massive social practices in urban scale to enhance outdoor life quality. The harsh climate of central regions of Iran has caused traditional architects find some solutions and innovations in development of social gatherings in urban planning. This study will follow urban social sustainability based on two main factors: community and equity by study on literatures and case studies of Iran's traditional architecture to catch that how these architectural designs could be effective on urban socialization. Firstly there is some brief information on case studies to define these and their function. Secondly, this paper has evaluates based on comparative cases social sustainability factors as described. This study is following social sustainability principles by compare architectural role of case studies that how Iran's traditional architecture could solve urban socialization with modern architectural theories.

Key words: Social sustainability, Iran's traditional architecture, social community, social equity

1. Introduction

The earth history of cities appears to indicate that as much as half of the human population was attracted to life in a city. If this trend were to continue into the future, then a very large proportion of population growth over the coming decades will have moved to live in cities (Nations, 2012) (Vojnovic, 2014). With urban growth anywhere in the world, urban sustainability and humanitarian

maters are more connected with cities to improve residents daily life in respect of physical, cultural and social issues (Sassen, 2011) (Stossel, 2015) (Holden, M., Roseland, M., Ferguson, K., Perl, A., 2008) (Rees, 1997) (Marans, 2015).

Science mentions matters concerning sustainable development were being seriously considered beginning two decades ago. Urban designers and planners in most of the industrialized realized nations have been trying to understand realize applied concepts of sustainability in the urban setting (WCED, 1987) (Malbert, 1998) (Malekpour, S., Rebekah, R. Brown, 2015) (Childers, D., Pickett, S., 2014). As it mentioned, one of sustainable development's concerns is a sustainable city that has a high population living there. Janks et al in 1998, has noted that sustainable city should prepare acceptable support and living condition for local residents (Vallance, S., Perkins, H.C. Dixon, J.E., 2011). Also there are some sets of features of urban sustainability but unfortunately, none of them has universal acceptance to employ them in urban planning (Mitchell, 1996).

Some of these concepts have a specific focus about neighborhood gatherings or social community matters (Atkisson, 1996) (McAlpine, P., Birnie, A., 2005) (Roberts, 2000) (Tasser, E., Sternbach, E., Tappeiner, U., 2008) (Rapport, 2007) but other ideas have applied to aim of organization or projects as a comparative training (European Communities, 2001) (Pulselli, 2008) (Schlossberg, M., Zimmerman, A., 2003) (Tiezzi, E., Bastianoni, S., 2008) (Turcu, 2012).

Social sustainability as a new notion has added recently to the general concept of sustainable development in recent of policy debate and the availability of academic literature in regard to theory and training in sustainable development (Vallance, S., Perkins, H.C. Dixon, J.E., 2011)(Murphy, 2012). Many scholars believe social sustainability has always occupied a specific position as part of the main column of sustainable development (Colantonio, 2009) (Woodcraf, 2012). But there are many questions about the goals of social sustainability which is open to different views without a consensus on how these goals will be defined (Hopwood, B., Mellor, M., O'Brien, G., 2005) (Littig, B., Griessler, E., 2005) (Dempsey, N., Bramley, G., Power, S., Brown, C., 2011).

One of important issue to addition social sustainability in urban scale is cities combination with social communities and equity, where people would be able to be there, which means have extreme attention to their social problems that could be reflect by planning base on social sustainability (Woodcraf, 2012) (Vallance, S., Perkins, H.C. Dixon, J.E., 2011).

The structure of this study is as follows. To figure out the main issue, at first, here are some brief definitions about social sustainability by literature review in the next part. This section will be divided into two main features of social sustainability, social into community and social equity. The third part will be focused on two case studies from Iran's traditional architecture in Isfahan city. This part shows how Iranian traditional architecture could solve the social issues in their urban dimension also analyze their social innovation performance. These two examples would be explaining base on social

sustainability's parameters that described in previous part. Also the important of this section is because of aim of this study to follow that how these examples could do their task in development of social sustainability. The last part as a conclusion, wraps up this study by make bold research findings. This study is mainly qualitative. The data collection of this research is based on documentary exploration. The main study method in this paper is subsequent content analysis. The part of literature reviews, will be study on some previous work done to discover basic parameters of social sustainability. The case study part has been divided into two parts, preliminary and detailed. Preliminary study has been done to recognize case studies that have contributed to development of social sustainability. As a second part, detailed study has focus on social features that have been used in these cases. The aim of this study is trying to understand how social issues have been established by these examples of traditional Iranian architecture to make acceptable human social life. The next part prepares a brief overview of some studies to define social sustainability features that established in urban scale.

2. Social sustainability definition and classification

Cities as social facilities have always been main role in human gatherings (Townsend, 2013). The other words, cities are like engines to search social issues to provide people for being with each other (Glaeser, 2013) (Monfaredzadeh, T., Krueger, R., 2015). Knox (Knox, 2011) believes, exclusive urban spaces are built with the aim of human socialization, by groups of citizens and they will create their distinctive character in their habitat. And it will be gain to gradually associate themselves with their surrounding neighborhoods and improve society, to catch their requests. He believes, in the social notion language, urban space is structuring and structured (El-Husseiny, M., Kesseiba, K., 2012).

A real literature of social sustainability would construe it as main player to retain society; make definition of social is coming from society or organization and sustainability would be able to be preserve at a determined rate (Woodcraf, 2012). Colantion et al has defined social sustainability as a way that individuals, societies and communities can be able being together also collection to gain development types which have choose ability for themselves (Colantonio, 2009) (El-Husseiny, M., Kesseiba, K., 2012).

The social sustainability view can be dividing to two main general issues; at first, it can make wide form and collected set of request identified by residents, rather than listing the experimented social impacts. Secondly, social sustainability has specific mention to temporal outlook, both of past and future but social impact can be achieve by focus more on present time or operate one or social license to operate (Lockie, S., Franettovich, M., Petkova-Timmer, V., Rolfe, J., Ivanova, G., 2009) (Petkova, V., Lockie, S., Rolfe, J., Ivanova, G., 2014) (Rolfe, J., Miles, B., Lockie, S., Ivanova, G., 2007) (Tiainen, H., Sairinen, R., Novikov, V., 2014) (Prno, J., Slocombe, D.S., 2012) (Prno, 2013). In this

way, Litting and Griessler have mentioned to social sustainability with make bold some issues such as basic needs consent, life quality, social equity, coherence and community (Littig, B., Griessler, E., 2005). In addition, the other parameters in social sustainability would be significant because of being broad concept such as well-being, human capital and social capital (Colantonio, A., Dixon, T., 2010) (Weingaertner, C., Moberg, Å., 2011) (Murphy, 2012) (Magee, L., Scerri, A., James, P., 2012). But there are the other issues which have bold role in society socialization such as equality, democracy and social justice, social values, cultural traditions and ways of gathering (Koning, 2001) (Agyemana, 2008) (Vallance, S., Perkins, H.C. Dixon, J.E., 2011).

Some scholars such as Dempsey believe, social sustainability is an obscure concept and the consensus on clear definition is not powerful. Nevertheless, social sustainability in urban scale can be classified by two concepts; social equity and sustainable community which this classification has presented in Table 1, (Dempsey, N., Bramley, G., Power, S., Brown, C., 2011) (Davidson, 2010) (Murphy, 2012).

Table 1

Classification of social sustainability

Author	Social Classification	Description of Policy Objective
Measurement of social sustainability	Social equity	Reducing inequality in life chances by ensuring local access to key services
	Sustainable community	Encouraging social interaction/social networks in the community Encouraging participation in collective groups in the community Engendering a sense of pride in the local place Ensuring safety and security

2.1. Social community

Social community in sustainable development can be define as interesting place that residents prefer to live or work there, now and for future. They meet the various set of needs in present and future, also habitant are susceptible for their environmental condition to reach acceptable life quality. The main pillar of social sustainability can be ability of society itself. Manifestation of any of local community can be help full to sustain and rehabilitate itself to reach qualified rate of social organization function (Coleman, 1988) (Dempsey, N., Bramley, G., Power, S., Brown, C., 2011). Based on European policy expression, sustainable communities have social sustainability aspects which include a sense of safety, security and active community. The other definitions of social community are claimed that in sense a community should occupy a safe and healthy place (Burton, E., Mitchell, L., 2006) also a sense of place or place attachment has a major role creating stability of

social contact and feeling of community. (Ghahramanpouri, A., Saifuddin, A., Sedaghatnia, S., Lamit, H., 2015). Tsenkova (2009) believes social sustainability is a communal interest's for instance personal attachment or cultural heritage to neighborhood or locality as resident's living place. In fact, community has a social aspect base on people network or connections with common and shared interest also expect to support mutual recognition (Tsenkova, 2009). Dempsey (2008) argues community in social sustainability has defined in relatively abstract condition as provide healthy and sense of place with qualified public design (Dempsey, 2008).

2.2. Social equity

Social equity could be identify the justice repartition of resources also prevent of exclusionary training, it means provide peace condition to habitant being in socially, economically, politically and accessibility (Pierson, 2002) also define how to reach these services and facilities (Barton, 2000). The social equity major has mention to reject any limitation of services and facilities accessibilities in selected region. This definition obviously refers the embeddedness of social equity base on concept of sustainable development to gain present and future needs (Hopwood, B., Mellor, M., O'Brien, G., 2005) (Chiu, 2002) (WCED, 1987) (Holden, E., Linnerud, K., 2007). Some of studies on social equity have classified this issue into two main groups, the first one is horizontal equity to aim of equal conduct of people in equal condition, the second one is vertical equity with mention to unequal behavior when people are in unequal condition (Lampman, 1977) (Headey, 1978). In the case of urban issues, social equity has relation with environmental and social exclusion.

One of fair society signs could be no exclusionary and discriminatory and be justice chance for people to have socially, politically and economically participation (Pierson, 2002) (Ratcliffe, 2000). Urban equity has functional role sustainable development especially in social sustainability to gain ideas and aspirations. The aim of urban equity is gain more development in society and has role in increasing of equal relation rates also this subject became as aim by main decision-makers to improve city's lives for all. Mention to issue of lives for all has caused redefine urban useful infrastructure and tools and being as urban policy agenda to ensure shared success also improve city's flexible capacity to gain more partnership in society. In urban equity, territorial justice will be happen if services accessibility had equalized in geographical areas that it should be refer to horizontal equity (Kay, 2005). Accessibility has bold role in social equity and commonly identified as fundamental measure. This issue has direct mention to social urban sustainability with unlimited accessibility to urban key services and facilities (Barton H. a., 2000) (Burton, 2000).

3. Iran's traditional cities

Historical studies show, Iran's traditional cities had structured and developed base on some parameters such as aesthetics, simplicity, organic and environmental friendly. This environmentally type of Iran's traditional urban design has mention to social and cultural demands with establishment

of environmental and cultural solutions in each region to achieve human physical and psychic demands. In the past, natural environment innovations and society ideologies have main roles in build of urban texture and landscape (Shamai, 2011).

History of Iran's traditional cities has divided into two main parts, pre and post Islamic ages. The first period had been started from 7th century in time of Medes Empire and it had continued until 9th in age of Sassanid Empire and the next time could be call post Islamic age with arrival of Islam to Iran. Based on archaeological poofs, in pre Islamic age, there were variety of urban patterns and forms about social quality in there. But the other hand, in post Islamic duration, a new type of urban form has been born (Habibi, 2009). In this time, urban planning was growing based on merger of pre Islamic and concept of city design in post Islamic period that has shaped unique type of urban design (Sharif, A., Murayama, A., 2013).

The aim of this study focuses on two cases that in the period of the post Islamic age has developed in Isfahan city as a traditional city which has located in central region of Iran.

3.1.The Bazaar

The Bazaar is one the main urban identifying features of the traditional Iranian cities they were mainly developed for commercial purposes. Parallel to the commercial use, the Bazaar has a distinguished role in other functions (Clark, B. D., Costello, V., 1973). The Bazaar has a significant historical position in ancient Iran when the Medes planned their cities (Habibi, 2009) and this same planning continued for many centuries (Keshavarzian, 2007). The Bazaar is the heart of many Iranian cities and mostly has a longitudinal form which is located in the central area of many cities. The Bazaar connects with other places such as the mosque, plaza and cisterns (Ehlers, E., Floor, W., 1993) (Kheirabadi, 1991) (Fig1). The Bazaar has an exclusive role in integrating various urban elements in an urban structure in order to achieve a united city. Also the Bazaar helps to enhance urban housing and urban activities between residents of the city and those people from rural communities outside the city who visit the city from time to time (Karimi, 1997). In the social life of the city, the Bazaar has a considerable role as a special at is of traditional Iranian cities (Barimani, F., Barabadi, S. A., 2009). The Bazaar as shown in figure 1 has many connections to main services and facilities such as; major religious places, cisterns and public health services, all of which could be helpful in enhancing city social interaction. The great spatial capacity of the Bazaar made it easier to gather most of the urban facilities. In a central location within the city this has made it a major public place that is both aesthetically pleasing and an attractive to those conducting many of their many and varied maters associated with daily living and social activities (Keshavarzian, 2007). The historical relationship of Bazaars with religious places has resulted in various connections between social groups that could provide good opportunities in the development of social sustainability by the Bazaars potential. This type of combination has resulted in some social factors such as; a sense of belonging or a sense of

places. This has helped many inhabitants of the city to doing in with social activities (Sharif, A., Murayama, A., 2013).

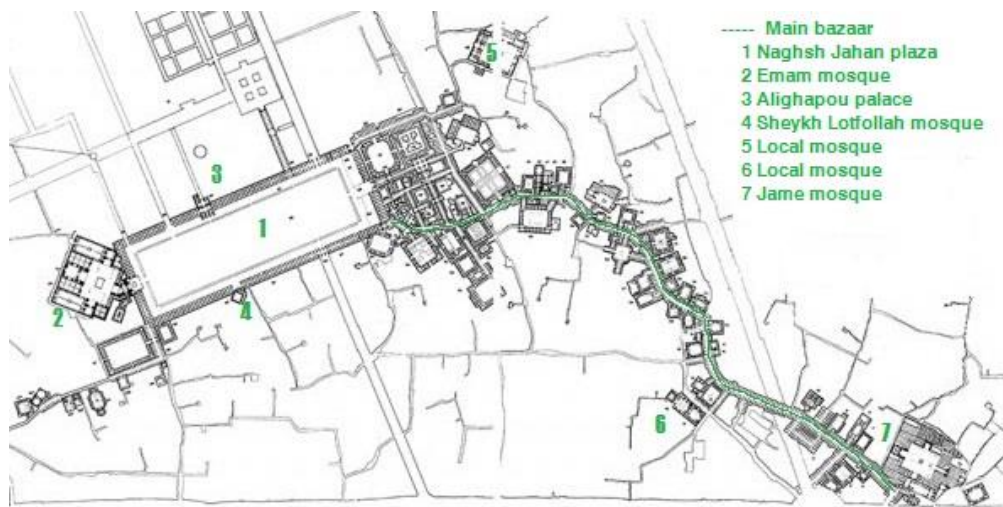


Fig. 1 Bazaar of Isfahan, Iran as a main urban artery

3.2. Khajou Bridge

Isfahan is one of Iran's major historical cities and had a great architectural background when it was chosen as the capital during the Safavid era. The development of Isfahan took into account Zayande Roud River a number of bridges were built to cross the river, of these bridges the Khajoo Bridge built during the Safavid era is perhaps one of the most famous bridges in Iran.

The bridge built on the site of an earlier crossing is a two tier structure. Arches along the length of the bridge and a covered walkway intersected by the arches not only allow shelters pedestrian crossing of the bridge, but also allow social interaction between groups of people who meet here to discuss many kinds of social, political and religious matters. Also the bridge acted as a symbol of a developed society. With some of these issues in mind it seems the design of Khajou Bridge was introducing new features that had effect on the function, framework and human aspects of the bridge (Mahdizadeh, F., Nasbi, F., Hoseyni, S.B., 2008).

Khajou Bridge had another function along with its connecting link with both banks of the river. The bridge had sluice gates incorporated into its design. These gates could hold back water during the spring and summer seasons by acting as a dam in order to enrich underground water sources to achievement of creating an artificial lake also assisted in social motivation among city residents.

One of the new ideas by the builders of Kahjou Bridge was to incorporate with belvederes, in center of bridge that has two floors and in keeping with the rest of this structure helps to promote the social and visual aspects of the bridge.

The importance of the visual effect of Khajou Bridge has included considerable decorations of tiles and paint in the belvedere with specific patterns that shows Khajou Bridge had royal connections in

former times which also reflect the great landscape views.

One of the key points of the success of the Khajou Bridge was the use of two floors, the lower floor helping to achieve social activities and the top one is just side's access. The lower level of bridge has steps leading down to the river. There are also shady areas in the middle of the bridge with seating because of roof of top floor. This view of the Khajou Bridge has enabled human social activities accessible to all and given the bridge a special place in the ideas of architectural design Fig. 3 (Shamai, 2011) (Moravej, Kh., Pournaderi, H., 2014).



Fig. 2 Khajou Bridge of Isfahan, Iran

3.3.Discussion

Social community

The analysis of social community cases will be based on two main categories; physical and non-physical, these contain most of the social community factors. Isfahan Bazaar because of its specific role in daily communications of the city could connect most of the social sustainability factors.

With a mention to the physical aspects the Bazaar have close situation in this respect. The success of social sustainability in Isfahan could be attributed to environmental quality due to climatic conditions of Isfahan where cool and healthy places would be of interest in social community development in both cases, energy usage and diversity of usage have a bold role to provide acceptable environmental condition to benefit the community.

There are a number of innovations in the design of the Bazaar such as high walls allowing sufficient space for the insertion of windows in high height and allowing natural light into the building. Roof openings allow heat to escape and natural ventilation areas of shade from the sun which provides a healthy space for residents of the community to feel some protection from the heat of the day.

In Khajou Bridge, the waters of the river help to provide cool humid areas where there is access to seats. These points in both cases have helped bring people of the community together during the day. Also many residents with families who cannot visit the area due to high day time temperatures can visit the area during the cooler evening times (fig 4). Other physical aspects of these cases include;

attractive public realm, accessibility and walkability through and around these areas have an important role in the sustainability of social activities. There are many residents who choose to reside in their own social groups. There are other public places connected to the Bazaar, these include the all-important mosque, the main plaza, palace and the cistern. These places have helped increase using the Bazaar and enhancing its social conditions. Khajou Bridge is access able to most residents because of its location. The bridge is further enhanced due to the wonderful view of the surrounding landscape. Another factor regarding social community is the ability to walk freely around the Bazaar with its bright architectural framework and combining both height and length as in much of Iran's traditional architecture. Walking around the Bazaar provides local residents and those visiting ample opportunity to use and appreciate the businesses in and around the Bazaar plus it is various function relating to social and community matters (Fig 5). This variety has brought about a number of different attractions available to the social community included in the length of the Bazaar where people may find interest in a variety of subjects which may stimulate people and prevent the onset of boredom. Like the Bazaar, the Khajou Bridge allows for the simple pleasure of walking. The upper floor of the bridge is used as connection between two parts of the city situated on both sides of the river and gives good view of the river. The ground floor like the upper floor also has a corridor that is shady and cooler. This key point could help to attract greater numbers of people for social gathering and community activities.

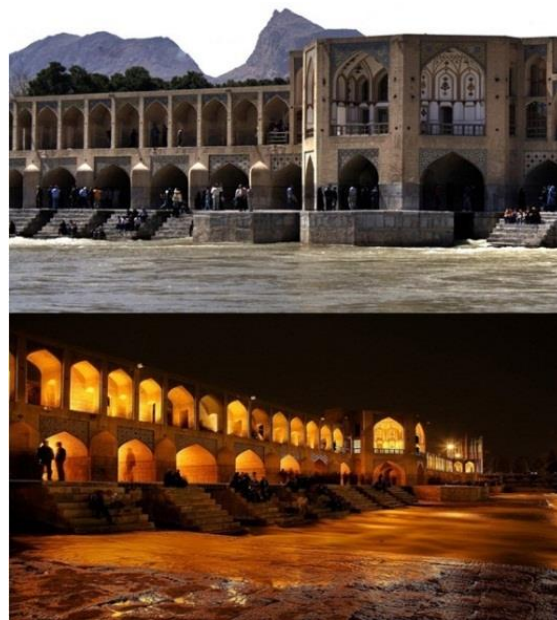


Fig. 3 Social community of Khajou Bridge at night and day

There are some non-physical points in both the Bazaar and Khajou Bridge that have been used to enhance social community such as; a sense of safety, sense of place, social interaction, cultural traditions, social cohesion and a sense of community. The Bazaar as a main source of social community and a center of most life services could provide cultural tradition by different sources

such as; mosque, cisterns, environmental decoration and court yards which could be of interest of different groups of people or individuals.



Fig. 4 Isfahan Bazaar as main source of urban social communication

Social equity

Social equity has some key points as one of main categories of social sustainability that this study is following to evaluate case studies base on it. Both of bazaar and Khajou Bridge have huge capacity and motivation to collect peoples. This issue has direct contradiction with reject people that could not be acceptable for social equity. Bazaar as a main city center could be is a successful case in social equity to share urban social benefits because huge variety of economic and social issues could be a good and main destination for residents to do their daily life subjects. Bazaar's long length has a direct effect on Bazaar's equity which people could have access from most of places. Khajou Bridge has equity feature to use by residents because of location and function that people would use in most times. Also Khajou Bridge design has provided equity features by set of seats and stairs to use by people that this issue is created some different and specific social groups to follow their social aim or specific communications. This bridge location has provided equity condition that both of old and new developed neighborhoods have same access to this bridge. This point and view can be reminding horizontal equity that can equal for all people to use Khajou Bridge and Bazaar.

Conclusion

This study with mention to social sustainability is evaluated how urban elements and infrastructure could have effect on aspects of social sustainability. One of significant point of Iran's traditional cities is integrated structure that is specific difference with modern peer. Diversity of urban facilities and elements of Iran's traditional cities have correlation in whole of city as united system that this integrated system has provided to residents to have equal access to urban facilities.

In most of urban neighborhoods especially in Iran's traditional one, some relations such as religion, economic dependency and kinship are caused to enhance sense of community and socialization. Iran's traditional cities success in issue of social sustainability could be based on urban facilities combination to achieve needs of accessibility, employment, housing, collective action, equality and

privacy.

As it evaluated in this paper, Isfahan Bazaar and Khajou Bridge have distinguished role in collection of social activities in Isfahan. Each case has many social aspects that would be interesting to residents be there such as community appearance of Bazaar and Khajou Bridge that mostly residences are following their daily life there. In fact the communication's atmosphere and being in equal condition are real success of cases in people collection during day and night for being together. Traditional architects had built and developed outdoor social community because of Iran's traditional culture that it was necessary to provide some social choices and these cases as it described are working with this aim well down.

References

- Agyemana, J. (2008). Toward a 'just' sustainability? *Journal of Media & Cultural Studies* 22, 751 – 756.
- Atkisson, A. (1996). Developing indicators of sustainable community: Lessons from sustainable Seattle. *Environmental impact assessment review* , 337-350.
- Barimani, F., Barabadi, S. A. (2009). Bafte ghadime shahrha jelveye farhange madi va maenavie shahrhaye eslami: morede bafte ghadime shahre Khaf. [Cities historical texture with reflection of material and spiritual aspect of Islamic cities; The case of historical texture of Khaf city]. *Joghrafiya Va Tose* 15, 89 - 112.
- Barton, H. (2000). *SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITIES*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.
- Barton, H. a. (2000). Conflicting perceptions of neighbourhood. *In Sustainable Communities: the Potential for Eco-Neighbourhoods*, 3 - 18.
- Burton. (2000). The potential of the compact city for promoting social equity. *Achieving Sustainable Urban Form*, 19 – 29.
- Burton, E., Mitchell, L. (2006). *Inclusive Urban Design: Streets for Life*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
- Childers, D., Pickett, S. (2014). Advancing urban sustainability theory and action: Challenges and opportunities. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 125 , 320–328.
- Chiu, R. L. (2002). Social equity in housing in the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region: a social sustainability perspective. *sustainable development* 10, 155 - 162.
- Clark, B. D., Costello, V. (1973). Urban system and social patterns in Iranian cities. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 99 - 128.
- Colantonio, A. (2009). *Measuring Socially Sustainable Urban Regeneration in Europe*. Oxford, UK: Oxford Brooks University.
- Colantonio, A., Dixon, T. (2010). *Urban Regeneration & Social Sustainability: Best Practice from European Cities*. Hoboken: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital. *The American Journal of*

Sociology, Vol. 94, S95-S120.

- Davidson, M. (2010). Social sustainability and the city. *Geography Compass* 4, 872 – 880.
- Dempsey, N. (2008). Does quality of the built environment affect social cohesion? *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers Urban Design and Planning* 161, 105-114.
- Dempsey, N., Bramley, G., Power, S., Brown, C. (2011). The Social Dimension of Sustainable Development: Defining Urban Social Sustainability. *sustainable development* 19, 289-300.
- Ehlers, E., Floor, W. (1993). Urban change in Iran, 1920-1941. *Iranian Studies*, 26, 251 - 275.
- El-Husseiny, M., Kesseiba, K. (2012). Challenges of Social Sustainability in Neo-liberal Cairo: Requestioning the role of public space. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 68 , 790 – 803.
- European Communities. (2001). *Towards a local sustainability profile - European common indicators: Methodology sheets and technical report*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- Ghahramanpouri, A., Saifuddin, A., Sedaghatnia, S., Lamit, H. (2015). Urban Social sustainability contributing factors in Kuala Lumpur streets . *Social and Behavioral Sciences* 201, 368 - 376.
- Glaeser, E. (2013). *Triumph of the City: How Our Greatest Invention Makes Us Richer, Smarter, Greener, Healthier, and Happier*. New York: Penguin Press.
- Habibi, M. (2009). *Az Shar ta Shahr [From shar to city]*. Tehran: Tehran University Press.
- Headey. (1978). *Housing Policy in the Developed Economy*. New York: the United States. St. Martin's Press.
- Holden, E., Linnerud, K. (2007). The sustainable development area: satisfying basic needs and safeguarding ecological sustainability. *Sustainable Development* 15, 174–185.
- Holden, M., Roseland, M., Ferguson, K., Perl, A., (2008). Seeking urban sustainability on the world stage. *Habitat Int.* 32 (3), 305–317.
- Hopwood, B., Mellor, M., O'Brien, G. (2005). Sustainable Development: mapping different approaches. *Sustainable Development* 13, 38-52.
- Karimi, K. (1997). *The spatial logic of organic cities in Iran and the United Kingdom*. London : Space syntax first international symposium.
- Kay, A. (2005). Territorial justice and devolution. *British Journal of Politics and International Relations* 7, 544 – 560.
- Keshavarzian, A. (2007). *Bazaar and state in Iran the politics of the Tehran market place*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kheirabadi, M. (1991). *Iranian cities : formation and development*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Knox, P. L. (2011). *Cities and Design*. London: Routledge.
- Koning, J. (2001). *Social sustainability in a globalizing world: context, theory and methodology*

- explored. Hague, Netherlands: UNESCO / MOST Meeting.
- Lampman. (1977). Concepts of equity in the design of schemes for income redistribution. In *Equity, Income, and Policy: Comparative Studies in Three Worlds of Development*. Horowitz IL (ed.), 19 - 28.
- Littig, B., Griessler, E. (2005). Social sustainability: a catchword between political pragmatism and social theory. *International Journal of Sustainable Development* 8, 65-79.
- Lockie, S., Franettovich, M., Petkova-Timmer, V., Rolfe, J., Ivanova, G. (2009). Coal mining and the resource community cycle: a longitudinal assessment of the social impacts of the Coppabella coal mine. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review* 29, 330–339.
- Magee, L., Scerri, A., James, P. (2012). Measuring Social Sustainability: A Community-Centred Approach. *Applied Research in Quality of Life* 7(3), 239 - 261.
- Mahdizadeh, F., Nasbi, F., Hoseyni, S.B. (2008). Principle of sustainable cities in compare with Iran's traditional cities . *Haft Shahr* 22, 51 - 59.
- Malbert, B. (1998). Participatory approaches sustainable urban development: Reflections on practice Vancouver and Waitakere to in Seattle. *Planning Practice & Research*, 13(2), 183–189.
- Malekpour, S., Rebekah, R. Brown. (2015). Strategic planning of urban infrastructure for environmental sustainability: Understanding the past to intervene for the future. *Cities* 46, 67–75.
- Marans, R. W. (2015). Quality of urban life & environmental sustainability studies: Future linkage opportunities. *Habitat International* 45 , 47-52.
- McAlpine, P., Birnie, A. (2005). Is there a Correct Way of Establishing Sustainability Indicators? The Case of Sustainability Indicator Development on the Island of Guernsey. *Local Environment*, 10(3), 243-257.
- Mitchell, G. (1996). Problems and fundamentals of sustainable development indicators. *Sustainable Development*, 4, 1-11.
- Monfaredzadeh, T., Krueger, R. (2015). Investigating social factors of sustainability in a smart city. *Procedia Engineering* 118, 1112–1118.
- Moravej, Kh., Pournaderi, H. (2014). Evaluation of efective tradition continues in build of Khajou Bridge . *Bagh Nazar* 27, 61 - 70.
- Murphy, K. (2012). The social pillar of sustainable development: a literature review and framework for policy analysis. *Sustainability: Science, Practice, & Policy*, 8(1), 15-29.
- Nations, U. (2012). *World urbanization prospects: The 2011 revision*. New Yourk: United Nations.
- ODPM, O. o. (2006). *UK Presidency: EU Ministerial Informal on Sustainable Communities Policy*. London: ODPM.
- Petkova, V., Lockie, S., Rolfe, J., Ivanova, G. (2014). Mining developments and social impacts on

- communities: Bowen Basin case studies. *Rural Society* 19 (3), 211–228.
- Pierson, J. (2002). *Tackling social exclusion*. London: Routledge.
- Prno, J. (2013). An analysis of factors leading to the establishment of a social licence to operate in the mining industry. *Resources Policy* 38, 577 – 590.
- Prno, J., Slocombe, D.S. (2012). Exploring the origins of ‘social license to operate’ in the mining sector: Perspectives from governance and sustainability theories. *Resources Policy* 37, 346–357.
- Pulselli, F. (2008). Integrating methods for the environmental sustainability: The SPIn-Eco Project in the Province of Siena (Italy). *Journal of Environmental Management*, 86, 332–341.
- Rapport, D. J. (2007). Sustainability science: An ecohealth perspective. *Sustainability Science* 2 , 77–84.
- Ratcliffe. (2000). Is the assertion of minority identity compatible with the idea of a socially inclusive society? In *Social Inclusion: Possibilities and Tensions*, Askonas P, Stewart A (eds). *Macmillan: Basingstoke*, 169 - 185.
- Rees, W. (1997). Is ‘sustainable city’ an oxymoron? *Local Environ.* 2 (3), 303–310.
- Roberts, I. (2000). Leicester environment city: learning how to make Local Agenda 21, partnerships and participation deliver. *Environment and urbanization* 12, 9-26.
- Rolfe, J., Miles, B., Lockie, S., Ivanova, G. (2007). Lessons from the social and economic impacts of the mining boom in the Bowen Basin 2004–2006. *Australasian Journal of Regional Studies* 13, 134-153.
- Sassen, S. (2011). *Cities in a world economy*. Columbia University, USA: Sage Publications.
- Schlossberg, M., Zimmerman, A. (2003). Developing statewide indices of environmental, economic, and social sustainability: A look at Oregon and the Oregon Benchmarks. *Local Environment* 8.
- Shamai, A. (2011). Naghsh olgohaye shahrsazi sonati dar shahrsazi modern shahr Yazd [Role of traditional urban pattern in modern urbanization of Yazd city]. *Faslname motaleate shahr Irani Islami [Journal of study on Islamic Iranin city]*, 93 - 105.
- Sharif, A., Murayama, A. (2013). Changes in the traditional urban form and the social sustainability of contemporary cities: A case study of Iranian cities. *Habitat International* 38 , 126 - 134.
- Stossel, Z. (2015). Measuring the biophysical dimension of urban sustainability. *Ecological Economics* 120, 153–163.
- Tasser, E., Sternbach, E., Tappeiner, U. (2008). Biodiversity indicators for sustainability monitoring at municipality level: An example of implementation in an alpine region. *Ecological Indicators*, 8, 204–223.
- Tiainen, H., Sairinen, R., Novikov, V. (2014). Mining in the Chatkal Valley in Kyrgyzstan - Challenge of social sustainability. *Resources Policy* 39, 80 – 87.

- Tiezzi, E., Bastianoni, S. (2008). Sustainability of the Siena Province through ecodynamic indicators. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 86, 329–331.
- Townsend, A. M. (2013). *Smart Cities: Big Data, Civic Hackers, and the Quest for a New Utopia*. New York: Norton & Company.
- Tsenkova, S. (2009). *Planning Sustainable Communities Diversity of Approaches and Implementation Challenges*. Canada: University of Calgary.
- Turcu, C. (2012). Local experiences of urban sustainability: Researching Housing Market Renewal interventions in three English neighbourhoods. *Progress in Planning* 78 , 101–150.
- Vallance, S., Perkins, H.C. Dixon, J.E. (2011). What is social sustainability? A clarification of concepts. *Geoforum*, 42, 342-348.
- Vojnovic, I. (2014). Urban sustainability: Research, politics, policy and practice. *Cities* 41 , S30–S44.
- WCED. (1987). *Report of the world commission on environment and development: Our common future*.
- Weingaertner, C., Moberg, Å. (2011). Exploring Social Sustainability: Learning from Perspectives on Urban Development and Companies and Products. *Sustainable Development* 19, 289 – 300.
- Woodcraf, S. (2012). Social Sustainability and New Communities: Moving from concept to practice in the UK. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 68, 29–42.

USING ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK AND DESIRABILITY FUNCTION TO PREDICT WASTE GENERATION RATES IN SMALL AND LARGE HOTELS DURING PEAK AND LEAN SEASONS

Soolmaz L. Azarmi
Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University
Famagusta, North Cyprus

Habib Alipour
Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University
Famagusta, North Cyprus

and

Akeem A. Oladipo
Faculty of Engineering, Cyprus Science University
Girne, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Swift and efficient management of hotel wastes are critical to reducing the negative impact on the environment. The objective of the present study was to deepen the knowledge of hotel sector waste (HSW) in terms of the quantitative prediction of HSW generation and the economic benefits achievable by the implementation of a separate reutilization scheme. For this purpose, an artificial neural network (ANN) was applied to predict the waste generated by 22 accommodation facilities in North Cyprus. To improve the performance of ANN for prediction, Levenberg–Marquardt back propagation algorithm (LMA) was applied to find the optimal initial weights in the ANN. The desirability function was applied to optimise the variables and the performance of the two models was evaluated by mean squared errors. The authors estimated the total waste generated during the lean season as 2010.5 kg/day, in which large-sized hotel accounted for largest fraction (66.7%), followed by the medium hotels (19.4%) and guesthouse accounted for smallest part (2.6%). During the peak season, about 49.6% increases in the waste generation rates were obtained. Interestingly, 45% of the wastes were generated by the British tourists while the least waste was generated by African tourists (7.5%). The findings herein are promising and useful in establishing a sustainable waste management system.

Key Words: Hospitality sector wastes; waste generation forecasting; sustainable city; waste management practices.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, tourism has become an important and significant sector in the economies of many countries. In fact, the tourism sector can sustain high levels of employment, unfortunately, the sector is also a source of environmental impacts with consequent public health concerns (Mateu-Sbert et al., 2013). To plan and effectively manage the hospitality sector waste (HSW) in a sustainable way, accurate classification and prediction of HSW generation rate are technically necessary (Intharathirat et al., 2015). Precisely, the inaccurate prediction and assessment of HSW could lead to several widespread problems in the waste management systems, including inadequate or over-estimated capacity of disposal infrastructures. To mitigate the impact of the HSW on the ecosystem, the demand for reliable data concerning HSW generation is implicitly necessary. Meanwhile, the process of predicting HSW generation is challenging and often intensify by uncontrollable parameters.

Cyprus politically partitioned into two main parts (south and north) is a major tourist destination in the Mediterranean region. Practically speaking, recent years have seen tourism growing at a faster rate in the north Cyprus (formally the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus (TRNC)). According to the TRNC Hoteliers Association, the room occupancy rate ranged between 78 to 89% in the peak season of 2014–2016. The increasing inflow of tourists in the first quarter of 2017 inferred that the room occupancy rate will increase by 6–8% in the peak season of 2017, subsequently leading to more hospitality sector wastes. Of concern is the lack of studies which quantify the magnitude of waste generated in the accommodation sector of TRNC and its subsequent effect on the environment. Hence, this study was undertaken with the belief that the prediction of the amount of HSW produced will be helpful in the stages of storage, transportation, disposal and reutilization and, subsequently contribute to sustainable tourism activities.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Given the purpose of this research, a quantitative approach was employed. A pilot study was carried out to minimise ambiguity in the sampling questions. Prior to data collection, the top management and staffs of the accommodation facilities were assured of their confidentiality to reduce the social desirability bias and improve the credibility of sample data. A total of 22 accommodation facilities comprising of the guesthouse (7%), small (30%), medium (27%) and large (36%) hotels were investigated. 75% of these facilities are situated in Kyrenia (tourism hub), 7% in Gazimagusa (port city) and 18% in Lefkosa (capital city).

Observed data were analysed and fed to the ANN training network. A 3-fold cross-validation procedure was utilised to eliminate possible desirability bias. The average results of three different simulations were compared with the observed data and reported herein. Among the different parameters which affect the generation rate of hospitality waste, five independent factors were selected as the most influential as shown in the optimised ANN architecture (Fig.1).

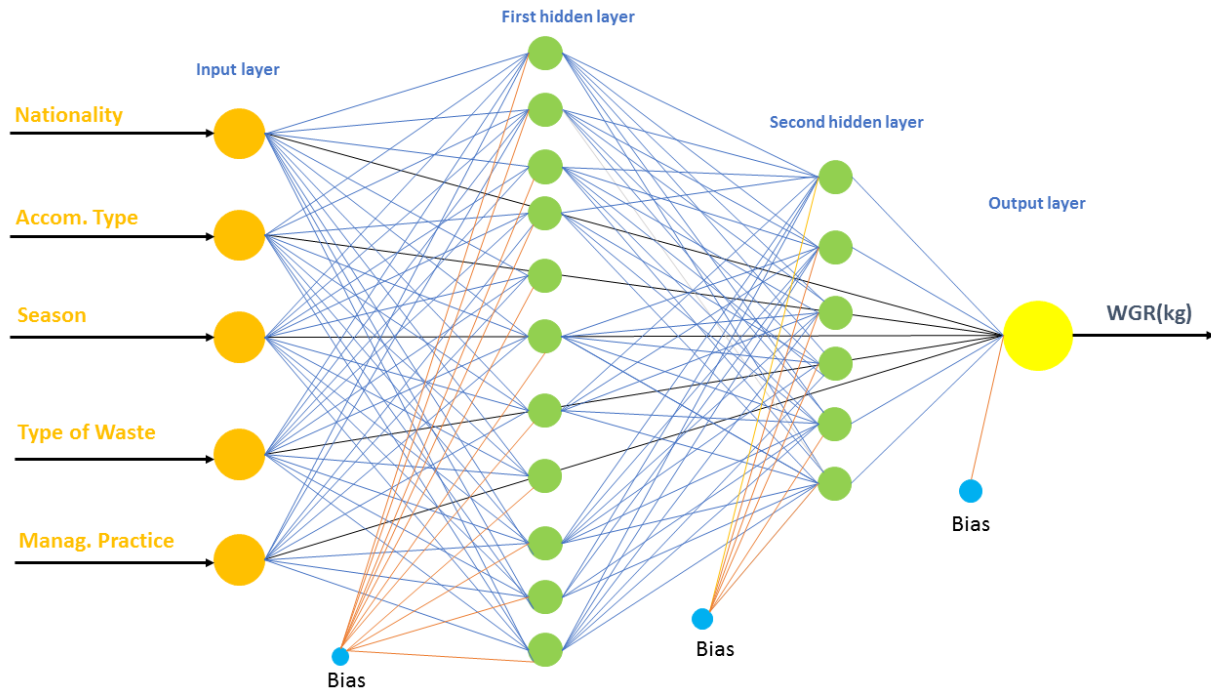


Fig.1: Optimised ANN structure of 5–11–6–1 selected for forecasting WGR in accommodation sectors.

THEORETICAL PRINCIPLE OF ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK (ANN) MODEL

In the late 1990s, the ANN methodology was introduced to tourism forecasting (Constantino, Fernandes & Teixeira, 2016). The ANN is a bio-inspired computational processing system akin to the vast network of brain neurons (Oladipo & Gazi, 2017). Lately, research activities in forecasting with ANN indicated that it can be a promising substitute for the conventional linear methods. ANN is highly attractive due to its remarkable characteristics pertinent particularly to noise and fault tolerance, high parallelism and nonlinearity (Oladipo & Gazi, 2015; Gazi et al., 2017). The ANN architecture herein is organised in three distinct layers (input, two hidden and an output layer) containing nodes which are interconnected by weighted synapses.

The network structure changes based on the input and output information that flows through it. The relationship between the output (O) and the inputs (I_1, I_2, \dots, I_p) is represented mathematically as follows (Teixeira & Fernandes, 2014):

$$O_x = b_{x,i} + \sum_{j=1}^n w_j f \left(\sum_{i=1}^m W_{ji} I_i + B_{oj} \right) \quad (1)$$

where O_x ($x = 1, 2, \dots, p$) is the output variable; w_j and W_{ji} ($j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$; $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, m$) are connection weights; m and n represent the number of input and hidden nodes, respectively. The f corresponds to the sigmoidal activation function, $b_{x,i}$ and B_{oj} represent the bias terms associated with each input, output and hidden layer nodes, respectively. The connecting weights were randomly chosen and changed through the training procedure to obtain minimised mean squared error (MSE). The developed ANN architecture was utilised to investigate the association between inputs and output as depicted in Fig. 1.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In the current study, 138 experimental data sets were fed into the ANN network and randomly classified. Of these, 68% of the data sets were trained, 18% were tested and the remaining 14% were validated. The connection weights of the trained ANN with the corresponding bias terms were employed to estimate the relative significance of each independent variable (I_i) on waste generation rate (kg/day) as given in Eq. (2):

$$I_i = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{m=N_h} \left(\left(\frac{|W_{jm}^{ih}|}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_i} |W_{km}^{ih}|} \right) \times |W_{mn}^{ho}| \right)}{\sum_{k=1}^{k=N_i} \left\{ \sum_{m=1}^{m=N_h} \left(\left(\frac{|W_{km}^{ih}|}{\sum_{k=1}^{N_i} |W_{km}^{ih}|} \right) \times |W_{mn}^{ho}| \right) \right\}} \quad (2)$$

where, I_i is the relative importance of the i th input variable on the response; W , N_i and N_h represent the connection weights, numbers of input and hidden neurons, respectively. The subscript 'k', 'm' and 'n' is the input, hidden and output neuron, while the superscripts 'i', 'h' and 'o' represent the input, hidden and output layers, respectively.

Ten back-propagation algorithms were evaluated to select the best training algorithm as presented in Table 1. The highest value of the degree of correlation (R^2) and the least mean square error (MSE) were used as the yardstick to select the best training algorithm. Of all the algorithms examined, the Levenberg–Marquardt (LMA) algorithm specifically resulted in the least mean

square error (0.0014) and its R^2 value (0.989) is closest to unity. Hence, the LMA was selected as the training algorithm in this research.

Table 1

Comparison of backpropagation algorithms

Backpropagation (BP) algorithm	MSE	Epoch	R^2	Best linear equation
Fletcher–Reeves conjugate gradient BP	0.0323		0.867	$y = 0.0671x + 0.0678$
Batch gradient descent	0.0098	1000	0.918	$y = 0.6612x + 0.0893$
Scaled conjugate gradient BP	0.0167	78	0.456	$y = 0.7905x + 0.0698$
One step secant backpropagation	0.0088	32	0.789	$y = 0.0622x + 0.0256$
Powell–Beale conjugate gradient BP	0.0433	56	0.908	$y = 0.5623x + 0.0998$
*Levenberg–Marquardt backpropagation	0.0014	11	0.989	$y = 0.9017x + 0.0219$
BFGS quasi-Newton backpropagation	0.0093	30	0.965	$y = 0.7221x + 0.0083$
Variable learning rate backpropagation	0.007	178	0.671	$y = 0.9323x + 0.0044$
Polak–Ribiere conjugate gradient BP	0.0091	32	0.379	$y = 0.9011x + 0.0391$
Batch gradient descent with momentum	0.0205	1000	0.881	$y = 0.8312x + 0.6733$

***Bold** indicates the best and selected BP

To obtain well optimised ANN structure, robust networks were constructed by varying the iteration, hidden neurons, and learning rates. Our networks were trained perfectly with over 1,000 iterations and the optimal learning rate was 0.2 as listed in [Table 2](#).

Table 2

The parameters of the optimised ANN model used in this study

Parameter	Value
Input layer neurons	5
Output layer neurons	1
Hidden layers	2
Hidden layer neurons	17
Training method	Levenberg-Marquardt backpropagation
Error goal	0.015%
Epochs	1000
Data division	Random
Momentum (μ)	0.001
Transfer function of hidden layer	Logsig
Learning rate	0.2

The assessment of the MSE during training and testing for an optimum number of neurons in the hidden layers is presented in [Table 3](#). As seen in the training set, the MSE was 0.0923 when 13 neurons were used and decreased to 0.0131 when 17 neurons were utilised. The MSE reached a

minimum level and increasing the number of neurons beyond 17 does not decrease the MSE further. Hence, 17 neurons were chosen as optimum for the developed ANN topology as shown in Fig.1.

Table 3

Optimisation of neuron number at hidden layer, using testing and training data set

Number of neurons	Training set			Testing set		
	MAE	MSE	R ²	MAE	MSE	R ²
1						
2	0.1806	0.3131	0.6679	0.0986	0.6131	0.6178
3	0.1311	0.3094	0.9012	0.0911	0.5694	0.8611
4	0.1155	0.2308	0.8694	0.0888	0.5308	0.7389
5	0.0969	0.1396	0.6311	0.0814	0.4388	0.6398
6	0.0889	0.1131	0.8332	0.0768	0.4098	0.8798
7	0.0835	0.1094	0.5694	0.0732	0.3994	0.6873
8	0.0811	0.1088	0.6377	0.0711	0.3768	0.7997
9	0.0678	0.1046	0.8296	0.0689	0.3288	0.7654
10	0.0561	0.0991	0.7156	0.0605	0.3109	0.5679
11	0.0458	0.0934	0.8967	0.0598	0.2987	0.6899
12	0.0449	0.0808	0.7855	0.0534	0.2855	0.6656
13	0.0328	0.0623	0.8987	0.0511	0.2616	0.8202
14	0.0389	0.0431	0.0934	0.0109	0.0934	0.8144
15	0.0356	0.0334	0.0557	0.0098	0.0557	0.6098
16	0.0298	0.0308	0.9131	0.0082	0.0198	0.7813
17	0.0211	0.0131	0.9933	0.0067	0.0125	0.8989
18	0.0469	0.0134	0.8131	0.0096	0.0139	0.5199
19	0.0209	0.0308	0.8694	0.0734	0.0394	0.7656
20	0.0668	0.0396	0.7366	0.0611	0.0108	0.8088

***Bold** show optimum number of hidden layer neuron

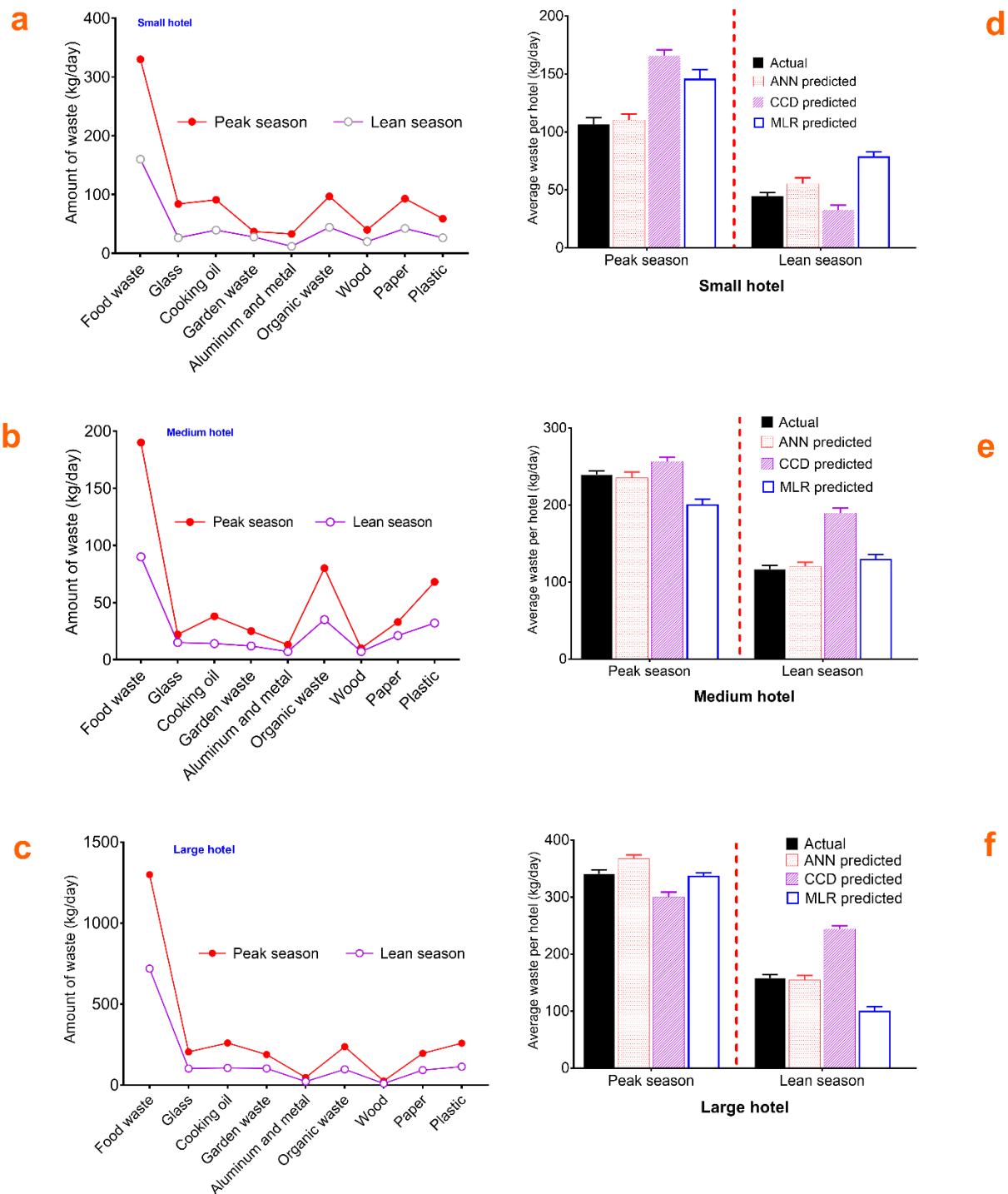


Fig. 2: Quantity and type of waste generated in each season (a), (b)(c), and actual and predicted average daily waste generated per (d) small hotel (e) medium hotel (f) large hotel

The observed data were compared with predicted data using ANN, multiple linear regression (MLR) and central composite design (CCD). Fig.2 shows the quantity and type of wastes generated per season. The food waste is the most generated waste in all the investigated facilities. In the lean season, a total of 970 kg of food waste was generated per day, while this figure increased by almost 1.9% in the peak season. The organic wastes (vegetables, milk, bread etc) are also commonly

generated in all the facilities. A total of 415 kg/day of organic wastes are generated during the peak season where the large hotels account for 57%, small hotels 23.4% and medium hotels account for 19.6%. During the lean season, the organic wastes generated decreased to 178.5kg/day, however, the small hotels generated the least quantity (19.7%). The Fig. 2 (d, e, f) represents the average waste generated per day considering the total facility investigated. During the peak season, the average wastes generated are 106.5, 239.5 and 340.9 kg/day by small, medium and large hotels, respectively. Meanwhile, the average wastes generated decreased to about 63% during the lean season.

The ANN prediction appears to be in reasonable agreement with the observed data. More deviation between the observed (residuals) and predicted values was observed in the CCD and MLR models than in the ANN model. Hence, the higher predictive capacity of the ANN can be attributed to its universal capability to approximate complex nonlinear systems, whereas the CCD is effective if the system is restricted to second order polynomial regression (Azadi & Karimi-Jashni, 2016). It is important to stress that all the input variables had an impact on the waste generation rates. However, the accommodation type (B) seemed to be the most influential variable on WGR, while the second most influential variable was the season (C) followed by waste management practice (E), nationality (A) and type of waste (D), respectively according to ANN. Fig. 3 depicts the contribution of each input factor.

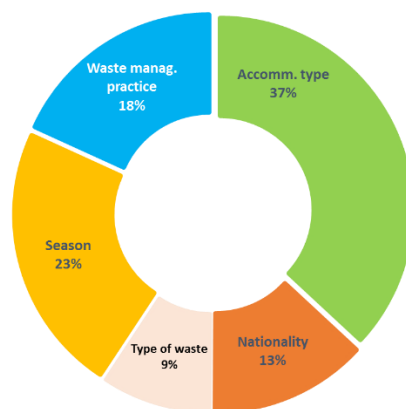


Fig.3: Relative importance of input variables on WGR forecasted by ANN

CONCLUSIONS

This study showed that hospitality sector wastes can be sustainably managed with accurate prediction tools by considering measurable and effective parameters. The ANN was employed to predict the average HSW generation rate using nationality, type of waste, season, accommodation type, and type of waste management practices as predictors. These predictors were selected based

on the correlation test and Cronbach's alpha of 0.93. The results showed that 4159.9 kg (recyclable: 58.5%, general waste: 23.6% and food residues: 17.9%) and 2063.4 kg (recyclable: 33.6%, general waste: 18.5% and food residues: 47.9%) of wastes were generated during the peak and lean season from the 22 hospitality facilities investigated, respectively.

Importantly, the use of ANN model to predict the average HSW generation rate led to reliable results and the difference between the observed and predicted values was not statistically significant. Herein, the Turkish tourists were observed to generate more waste (19.16% WGR/day) in the large hotels compared with the British (15.1% WGR/day) and the Asian generated the least average wastes (20.96%) in all the facilities investigated. In conclusion, the results herein are promising and would be useful in establishing a sustainable waste management plans.

REFERENCES

- Azadi S., & Karimi-Jashni, A. (2016). Verifying the performance of artificial neural network and multiple linear regression in predicting the mean seasonal municipal solid waste generation rate: A case study of Fars province, Iran. *Waste Management*, 48, 14–23.
- Constantino, H.A., Fernandes, P.O., & Teixeirac, J.P. (2016). Tourism demand modelling and forecasting with artificial neural network models: The Mozambique case study. *Tékhne-Review of Applied Management Studies*, 14, 113–124.
- Gazi, M., Oladipo, A.A., Ojoro, Z.E., & Gulcan, H.O. (2017). High-Performance Nanocatalyst for Adsorptive and Photoassisted Fenton-Like Degradation of Phenol: Modeling Using Artificial Neural Networks. *Chemical Engineering Communications*, 204, 729–738.
- Intharathirat, R., Abdul Salam, P., Kumar, S., & Untong, A. (2015). Forecasting of municipal solid waste quantity in a developing country using multivariate grey models. *Waste Management*, 39, 3–14.
- Mateu-Sbert, J., Ricci, I., Villalonga, E., & Cabeza, E. (2013). The impact of tourism on municipal solid waste generation: the case of Menorca Island (Spain). *Waste Management*, 33, 2589–2593.
- Oladipo, A.A. & Gazi, M. (2017). Targeted boron removal from highly-saline and boron-spiked seawater using magnetic nanobeads: Chemometric optimisation and modelling studies. *Chemical Engineering Research and Design*, 121, 329–338.
- Oladipo, A.A. & Gazi, M. (2015). Nickel removal from aqueous solutions by alginate-based composite beads: Central composite design and artificial neural network modeling. *Journal of Water Process Engineering*, 8, e81–e91.
- Teixeira, J., & Fernandes, P. (2014). Tourism time series forecast with artificial neural networks. *Tékhne-Review of Applied Management Studies*, 12, 26–36.

FOOD MARKETING AS THE TASTE AND SMELL OF COUNTRIES

Zora Hudíková

University Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava / Faculty of Mass Media Communication
Trnava, Slovakia

ABSTRACT

Every country, every region, and sometimes also a locality, has its own specific tastes and flavours. They are characteristic, unique and unmistakable for them. One of the proven ways of how to get to know a certain nation or region and understand it is to try its food and drinks and its original cuisine. In general, food is currently trendy. In her study, the author analyses media products associated with food marketing, lists their strengths and weaknesses in terms of their potential to promote the country and attract tourists and ends by giving recommendations for enhancing their efficiency. In particular, she deals with the motivation and mental processes of satisfying expectations and needs that are related to culinary tourism.

Key Words: culinary tourism, food, emotions, national culture and history, destination, media product.

INTRODUCTION

The paper title should be typed in upper case (ALL CAPS), author names (full names *only*; titles, e.g. Assistant Professor and degrees, e.g. Ph.D. should *not* be included), and authors' names and affiliations must be flushed to the right as shown above. The paper must be written in the third person and all submissions must be in English and authors should seek to use straightforward declarative sentences, making every effort to help the reader understand the concepts presented. You must not exceed 10 *pages for papers accepted for stand-up presentation and 3 pages for papers accepted for poster presentation in total*, this is a firm limit.

The term tourism may be defined as an extensive market that also includes satisfying various needs. This is the reason why it attracts the attention of businessmen, public and state administration. (Jakubíková, 2009, p. 18). It is currently a very dynamically developing economic segment. According to UNWTO data, income from international tourism is intensively rising, contributing to its recovery and the reduction of losses from the crisis year 2009, despite the potential threats of terrorist attacks that have started to appear in Europe recently. (In *Stratégia rozvoja cestovného ruchu do roku 2020 - Strategy of Tourism Development by 2020*, approved by the Slovak Government Resolution No. 379/2013 of 10 July 2013. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<http://docplayer.cz/30430598-Strategia-rozvoja-cestovneho-ruchu-do-roku-2020.html>>).

Travelling and discovering new places, regions and countries is an important way of spending free time and a popular form of active relaxation among all generations.

Based on available statistics, it may be concluded that the EU population made about 1.2 billion tourist journeys for private or business purposes in 2014. (Štatistika cestovného ruchu. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Tourism_statistics/sk#C5.A0tatistika_cestovn.C3.A9ho_ruchu>). Short-term stays (one to three nights) are currently increasingly popular and form a slightly prevailing share (57.4%) of the total number of stays. Another important trend in tourism is the increased orientation toward domestic destinations. Some countries support the tendency intensively and targeted it, for example by issuing vouchers for domestic holidays. The result is that as much as 74.9 percent of all

stays were made in domestic destinations; the rest in foreign locations. Whether people travel or not also depend on the size of the country and its geographic location – the population of smaller countries and countries located in the north spend their holidays mostly abroad. Differences in travelling can also be seen among the individual EU member states. In 2013, the least private journeys were made by Romanians (25.1%), the most by Finns (88.5%). Tourists usually have their favourite destinations; the most visited countries are Spain, Italy, France, The United Kingdom, Austria, Germany, Greece, Croatia, Portugal, and Holland. (Štatistika cestovného ruchu. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Tourism_statistics/sk#.C5.A0tatistika_cestovn.C3.A9ho_ruchu>).

There are a number of reasons why tourists set off. Some want to visit the places they have heard or read about, some want to discover new, unknown regions, while others long for experiences, search for different attractions of any kind and some just want to relax. Travelling for high or popular culture or cultural monuments forms a special chapter (Pravdová, 2015). According to those who set off on a private journey for at least one night in 2015, the main reason was their "desire to get more sun and to spend time on the beach". This was the strongest motif within the EU population - 39% in total - including Slovaks (38%). Visiting family members or relatives prevails as a reason in the EU population (38%, SK 29%), on the other hand, the desire to see stunning nature (mountains, lake, natural scenery, etc.) is a stronger motif for the Slovaks (35%, EU 31%). Impulses are at about the same level - such as the wish to visit a specific city (EU 27%, SK 20%) and the so-called cultural area (EU 26%, SK 24%), which also includes religious and gastronomic motifs or the goal to discover and see live the art of different cultures. Other reasons, even though not with such a high share, are stays connected with wellness, spa or medical treatment (EU 13%, SK 25%) and sporting activities (EU 12%, SK 16%). Preferencie Európanov v cestovnom ruchu. (bleskový barometer). [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://www.zhrs.sk/images/Dokumenty/ClenskaZona/HOTREC_newsletter/Statistika/2016/fl_43_2_fact_sk_sk.pdf>.

In connection with the increase in popularity of short-term stays and the desire to intensively spend and enjoy relaxation time, so-called culinary tourism is also being developed widely. The International Culinary Tourism Association finds gastronomic tourism a part of cultural tourism as cuisine is a part of every culture (Kronďáková, I. & Heřmanová, E. Gastroturismus. *Arts Lexikon* [online]. [19.2.2013]. Available at: <<http://www.artslexikon.cz//index.php?title=Gastroturismus>>). The European Economic and Social Committee (EESC) divided culture into components directly generating economic benefits through cultural tourism, in particular: a) tangible cultural heritage, b) art fairs (museums, exhibitions and art fairs), c) festivals, d) performing arts (performances, concerts, stage plays), e) film tourism, f) gastronomic tourism and rural tourism (Raabová, 2010, p. 5). A survey carried out for the World Travel Market in London several years ago showed that, out of 2000 respondents, as many as 53% considered consumption of traditional local food a very important part of their holidays.

Since 2001, culinary tourism has started to work as an individual area; since 2003 it has had its own association whose motto is - "food has the same attraction as a museum". According to the International Culinary Tourism Association (ICTA), food is becoming increasingly important to tourists. There are currently about 150 travel agencies that offer gastronomic journeys (Obliba kulinářské turistiky roste. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: < <http://www.tourism-review.cz/obliba-kulinarske-turistiky-roste-news3184> >). Culinary tourism is not only about tasting food; its purpose is also to grasp the relation between the national culture and food culture. The fact that food is an inevitable part of culture, a kind of symbol of civilization, is pointed out by Massimo Montanari in his work Food Is Culture (Montanari, 2006). The programs are oriented not only on tasting food and beverages but also on the ways of their preparation and consumption, eating habits, forms of dining, etc. This all helps understand the country and its history also from a different point

of view. Only 8% of culinary tourism participants search for selected luxury specialities. Therefore, travelling for this purpose does not necessarily have to be expensive. People mostly want to discover local ordinary dishes and drinks. Marketing communication about attractive national, regional or local specialities is important to attract clients. Various tools are used for promotion, with media products being one of them. In her study, the author analyses media products associated with food marketing lists their strengths and weaknesses in terms of their potential to promote the country or area and attract tourists. In particular, she deals with the motivation and mental processes of satisfying expectations and needs that are related to culinary tourism.

1. TASTES AND FLAVOURS OF COUNTRIES

Gastronomy is an inevitable part of the cultural heritage of most countries. The specific form of gastronomy depends on the weather conditions, economy, religion and culture. The possibility to experience the culture of another country, survey its habits and try its atmosphere in connection with pleasurable feelings and experiences is conveyed through discovering its traditional food and drinks. Every country, region and locality is linked with certain typical flavours and tastes. France is probably among the most important gourmet countries where dining is a kind of ritual. There are rather smaller courses; usually five. There always must be a jug of water, wine, bread and herbal butter on the table. A day starts with breakfast which, however, is not so important. French people have lunch or dinner together. More courses are served and the dining usually lasts about 2 hours. For France, tastes and flavours of various types of cheese are characteristic as there are as many as 370 different types - hard, semi-soft, soft, young, mature, spicy, brewed, macerated, and even cheeses served as desserts. Cheeses are traditionally associated with delicious wines that are consumed daily, with every food; always a different, suitable type. Wines are an important cooking ingredient. Produced in the Champagne area, Champagne is a specific type of sparkling wine with a registered name. Soups have always been the main course in France; mainly for dinner. The best-known soups include the onion, bean, cream-of-pumpkin and Avignon fennel soup. White French bread with a crispy crust and soft interior is a very common side dish to these foods. French pancakes and croissants are also unforgettable. French menus may also include fish and seafood. The cuisine of the Mediterranean region is very similar to that of Italy or Spain. They all use, in huge amounts, olives, olive oil, herbs and many vegetables; snails are considered a delicacy (Francúzska kuchyňa dokáže splniť všetky sny správneho labužníka. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32957/francuzska-kuchyna-dokaze-splnit-vsetky-sny-spravneho-labuznika>>).

Different countries provide different tastes: Italy smells of basil, oregano, tomatoes, pizza and prosciutto; Hungary of goulash; the Czech Republic of Moravian Kolaches or vepřo-knedlo-zelo (roast pork with dumplings and sauerkraut), and Slovakia of lokše (pancakes made of potato dough baked directly on the stove) or bryndzové halušky (potato dumplings with sheep cheese). Spain, however, does not quite have its own typical cuisine. It has regional cuisines, such as Catalan, Basque, Andalusian or Castilian. In general, a lot of tomatoes, peppers, olive oil, spice and garlic are used in this country. In the areas near the sea, people consume a lot of fish and seafood; in the inland areas mostly meat - pork, sheep and poultry. The best Spanish specialities include paella – a spicy mixture of different meats and vegetables, and a slightly unusual cold vegetable soup called gazpacho. The Spanish, as well as the French, have delicious wine; the most-known area is Rioja. The fruit wine Sangria is also popular [online]. (Španielsko: miestna kuchyňa. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://www.invia.sk/spanielsko/miestna-kuchyna>>).

The world of oriental tastes and flavours combining various spices from markets, roasted meat, unleavened bread and couscous is very different and untraditional for Europeans. Semites - Muslims as well as Jews - do not eat pork meat. Tourists can enjoy veal, beef, poultry or even roasted camel.

Rice, Arab bread and couscous are popular side dishes. Spices are also used in big amounts, such as garlic, onion, black pepper, coriander, saffron, cinnamon, hibiscus, lemon grass or ambora (Arabská kuchyňa – svet orientálnych chutí. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32629/arabska-kuchyna-svet-orientalnych-chuti>>).

Exotic tastes are also offered by the Asian continent in the form of the Japanese, Thai, Chinese and Indian cuisines. Typical Japanese specialities include sushi; Chinese the traditional duck. Asian soups have an exceptional taste for Europeans. Dining is also very untraditional - cutlery is replaced by chopsticks. Asian cuisine has many forms, with nearly all of them being combined with rice - jasmine, basmati, black, red rice or sushi rice. Having the form of noodles, pasta is also made of rice. Differences within Asian countries can be observed in the spices used. Although they are similar in many ways, Chinese cuisine is known for its spicy dishes while the Japanese one uses rather natural tastes. Meat is also used differently. It is used more in China (duck, goose, chicken) while beef is not consumed in India. All the cuisines include a lot of vegetables, shiitake mushrooms or Jew's ear fungus, nuts, algae, bamboo and tofu, cabbage and sprouts (soya, bamboo, etc.). Green tea and black tea are typical beveragea that are always prepared and drunk ritually. They are served in small cups without handles. Japanese rice wine Saké or plum wine made of special plums are also well known. Chinese dining is different from the Japanese type. The Chinese one includes serving several types of dishes where everyone takes the food they like. In Japan, everyone has their food served on a plate with a bowl of rice. They serve several courses, too, but gradually. White unsalted and ungreased rice is served between the individual courses, the purpose of which is to neutralize the taste of the individual dishes so that each dish can be assessed individually (Spoznajte ázijskú kuchyňu a vychutnajte si jej čaro. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/31596/spoznajte-azijsku-kuchynu-a-vychutnajte-si-jej-caro>>).

Combining all the known world cuisines, American cuisine is quite different. In its first phase, traditional American cuisine was based on the Native cuisine that consisted of potatoes, corn and tomatoes, while meat was mainly from bison, turkey and salmon - meaning everything that nature offered. Everyone later brought to their new homeland what they wanted; immigrants maintained their eating habits and traditional recipes. Southern cuisine makes great use of Native spices and peanuts; chicken soup, fried green peppers and various bean dishes are also very popular. Cajun cuisine is rich in poultry and seafood. On the other hand, Creole cuisine makes great use of rice in many ways; they also eat a lot of pork, poultry and soups. Popular dishes in California are veal medallions, avocado, capers and pasta salad with almonds and various cocktails for drinking. Salmon, cod, prawns and crabs are typical for the Alaskan menu. Hawaiian cuisine also uses seafood and pineapple in huge amounts. The Texas-Mexican region prepares mainly various steaks, vegetable soups, bean dishes, omelettes and tortillas. Yankee cuisine is known for its Buffalo chicken wings, lobsters, turkeys and bean salad. Nowadays, the Americans do not cook very much; they mainly consume cheap and fast food, such as McDonald's, Burger King or Taco Bell. However, their favourite activity is having a barbecue in the backyard. Americans use a lot of restaurants that mostly specialise in a certain type of food, such as Chinese, Mexican, Indian, French or Spanish restaurants. The typical drink is cola (Americká kuchyňa: Zmes všetkých! [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32627/americka-kuchyna-zmes-vsetkych>>).

Eating good and fine-looking food is currently a huge trend, an important part of life style. A number of web portals, magazines and television shows are dedicated to it. Although food has always been associated with travelling, today it is a specific trend also in the tourism sector.

2. FOOD, PICTURES AND EMOTIONS - PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF FOOD MARKETING

Food is closely connected with emotions; it is a physiological and psychological stimulus for the brain. It causes pleasurable, delicious feelings and enjoyment, enhances mood and sometimes even significantly increases positive thrills and some people can feel excitement when eating. After eating, one feels satisfaction that is associated with other perceptions of the environment; it influences the quality of their perception and is transmitted to any other experiences that are happening at that time.

People do not react emotionally to everything; they are not under the effect of emotions all the time. Emotions come and go. The difference is also genetic as some people are more emotional than others. The most usual emotions for people are those when something is happening or should happen for their own welfare. When an emotion occurs, it immediately takes over control and directs our actions and thoughts. Emotions therefore enable us to deal with important events without thinking about them for long. In the brain, certain changes occur that force it to deal with the trigger of the emotion (physical reactions, perceiving, acting). If the emotion that occurred is too strong, the memory of the situation is not very clear. The appraising and deciding that trigger our emotions in the first place happen very fast and are situated outside our perception. Ekman (2014) calls this process the automatic appraisal mechanism. It often triggers mainly primary emotions such as fear, disgust, anger, misery, surprise, or the opposite - happiness and satisfaction. Appraisal mechanisms must be sensitive to two types of triggers. One needs to check which take place all the time; all the events that are important for their welfare or survival. However, we experience various situations during life. And, if we feel with these situations the basic emotions, we unconsciously link them to the group of universal triggers. So, we extend the spectre of stimuli and situations in which the automatic appraisal mechanism applies. The list of universal triggers is individual; it depends on the personal equipment and experiences of each of us. (Ekman, 2014, pp. 17-24). These triggers can also include various culinary experiences within gastro tourism.

This, however, is not the only way how emotions occur. Sometimes, an emotion occurs due to reflexive appraisal processes. In such a case, one perceives the situation consciously but they are not absolutely certain what is going on, how they should read and interpret the situation. This often happens where there is an ambiguous situation. While the situation is being developed, they think about it - what it means, what is going on. And then, suddenly, a moment comes when the whole situation connects with their emotional database. They realise the core of the situation and, accordingly, an emotional reaction occurs that is, however, based on the automatic appraisal mechanism. If an emotion occurs as a result of such reflexive and partially conscious appraisal, the benefit is that one can influence what will happen and gain control over their emotions and behaviour.

In other situations, one reacts emotionally when they are reminded of their experiences full of emotions. It is possible to intentionally recall the stimulus picture from memory and think about it; to replay it in the mind again and again. Or, such a memory can occur suddenly, unexpectedly. It does not matter how it is triggered. Apart from displaying the happening, it often also includes the emotional reaction - the same or a different one from the one experienced in the specific situation; or a picture may be displayed without any emotions. The emotions that are triggered by intentional recalling the memories of situations can be similar to the original situation or their intensity and nature can be different - they can be stronger or less intensive and even quite different. This mechanism is often used by culinary tourism and food marketing through media products. It aspires to cause in people such intensive and pleasurable experiences that, in recalling them, optimally also by watching a news or documentary program, the recipient has a strong need to repeat the experience.

Using imagination is another method of triggering an emotional reaction. If one creates pictures in their mind intentionally, which cause an emotional reaction in them, they can strengthen or weaken the trigger. In food marketing, imagination is replaced by quality and attractive pictures through television programs, which make it easier to stimulate the motivation to act and earn or repeat the experience from the consumption of quality food and beverages. Interviews about past emotional

experiences can also renew these sensations. A speaker can experience a situation again; it will help them turn back to the situation of the stimulus. Speaking also serves as a very effective advertisement in the form of references. If it is linked to a strong positive expression of happiness and enthusiasm, the effect is even stronger. This way, it can serve as an effective marketing communication tool.

Almost everyone can experience someone else's emotions; they can share their emotions, which are another way how emotions can be perceived - by sharing the emotional reactions of other people. This mechanism is intensively used in food marketing through media shows. If a host or guests expressively speak about the taste of food and beverages, portray their individual features with affection, which is accompanied by colourful pictures of the dishes in intensive colours, often displayed in detail, it can trigger in the recipient an instinctive reaction and motivate them to sharing the same emotions, perception and experiences. That can motivate them to enrol in a tasting trip, for example. However, this situation will not occur if the recipient does not identify with the speaker in any way. The person who causes such shared emotions does not have to be a friend of theirs. He or she can be a stranger and they do not even have to be present. The recipient might see them on TV or in a film or they might read about them in a magazine or book. For this reason, the host must be a sympathetic person with whom the recipient creates a relationship. One can also feel intensive emotions when reading - in perceiving a written speech that developed significantly later than emotions. In the receiver's mind, written text is transformed into perceptions, pictures, sounds, odours or even flavours. Our conceptions are finally processed by automatic appraisal mechanisms like any other situation causing emotions. Creation of the pictures in our mind is essential as emotions cannot be caused by words themselves. We are often taught by others what to be afraid of, what to be angry about or what to enjoy. It is usually our primary authority - someone who looks after us in our early age. The stronger the transmitted emotion is appraised by the authority, the stronger the effect. One follows what people important in their life emotionally react to and assumes their emotional behaviour.

The last way how emotions occur is the imitation of outer features of the basic emotion, according to Ekman. If one has the same non-verbal and verbal behaviour as the person in emotions, they acquire similar or even the same feelings and emotions as the person imitated (Ekman, 2014, 21-37). Motives and, accordingly, emotions cause in people various affective conditions that move within the dimensions of valence: pleasant - unpleasant and arousal activated - deactivated, as well as within their combinations. The individual affective states are also associated with various word expressions that correspond to these. Pleasantly activated with words such as "pleasantly excited, enthusiastic, full of energy", pleasant - "happy, pleasant, delighted", pleasantly deactivated - "calm, relaxed", unpleasantly activated - "anxious, distressed", unpleasant - "unhappy, miserable", unpleasant and deactivated - "tired, bored" (Yik, Russel, Feldman-Barrett In Stuchlíková, 2007, p. 19). So, when associated with pleasant tasting - it will be better understood, processed, remembered and maintained.

Positive as well as negative emotions also influence cognitive processes in people - i.e. what one perceives, learns, remembers and recalls and the way of their thinking. Positive emotions such as joy, interest or satisfaction take a part in the creation of rich individual personal sources, from physical and mental ones through social ones. These sources form the stable base of our personality and can be later utilised. Although we perceive the positive emotions shorter than the negative ones, they are very useful for learning and managing various cognitive tasks, which, accordingly, leads to the building of persistent intellectual sources. At the same time, they contribute to the extension of the scope and focus of our activity and conduct. So, positive states cause less usual and more variable forms of activities compared to the usual forms of people's conduct in the given situations. A positive mood therefore leads to a more favourable appraisal of situations but also to underestimation of dangers and risks. People long for positive emotions. Culinary tourism is therefore popular as one of the forms of earning such small positive enjoyments. They also play an important role in building social sources in people; not only do they create momentary social interactions; they also contribute

to long-term friendships or relations. Positive emotions allow us to rest, relax and mainly to reduce our attention. For people, it is essential to maintain a positive mood as long as possible, or to recall it repeatedly, and they tend to improve negative moods (see also Isen 1987, Wegner and Petty 1994, Stuchlíková, 2007). Food marketing and culinary tourism utilise this need.

Media producers and food marketers want people (recipients, tourists) not only to experience the situation but also to remember it for as long as possible, so that the memory is maintained in their memory and stimulates them to activity (purchase of a trip - primary, repeated). Coding information to short-term memory is primarily acoustic. Most information, however, is coded into long-term memory based on the meaning of words (semantic) (Sternberg, 2009, p. 213). The entry into the long-term memory also depends on some more processes. The important processes include targeted, consciously conditioned focusing of attention on information for the purpose of their understanding and creating links and associations between new information and the information we already know and understand.

Emotions and motivation are closely related. On the one hand, they supply energy for and orient our behaviour towards our primary instincts and psychosocial motives (Stuchlíková, 2007, p. 27). From the psychological point of view, motives are immediate incentives or reasons for an activity or conduct. For marketing purposes, it means conscious and unconscious, i.e. hidden motives, rational and emotional motives, motives of safety, well-being, welfare, individual life style, social motives of self-realisation (desire to work, belong somewhere, desire for power), desire for a change, curiosity, interest in the news, which is connected with cognitive style, permanent and temporary motives, positive and negative preferences (Hradiská & Letovancová, 2007, p. 32). Consumer behaviour is usually not influenced by only one motif. Purchase motives are conditioned individually as well as within groups.

According to the definition, marketing is a process comprising planning and implementation of production, appraisal, communication (promotion) and distribution of ideas, goods and services with the goal to implement a change that will satisfy the perceived needs, desire and requirements of an individual and organization (Bové & Arens, 1992, p. 121). Tourism, and especially culinary tourism, uses similar tools of marketing communication like those used in the presentation and promotion of other products. So, marketing communication can be considered every form of controlled communication, used by a company to inform, persuade or influence consumers, brokers and certain public groups. It is an intentional and targeted creation of information designated for the market, in a form that is acceptable for the target group (Boučková & al., 2003, p. 178). In media marketing, product covers everything that can satisfy the customer's needs in the media market (Čábyová, 2010, p. 12). In the case of television, it is a show – a program. The television medium enables the effect on two senses - sight and hearing - of the recipient and the use of as many as six forms of transmission - pictures, info graphics, text, speech, music and authentic sounds. It is therefore the most complex medium in terms of effects on recipients and the potential possibility to create an emotional experience and transmission of information. Marketing communication can influence our decision making by a number of forms. It can help realise the need (advertisement, direct marketing, sales promotion, public relations), to provide information in searching for problem solutions (direct marketing, sales promotion, public relations), point out the criteria that must be considered in decision making and that have not been taken into account by the consumers before (direct marketing, sales promotion), create conditions for approval of the purchase by social environment (advertisement) and create conditions for approval of the decision (public relations) (Hradiská & Letovancová, 2007, p. 41).

To promote facts, information and, at the same time, also emotions within television reproduction, journalistic programmes and documentary films are used. Journalism is the second basic component of journalistic units after the news. It can be also considered an opinion-expressing genre. In terms of

the access of a journalist to the portrayed event or fact, it can be assessed on two levels - a rational type level (analytic) and the second level - emotional (belletristic) approach (Tušer & al., 2010, p. 109). Within journalistic programs, magazines are transmitted that consist of shorter news bites, often accompanied by a host's commentary. This type of show is produced on record. It is a puzzle of several reports within one or more topics. It uses reports - short journalistic works that form a small closed unit in terms of content. A host connects the individual parts by his or her speech and text to that content. The information does not have to be necessarily up to date but interesting in terms of their content. This form is often used to promote the culture and history of a country as well as its food and dining habits. In order for the recipient to mentally process and accept the offer, it must attract their attention, they must understand its content that they include into their cognitive structure, i.e. to the system of knowledge, personal experience and "second-hand" experience (from media or other people), to understand its content and to achieve that its content is maintained in the recipient's memory. People are able to remember incentives perceived by all the senses - we can remember tastes, odours, sounds, pictures and tactile sensations. The remembering process is supported if there is an emotional response. Emotional memory works for a very long time; the recipient often does not remember what exactly the content was. The level at which mental process are held depends not only on the form and content of the offer but also on the meaning the recipient attributes to the offer. If they find the offer interesting, they expend more mental energy to perceive it well and to remember all its important features (Hradiská & Letovancová, pp. 50-54). On the other hand, they do not accept the offer automatically; instead, they assess it critically before making any decision. For critical assessment, critical thinking is essential, according to D. Petranová. It is individual thinking during the course of which one comes to a new information through surveying, comparing or verifying the correctness of own ideas and the ideas of others. Critical thinking is conditioned by previous analytical thinking. That results in the ability to identify important facts and links within a huge amount of information and to formulate opinions and solutions on their basis (Petranová, 2011, p. 68).

CONCLUSION: GOOD AND BAD EXAMPLES OF MEDIA FOOD MARKETING

Televisions present various programmes that display the history and culture of individual countries on the one hand and traditional food and habits related to their preparation and dining in general on the other. The author demonstrates in the examples how the media potential can be utilised to promote tourism, culinary tourism as well as the history and culture of the given countries. In addition, shows have a high educational potential. The second example demonstrates how a show with a very good, highly potential brand that can attract recipients absolutely ignores the promotion of historical structures, cultural monuments, and stunning natural localities in which it is being produced despite sufficient extension.

Slovak television channels currently transmit several chef shows about cooking. The national television channel RTVS – Cestou necestou (market share of 5.5%), Slovensko chutí (market share of 8.3%) and Tajomstvo mojej kuchyne (market share of 15.1%). Commercial television TV JOJ presents a family cooking contest – "Moja mama varí lepšie ako tvoja" (market share of 18.9%) and advice and recipes within the show – "15 min. kuchár" (market share of 8.0%). Commercial television TV Markíza is currently transmitting only one show – "Varte s nami" (market share of 5.5%) that is commercially interconnected with the LIDL retail chain. In the past, there were two strong shows – "Masterchef" (market share of 16.9%) – a best chef contest - and "Bez servítky" (market share of 18.2%) – a reality show about cooking (Research Department of RTV, personal consultation) (Department research and development program formats RTVS, 3. 2. 2017)

In 2015, the national television channel (Rozhlas a televízia Slovenska; hereinafter only RTVS) introduced two new formats - two new shows about food. At the beginning of the year, it was the

"Slovensko chutí" (Slovakia Taste) show. It is described as a new chef show in which recipes from different Slovak regions are varied and made lighter and more modern in order to get them onto the tables of restaurants and households. *The première of this show was on 10 February on STV1 and it is transmitted every Tuesday at 9.30pm after the show Nikto nie je dokonalý. One instalment lasts 26 minutes.* The show is produced for the national television channel by good tv which also produces the programmes Milujem Slovensko, Domov, sladký domov, and the summer show Naj dedinka Slovenska. The show includes product placements of Coop Jednota and the participants use in their cooking the products of this retail chain. The basic principle is to introduce, through ordinary people, traditional recipes as well as chefs, restaurant owners and their employees from different regions across Slovakia. *The hosts of the first series were Silvia Pilková, the author of six books of traditional recipes Poklady slovenskej kuchyne, a good food lover and a great home chef, and Michal Šiška, a young head chef who used to cook with Jamie Oliver, opened fourteen branches of his famous restaurant globally and, in the end, opened his own restaurant in Pezinok. The hosts travel around Slovakia to discover what dishes are considered in the Slovak regions as the kitchen heritage of grandmothers. They not only explain and show how the foods are prepared but also tell the audience the story behind the dish. Chef Mišo cooks in the second part of the show. He aspires to create a lighter, modernised version of the given traditional dish. The first part usually takes place in the household of a housewife that cooks a traditional dish; the second part takes place in a restaurant in that locality. So, the audience get 2 recipes in each instalment. They tried to make the show more attractive by sharing the interesting stories of people from all corners of Slovakia. RTVS is currently transmitting the third series. The only change to the show was the hosts.* In the second, autumn series, the show was hosted by Jamie Oliver's ambassador and author of a cookbook Anta Orosiová and Jana "Janicu" Lacová. The hosts had already introduced themselves on television channel Markíza in the Zmena chutí show, of which only a few instalments were transmitted. RTVS was not satisfied with them, either. They were blamed for the causing the sensation of the Slovak tradition, which is essential for this show, and enthusiasm in cooking to disappear (RTVS vymenila moderátorov relácie Slovensko chutí. [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://medialne.etrend.sk/televizia/rtps-vymenila-moderatorov-relacie-slovensko-chuti.html>>, Druhá sériu kulinárskej relácie Slovensko chutí budú moderovať ambasádorky Jamieho Olivera. [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://www.mediawatch.dog/druhu-seriu-kulinarskej-relacie-slovensko-chuti-budu-moderovat-ambasadorky-jamieho-olivera>>). In the third series of the periodical show "Slovensko chutí", there are two new hosts - Lucia Gulišová and Tomáš Tejbus. Lucia is a true lover of food and good recipes. An amateur chef that cooks with passion and heart, which is mainly proven by her cakes. She loves creativity in food, good company and, in the show, she will guide us through the world of traditional recipes. Tomáš Tejbus - an experienced head chef from the region below the Tatra Mountains - manages this art as well as the personnel in his own restaurant. He is a proud defender of Slovak cuisine and, as an experienced professional; he will bring inspiring innovations to the traditional domestic cuisine.

However, the producers of the Slovensko chutí show failed to use the full potential of the name of the show. The show aspires to provide and introduce traditional dishes, different corners of Slovakia and the life of people living there. The content of the show is based on contemporary so-called spontaneous dialogues, which, however, often stay on the surface, followed by empty sections in the show. The show could have included the history of the dishes and the period of their occurrence, which could have been based on the memories of the cooking chef whose speech could have been supplemented with facts and historical pictorial materials. The place where the show is shot is also presented insufficiently from the visual aspect. The area is shown only in a few shots at the beginning and at the end of the show. Too much time is, however, provided to shots of the chefs' houses and the cooking area of the first part and for the restaurants in the second part. Again, the shots are too long and a part of the visual section could have been provided to present the locality. Also questionable and confusing is the part where the head chef changes the traditional recipes to a lighter and modern version. The chef varies ingredients (e.g. from frozen to fresh spinach, from flour to pasta); so, potato

lokša suddenly becomes spinach soup. This can hardly be considered a variation of a traditional dish as a new dish is often created with a completely different consistence, which has only little in common with the original raw materials. Although the show was also supposed to present the Slovak regions and some Slovak restaurants are shown, it does not evoke positive emotions that would promote domestic tourism. It only remained at the level of contemporary reality shows and failed to utilise its promoting and educational potential it had.

Another, quite different show in terms of quality and a good example of how to connect food marketing, promotion of culinary tourism and presentation of successful Slovaks is the show "Cestou necestou" (On Track – Off Track) with the subtitle Chute sveta predstavia Slováci žijúci v zahraničí. It has also been transmitted from 2015 but from the autumn. The third series currently starts with reprises of the second-series instalments. One instalment lasts about thirty minutes and is transmitted once a week. Cestou necestou is an original Slovak format that is produced by the young production company No Label Sound - the producer and director of most instalments is Tibor Patay and his wife Alexandra Popovičová. It is a cycle of 15 instalments. The shooting of one cycle lasted about three months. The show can be considered a kind of gastronomic travel guide, where localities and cities are introduced by the Slovaks who have lived abroad for a long time and who speak the language of the given country fluently. The fact that the producers addressed people who had never acted in front of a camera before appeared to be an interesting and quite a good step. According to the producers, it took them more than six months to find these people. In the end, it was they who recommended the production crew their favourite places, whereby the instalments have become their subjective view of the place where they live. The age category of the participating hosts ranged from 25 to 50 and there were also some married couples. Most of them are very successful and their profession is also reflected in the places the producers visited with the video camera. For example, a young and successful barman in Hong Kong or a married couple - architects in Shanghai, etc. Traditions, habits, monuments and the infrastructure of the places penetrate the show through gastronomy (for example growing olives, production of St. John's wort oil, searching for truffles, milking of sheep, or restaurants, markets and home-cooking). During the course of the project's shooting, the three-member staff has travelled 23,000 km by car and flown 37 hours by plane (time spent in the air). The audience sees various places - Lisbon, Rome, Sicily, French Riviera, Basque Country, Greek island of Thasos, Croatian Istria, Turkish city of Izmir, Israel, Bangkok, Thai province of Khao Lak, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Singapore and Shanghai. (Cestou necestou: Chute sveta predstavia Slováci žijúci v zahraničí. [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://www.gastroweb.sk/aktualne/cestou-necestou-chute-sveta-predstaviaslovaci-zijuci-v-zahranici.html>>, Na Jednotku prichádza Cestou necestou. "Išlo aj o život," hovorí tvorkyňa. [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://strategie.hnonline.sk/spravy/782482-na-jednotku-prichadza-cestou-necestou-islo-aj-o-zivot-hovori-tvorkyna>>; [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <https://www.facebook.com/cestounecestouRTVS> [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<https://www.rtvsk.sk/televizia/archiv/10393/98910>>).

The "Cestou necestou" project is a very creative and interesting format in which the producers managed to connect the passion for travelling and gastronomy. The author of the project is right when she says the show is for everyone and that also those who have travelled a lot can learn some new information and kitchen masters can find some inspiration. So, it also has an educational function. It is a valuable example of promoting the Slovaks who have become successful in foreign countries and who show us what they like in the given country and what is characteristic for it. In this way, information as well as emotions become stronger and persuasive. The camera and video editing are excellent, making the show dynamic and still keeping the images interesting. Gastronomy guides the audience through the places and the life of the places. It is used as a tool to show the local habits, history and traditions. The key to understanding different cultures is local gastronomy in all forms from luxury restaurants through farms. The producers have perfectly utilised the different professions and life style of the Slovak - guides, which creates a unique atmosphere and pace to each instalment.

Shows have a significant educational benefit as well as an emotional feature with a strong motivating effect.

The author of the contribution pointed out important mental aspects of food marketing within culinary tourism as well as its use through television shows. She analysed an unsuccessful and a successful form of presenting the gastronomy and culture of a country. Within the production of such programmes she recommends the following:

- When making a show, producers should not only present recipes and their preparation; the information about dishes should also be supplemented with historical information or other interesting facts associated with the gastronomy of the given locality; if possible, pictures should be used, which make the show even more attractive and extends the audience base.
- They should present rich pictorial materials from the specific locality that would also increase the potential motivation to visit the country in person and
- hire real and interesting people living in the given region, work with them and not leave presentation only to their spontaneity but also help them present themselves in front of the video camera in an interesting way.
- They should edit videos dynamically in order to balance the content and portray the attractiveness of the show.

REFERENCES

- Americká kuchyňa: Zmes všetkých!* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32627/americka-kuchyna-zmes-vsetkych>>.
- Arabská kuchyňa – svet orientálnych chutí.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32629/arabska-kuchyna-svet-orientalnych-chuti>>.
- Boučková, J. a kol. (2003). *Marketing*. Praha: C. H. Beck.
- Bovee, C. & Arens, W. F. (1992). *Contemporary Advertising*. Toronto: Irwing.
- Čábyová, L. (2010) *Mediálny marketing*. Trnava: Fakulta masmediálnej komunikácie UCM.
- Cestou necestou: Chute sveta predstavia Slováci žijúci v zahraničí.* [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://www.gastroweb.sk/aktualne/cestou-necestou-chute-sveta-predstaviaslovaci-zijuci-v-zahranici.html>>.
- Ekman, P. (2014). *Odhalené emócie*. Bratislava: Arimes.
- Francúzska kuchyňa dokáže splniť všetky sny správneho labužníka.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/32957/francuzska-kuchyna-dokaze-splnit-vsetky-sny-spravneho-labuznika>>.
- Gúčík, M. & al. (2006). *Manažment cestovného ruchu*. Banská Bystrica : Dali-BB.
- Hradiská, E. & Letovancová, E. (2007). *Psychológia v marketingovej komunikácii*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského.
- Isen, A. M. (1987). *Positive affect, cognitive processes, and social behavior*. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Volume 20. 203-253.
- Jakubíková, D. (2009). *Marketing v cestovním ruchu*. Praha: Grada.
- Kronďáková, I., & HERMANOVÁ, E. *Gastroturismus*. Arts Lexikon [online]. [19.2.2013]. Available at: <http://www.artsllexikon.cz/index.php?title=Gastroturismus>.
- Montanari, M. (2006). *Food Is Culture*. New York: Columbia University Press.

- Na Jednotku prichádza Cestou necestou.* "Išlo aj o život," hovorí tvorkyňa. [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<http://strategie.hnonline.sk/spravy/782482-na-jednotku-prichadza-cestou-necestou-islo-aj-o-zivot-hovori-tvorkyna>>.
- Obliba kulinárskej turistiky roste.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://www.tourism-review.cz/obliba-kulinarske-turistiky-roste-news3184>.
- Petranová, D. (2011). Rozvíja mediálna výchova v školách kritické kompetencie žiakov? *Communication Today*, 2 (1), 66 – 83.
- Pravdová, H. (2015). *Manažment&marketing v kultúrnych inštitúciách*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského v Bratislave.
- Preferencie Európanov v cestovnom ruchu.* (bleskový barometer). [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://www.zhrs.sk/images/Dokumenty/ClenskaZona/HOTREC_newsletter/Statistika/2016/fl_432_fact_sk_sk.pdf>.
- Raabová, T. (2010). *Cestovní ruch : Studie o sociálně ekonomickém potenciálu kulturních, resp kreativních průmyslů v ČR*. Praha: Institut umění – Divadelní ústav.
- Španielsko: miestna kuchyňa.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <https://www.invia.sk/spanielsko/miestna-kuchyna>.
- Spoznajte ázijskú kuchyňu a vychutnajte si jej čaro.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<https://dobruchut.azet.sk/clanok/31596/spoznajte-azijsku-kuchynu-a-vychutnajte-si-jej-caro>>.
- Štatistika cestovného ruchu.* [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Tourism_statistics/sk#.C5.A0tatistika_cestovn.C3.A9ho_ruchu>.
- Sternberg, R. J. (2009). *Kognitívni psychologie*. Praha: Portál.
- Stratégia rozvoja cestovného ruchu do roku 2020 - Strategy of Tourism Development by 2020*, approved by the Slovak Government Resolution No. 379/2013 of 10 July 2013. [online]. [2017-01-18]. Available at: <<http://docplayer.cz/30430598-Strategia-rozvoja-cestovneho-ruchu-do-roku-2020.html>>.
- Stuchlíková, I. (2007). *Základy psychologie emocí*. Praha: Portál, s. r. o.
- Tušer A. & al. (2010). *Praktikum mediálnej tvorby*. Bratislava: Eurokódex, s. r. o.
- Wegener, D. T. & Petty, R. E. (1994). Mood management across affective states. The hedonoc contingency hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 6, 1034-1048.
- [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<https://www.facebook.com/cestounecestouRTVS>>
- [online]. [2017-01-24]. Available at: <<https://www.rtv.sk/televizia/archiv/10393/98910>>).

STORY TOURISM AS A DISCURSIVE TOPIC OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT

Hana Pravdová

University Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava / Faculty of Mass Media Communication
Trnava, Slovakia

ABSTRACT

The study takes up the issue of crafting stories in support of the development of tourism in the field of cultural monuments and museums through product placement. This concept has recently been applied in the documentary genre as well. The analysis completed by the author focused on the creation and usage of documentary film to promote specific cultural destinations in a crafted story. Opportunities to reinforce tourism through stories connected to specific destinations, actors and artefacts are revealed in documentary film. The mental atmosphere of today's hyper-modern society is identified as a major factor behind the motivating force of stories among target groups. Visitors look to stories to provide a strong emotional experience through stories tied to the particularities of cultural destinations and their offerings.

Keywords: story tourism, product placement, documentary film, hyper-modern society, cultural omnivore

INTRODUCTION

Tourism continues to play an ever more important role in modern societies as an important economic sector, generating business and creating jobs, and as a cultural phenomenon. Tourism has become a significant part of everyday culture and free time, not to mention a preferred lifestyle. It also expands the minds and raises the awareness of clients as to the histories of individual cultures and spheres of civilisation while highlighting the diversity of cultural identities. It brings the historical stories of buildings, individuals and communities back to life in the present. This aspect makes it clear that there is an interdependent and intimate relationship between culture and tourism. Both are connected to such an extent that they form a separate and very significant unit called cultural tourism. Its importance is highlighted by the fact that it provides many development stimuli for increasing and enhancing the visibility or improving the attractiveness of a country, region, location or place more attractive. It also helps in efforts to maintain, protect and spread the cultural values of an individual place, location, region or sphere of civilisation. In terms of tourism profits, it has been proven that a culture and its values represent a specific and unique offering on the market and can guarantee its long-term development. Travelling for culture is one of the most emergent tourism segments, representing both significant economic stimulus for cultural institutions and the impetus for creating attractive, interesting and quality offerings of products, programs and services.

Differentiation has recently begun on a global scale within cultural offerings in terms of the specific form of cultural tourism, specifically heritage tourism, which includes travelling for cultural monuments and historical heritage purposes (Magál & Tinka, 2016). Travelling for cultural monuments has become a part of a lifestyle, and a way of spending free time. Monuments forming the culture of a country, such as castles, châteaux, monasteries, churches, chapels and various fortifications and complexes are currently considered the most significant parts of cultural destinations. According to Kesner (2005, p. 27) museums in the United States and a host of European countries have also experienced significant development over the past two decades. They have become a significant component of the basic cultural tourism offerings and developed into a position

where they represent one of the primary destinations for spending free time. Studies also exist that show that cultural tourists account for 35 – 70% of international tourists depending on the destination and which confirms the importance of culture itself within tourism (McKercher & Du Cros 2002, p. 1). A contributing factor to this fact is the comprehensiveness in the range of available cultural destinations conditioned by the various expectations of visitors. Such expectations are associated with activities focused on visiting any place other than an individual's place of residence that delivers relaxation, learning, distractions and entertainment (Gúčík, 2006, p. 4).

Despite the author's optimism, the question remains as to the extent to which the current status of cultural tourism has been affected by international events after the year 2000, including numerous terrorist attacks, political instability, wars, financial crisis and epidemics. There are justifiable concerns that a specific combination of such factors may change the behaviour of consumers on the tourism market in a fundamental way across the entire Eurozone or even globally. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) responded to this situation in 2008 by completing its vision for the future of tourism. It accentuated the importance of the trend of on-going globalisation, which is a driver of the prosperity of tourism destinations, greater usage of information and information technologies and expansion of the attractiveness of destinations ((Borovský & Smolková & Niňajová, 2008).

Those responsible for creating programs, scripts and exhibits in targeted cultural destinations, marketing and communication strategy specialists and media communication specialists are all faced with new challenges. Managers and curators of cultural monuments and museums focus on increasing quality and creating exclusive and attractive offers for potential visitors, including a full range of ancillary services. Marketing and media specialists apply proven communication tools, especially advertising and public relations, while actively identifying new ways to present cultural destinations. Emphasis is placed on their specificity, attractiveness and excellence with the goal of increasing the attractiveness of the place and cultural and art offerings to induce interest and curiosity among potential visitors. One specific advertising tool is product placement, which has a broad range of applications, in particular in audio-visual works. Documentary film as a way to communicate cultural productions and services remains a rather unappreciated genre. Such under-appreciation endures despite the existence of numerous successful television projects and even television channels focused primarily on tourism that have attracted significant audiences. The author of the study claims that those creating the program offerings of cultural institutions, marketing specialists and media content creators, do not make sufficient use of the attractiveness of a story or stories associated with the specific cultural destination, human destinies or stories connected to exceptional exhibits in their promotional materials. They do not fully appreciate the mental atmosphere of the hyper-modern society in which individuals have a strongly-developed desire for experiences, emotional excitement and fascinating stories, people who are described as cultural omnivores. Based on these facts, the author formulates the premise that the story itself may function in the role of product placement when applied in documentary film. Product placement is a gentle, paid form of surreptitious advertising that can significantly stimulate potential clients to travel to specific cultural destinations.

1. CULTURAL OMNIVORES IN THE EXPERIENCE-DRIVEN HYPER-MODERN SOCIETY

Numerous authors use different terms to express the nature of societies considered a part of the Western sphere of civilisation. Despite the differences in these terms, they basically agree on the reasons and consequences of changes in these societies. The major factors are globalisation and globalisation processes, the tremendous boom in the development of new technologies and the rapidly progressing commercialisation of the cultural sphere. Some refer to the current situation using terms including post-modern (Lyotard, 1993; Welsh, 1993; McGuigan, 1999 and others), while others use late modernity (Petrusek & Balon, 2011), information society (Masuda, 1996; Castells, 1996), fluid

modernity (Bauman, 2002), hyper-modern society (Lipovetsky, 2013) and experience-driven society (Schultze, 1992) etc.

The results of the work and basic concepts developed by Lipovetsky (2013), Schultze (1999) and Bauman (2002) are, in our opinion, relevant for understanding the thinking and behaviour of potential visitors to cultural monuments and museums. Hyper-modernity represents the period after post-modernity but does not represent the end of modernity. It is manifested by the “globalisation of liberalism, the nearly universal application of selling principles on our way of life, maximum use of instrumental reason and an explosion of individualisation” (Lipovetsky, 2013, p. 56). Hyper-modern society is characterised by a non-unified culture full of contradictions, uncertainty, confusion and fragmentation that produced much faster development in economic and technological spheres than was the case in the first half of the 20th century. The rapid increase in dynamic changes has affected the lifestyle of individuals who are now characterised by hyper-consumption, individualisation, conduct and behaviour that speaks to disillusionment, boredom, toiling for entertainment and adventure, a morbid obsession with attractive images by co-opting pleasure in society’s range of values and even narcissistic self-stylisation. Individuals living during the period of hyper-modernity are under pressure from a lack of time and have changed the way in which they care about the future. They focus on the joy of things that are new, and want everything all at once. However, they only think about the future within the bounds of themselves, their future education and careers. This behaviour is typically manifested in an obsession with their own health, longevity and internal youth (Lipovetsky, 2013).

Reflection on the consumption-based behaviour of a person desiring entertainment corresponds to the characteristic profile of an individualised person, a consumer, existing within the bounds of “liquid modernity” (Bauman, 2002). The consequence of such a mental disposition is that people focus on those offerings that guarantee them new stimuli, episodes and experiences full of excitement and entertainment, tension and uniqueness. Bauman’s claims correspond to the opinions and findings of Schultze (1999). He refers to society as one focused on experiences and based on values with preference towards emotional experiences in particular. Experience seekers are exposed to a tremendous quantity of diverse offers at an intense level. This exposure in and of itself induces uncertainty. They doubt the correctness of their choices, unable to ascertain if the decision they made is right and will deliver ample excitement and emotional fulfilment without wondering if they passed up a more attractive experience. To avoid the uncertainty that wells up from the fear of making the wrong decision, they try and consume quickly, thereby cycling through a large quantity of different experiences. The rapid consumption of experiences and the ethos of hedonism have become the impulses for creating such a lifestyle in which economic interests are clearly defined and recognisable. Bell (1999, p. 88-89) noted that the economy in the post-industrial age focused on the production of preferred lifestyles that generated new cultural values. Styles are formed in the background of new sensibilities and morals of entertainment, legitimising the world of hedonism through photographs, advertising, television and travelling. They offer an attractive idea where a person lives only for their hedonistic expectations.

The position of culture in the conditions of global capitalisation has changed dramatically due to the creation of a new logic of culture (Jameson, 1991). The new commercial order now completely controls the cultural sphere. Boundaries between high culture and mass or commercial culture have vanished and a new nostalgia of cultural forms and fashion styles that popularise history is born. A new and dominant type of recipient of forms of culture, “the cultural omnivore” (Peterson, 1992), is now on the scene. The cultural omnivore represents a major segment of the recipients of cultural offerings. Their tastes are not selective or focused selectively on high culture, as is the case of culture snobs; rather their interests are diverse and appetite universal, regardless of gender (Davydyuk & Panasenکو, 2016). Such an educated public was responsible for starting the relatively massive opening up of popular culture forms, including country and rap music. It is clear that the eclectic

nature of the tastes of an educated cultural omnivore is conditioned by globalisation and the tremendous quantity of cultural offerings on the market. However, those lacking sufficient cultural education find it relatively difficult to orient themselves on this market and tend to prefer a very narrow segment of pop culture offerings.

The universality of the tastes of the cultural omnivore must be considered when segmenting visitors and clients of cultural monuments and museums and in the crafting of a communication strategy. Despite this, the segmentation of clients based on lifestyle remains very popular within tourism and it has been shown that the mental profile and universal appetite of the cultural omnivore must be considered together with the frequency of visits to the given cultural destination and the way offerings are used. Kesner (2005, p. 150) defined four key segments of potential customers in his research based on the criteria of the frequency of visitors to cultural monuments and museums and the manner if their use:

- Frequent visitors -- several times a year: Specialists, art lovers, people with high level of competencies for the given type of product (professional affairs, collectors, club members, etc.).
- Occasional visitors -- at least once a year: Cultural public, people with less of a defined interest in art and culture (i.e. active tourists, with a castle as the destination of a trail).
- Sporadic visitors -- occasional visits: People who prefer other types of free time activities but who are willing to visit a given destination under specific circumstances (i.e. while on holiday or to adapt to a group).
- Other visitors -- never.

This segmentation indicates that the phenomenon of the cultural omnivore extends beyond the cultural appetite and tastes of educators, fans, collectors, etc. Under specific circumstances, these cultural omnivores and people who lack sufficient education do indeed have some special affinity for culture. They go to cultural monuments and museums because that purchase a trip from a travel agency with other activities in a single package or are participating with friends on a shared holiday, for instance on an educational trip, etc. At first glance it may appear that the phenomenon of the cultural omnivore represents the ideal potential client for contemporary cultural tourism. Another aspect of cultural omnivores exposes other significant factors behind their universal tastes. Their typological transformation, from snobs to omnivores, is primarily conditioned by the existence of strong competition in terms of offerings of cultural products and services. According to research conducted by Bačuvčík (2012, p. 65), such a situation and a strengthening trend is evident among local, regional and global culture markets, where supply is even outstripping demand on some of these markets. This trend has resulted in open competition on cultural markets and fierce competition between individual cultural entities for clients. Competition poses a major challenge to those creating programs and offerings of products and services in the area of culture and for the creators of marketing communication strategies. This raises a key question: How and what are the most effective ways to attract cultural omnivores and convince them to visit a cultural institution?

2. STORY TOURISM AS A DISCURSIVE TOPIC OF PRODUCT PLACEMENT

According to the author, the mental characteristics of contemporary cultural omnivores and the media's large share in satiating their information, entertainment and cognitive needs provide an inherent answer: the best way to reach such omnivores is through audio-visual communication that offers an engaging story, for instance on television, functioning as product placement in a documentary film. There are a host of arguments to support this claim (Pravdová, 2011, p. 15). Television remains the most watched compared to other traditional media (print and radio). Compared to other traditional media, television offers strong experiences and tremendous entertainment through fascinating stories combining images, music, spoken word and sounds. It induces strong emotions and feelings such as laughter, enthusiasm, euphoria, awe, fascination and also dismay, disgust, anger, etc. meeting the needs of cultural omnivores. Hudíková (2015, p. 164) emphasises that "emotions

have an irreplaceable place in contemporary television productions, even in such formats that were previously neutral. They have become attention getters, the foundation for stories to present various everyday problems to the recipient. The audience creates a connection to the media product on an emotional plane and more easily receives, understands and remembers the content that the authors wanted to convey on this basis". The synergy of audio-visual testimony and contemporary trends in the creation of communication based on the use of spectacular elements including "attractiveness, emphasis on story, show, spectacle, etc." (Radošinská & Višňovský, 2013, p. 510) offers the audience a multitude of experiences. Postman's (1999) critical analysis of trends in television production claims that all topics, even the tragic, catastrophic and otherwise, have been transformed into entertainment. Television is also the most effective full-body propagator and promoter of lifestyles, ideas, conventions, social stereotypes and beliefs. It is therefore a societal authority which, *inter alia*, influences the attitudes of viewers. Fiske and Hartley (1978) claim, that they are willing, either passively or knowingly, to accept the socio-cultural reality.

Just as on the culture market, there is tremendous competition for an audience on the media market. That is the reason why the creators of television content must identify formats able to convincingly attract the attention of the television audience. Story has joined the spectacular, action and dynamism as a key component in attracting the interest of the audience. Stories are the driving force in current media creations. Their creation can be observed across the entire range of television productions, from standard television dramas to documentaries, news programs and advertising. A story must be told in a very attractive way, it must evoke an emotional response from the audience and embed itself in their memory. Stories in television content are more than just imaginary storylines and fiction; often they also rely on real facts. Stories based on what actually happened in contemporary television news, public relations and documentary works speak in a professional manner using facts and arguments along the same storyline. They are told in individual sequences, most often in the way that they occurred, i.e. in a linear or chronological progression. Burton and Jiráček (2001, p. 216) see similar compositional approaches between fictional genres and genres working the facts. Just as a television show introduces characters and the environment at the beginning (exposition), documentary filmmakers introduce a topic or theme. Indeed, just like shows, conflicts and story sequences open up additional subtopics and facts to the documentary filmmaker to be explained as well.

The author of the study notes that two basic types of storytelling must be differentiated when it comes to television content. The first is speaking about events, referring to them, about what happened, how it happened and how a situation developed. The second is storytelling in a dramatic sense in which the characters, the protagonists of the story and their interpersonal relationships, thoughts and actions are involved. In this form of storytelling, it is important to focus on the internal composition of the data, i.e. exposition, conflict, crisis, peripeteia, disaster. It is important to emphasise that while creators make an honest attempt at describing the facts, the resulting product, such as a historical documentary film, does not always correspond to reality. There are two key reasons for this:

- Firstly, the processing of specific historical topics involves stories that are the result of a reconstruction of certain events, people, their relationships or the results of stories connected to architecture, furniture, objects, relics and so on. The creator typically draws on facts from historical sources, documents, records, scientific monographs, chronicles, etc. Storytelling in this case may encounter a lack of a unified opinion and even sharp controversy among experts, from historians to art historians and curators, concerning the specific event or the absence of serious historical research and examination.
- Lastly, the reconstruction of events involves a specific quantity of imagination and interpretation, on which the author has a significant impact. The screenwriter and director together determine the elements of expression and compositional techniques of the documentary genre to use based on their own perception of the historical event. This means that the media reality does not necessarily correspond to historical reality. The audience is also important to remember in this situation given that the objective is to

induce interest and build a relationship to the story. Ways to accomplish this include a large degree of tension, empathy with the main protagonists in the story and different types of emotions so that the audience watches the entire story, gets hooked by the story and is deeply touched by the story to such an extent that it leaves a deep emotional imprint in their memory.

The author of the study introduced the premise in the introduction that a story may function as product placement, i.e. it may be a means for stimulating potential clients to travel to a specific cultural destination. It has also been proven and is generally known that the decision to visit a cultural institution is formed based on emotional influences and implicit memory. Slušná (2013, p. 93) notes two specific moments in this context. An excessive focus on emotions may be a positive and a negative. It is proven to drive an increase in traffic and interest in an event, exhibit, collection, etc. It is also shown that focus on originality and uniqueness may see cultural offerings turned into tabloid fodder, a push towards mass consumption, an increasing trend towards entertainment and the offering of placating, and therefore kitsch products. Based on findings as to the motivations for visiting museums and cultural monuments, Kesner (2005, p. 87) identifies the need to innovate their offerings and audio-visual presentation. Exhibit practices also show that the conception of attractive, original offerings and their audio-visual presentation may increase traffic. Despite concerns that offerings are moving towards the mass market and kitsch, the goal of using a story in the role of product placement in a documentary film should be the creation of a specific perception of the world among potential visitors, reinforcing their desire to experience the real thing. Urry (1990) speaks about a specific tourist's perception of the world. This perception is created when a tourist gains new, beautiful, interesting and exceptional visual impressions. A tourist's perception is also constructed by producers based on anticipation, a solid study of dreams, imagination and stereotypes about what must be seen and what should be seen and experienced.

The justification for using a story in the role of product placement has a very pragmatic background. It is no secret that the target groups in the public are expressing greater resistance to classic forms of advertising. New digital technologies allow the audience to ignore advertising blocks altogether. The audience simply records, skips, replays or switches between other television stations and programs. Standard television advertising is usually presented in advertising blocks and is very obtrusive and even forcible, especially in private television channels, because they interrupt the audience while watching their favourite programs. Product placement is considered an effective communication tool because it lacks this forcible aspect and gains the audience's attention through integration in the story, storyline and actions of the protagonists. It could be defined as paid information about a product to purposefully influence a film or television audience. According to Balasubramanian (1994, p. 29), product placement is the planned and inconspicuous inclusion of a branded product into a film or television program.

Product placement is most commonly used in television formats that the television stations produce at their own cost or purchase as a finished product from an external production company. These primarily include serials, films, talk shows, life-style programs, reality shows and computer games in which product placement occurs based on contractually agreed conditions. Product placement is most commonly applied as a part of an integrated marketing campaign in marketing communication practice. The purpose of product placement in television formats is to ensure the visibility of a product and to induce interest in it among the target groups. Product placement represents a pleasant component of a television production, able to induce a diverse range of desires, including the desire to own, taste, visit, touch, etc. Marketing communication specialists agree that qualitative research into the level of effectiveness of product placement is ineffective due to the financial burden it represents. In marketing communication practice, it is perceived as a very efficient tool with the potential to persuade with very low investment risk (Balasubramanian, 1994; Příkrilová & Jahodová, 2010; Čábyová, 2010; Vysekalová & Mikeš, 2007). The most commonly used indicator for measuring

efficacy is typically the increase in sales of products or services, which is often the effect of the registration of the product placement in the subconscious of consumers that creates an emotional relationship to the product thanks to the film story (Přikrylová & Jahodová, 2010, p. 257-258).

As noted previously, contemporary cultural omnivores can be most effectively reached by audio-visual communication that offers an eye-catching television story. The author points out the under-appreciation for the attractiveness of a story in the role of product placement in contemporary documentaries for three reasons. The first is lower production costs and price compared to feature films. The second is better targeting of potential visitors, cultural omnivores for which travelling to cultural destinations for various reasons is a significant expression of their lifestyle. The third reason is seen in the attractiveness of a story based on an authentic presentation of a situation that induces the desire among recipients to experience something attractive, exclusive and emblazoned with a hint of mystery. It is noted that any story that should reach its target audience must correspond to the offering of programs, products and advertising messages of cultural destinations.

CONCLUSION

Documentary films exist that may be considered textbook examples of the use and crafting of stories in the role of product placement. The author gives examples in the form of the American documentary series *Mysteries at the Castle*, which premièred in 2014, and the *Mysteries at the Museum* series that premièred in 2011. *Mysteries at the Castle* offers the audience attractive stories based on true historical events. The creators use the stories in the program to expose various secrets hidden behind the gates and walls of castles, châteaux and other magnificent historical buildings in Europe and in America. The narrations focused on what happened and are used to dramatize the storyline, with actors serving as the protagonists in the story as well as historians or other experts. The stories feature a very clear storyline and internal composition: exposition, conflict, crisis, peripeteia, disaster. This method of constructing a storyline and storytelling combined with engaging visuals offers the audience a very attractive and emotionally-charged experience. The creators used a similar approach in the *Mysteries at the Museum* series focused on the stories of extraordinary artefacts in museums closely tied to the fates of different people.

The creator, writer and director very gently but clearly are popularising interesting cultural objects and artefacts associated with human stories and their fates. These places and people are connected to interesting locations promising interesting experiences to tourists and a certain degree of comfort. The author of the study supports this with a randomly selected story from an episode of *Mysteries at the Castle* set in the Alsace Region in France, right at the German border. The first words in the episode emphasise that the region is known for its cities from the Middle Ages, wine, rugged mountain terrain and as a perfect destination for tourists. The story in this episode involves an abbey monastery located on Mount St Otilia with a unique library with thousands of priceless books. The narrator notes that the site is a “compelling area and a huge tourist destination”. The story is centred around a criminal sub-plot and the build-up of the story makes thorough use of compositional drama. Books from the well-known library began to disappear even though there were no signs of forcible entry. The thefts continued until a police officer managed to find a secret entrance into a neighbouring room inside of a wardrobe from which a rope ladder was connected to the next building. A hotel was constructed next door. The police tracked down the thief, who was a passionate reader. As an intellectual who loved reading, he didn’t want to sell the books, he simply wanted to protect them from damage. The story takes a twist here, as the monastery ended up employing the thief in the library he previously robbed. The narrator ends the story with the words: “The St. Otilia library is once again complete and ready to serve future generations of visitors. The story of the thief is just as imposing as the mountains in which it takes place”.

Few among the audience, especially culture omnivores, fixated on the strong story and visuals are able to detect the marketing message embedded in the story. Even if someone had sufficient media education and this specific media competency (Petranová, 2011), it remains questionable if it would have an impact on consumer appetite in the area of culture. It is more than probable that the story leaves behind an indelible imprint on the audience that one day may reappear when a decision is made between individual offerings of cultural experiences on the culture market.

The author of the study notes the fact that documentary film remains an under-appreciated genre within the promotion of cultural destinations. The attractiveness of a story or stories connected with a given cultural destination, the fates of individuals or stories connected to exceptional exhibits remains-underutilised in promotional materials. The process of selecting communication tools does not provide ample considerations to the mental atmosphere of the hyper-modern society in which individuals exist who function as cultural omnivores with a strongly developed desire to seek experiences, emotional excitement and fascinating stories. The consumer behaviour of individuals is expressed in their extreme desire for entertainment, the pleasure they derive from changes and a more intensive experience out of everyday life. They seek to use the consumer lifestyle and saturation of various emotional pleasures to achieve their own, individual happiness. The consumption of experiences has become one of the significant traits of a modern lifestyle and represents a stimulus for consumption in the sphere of culture within free time activities. Based on this argumentation, the author of the study recommends increasing the usage of product placement in historical documentary films. The story in this case stands in for the role of product placement and can easily be adapted to the documentary film format. The author considers it the ideal way to effectively stimulate potential clients to travel to cultural destinations in an unobtrusive way that is attractive and compelling to audiences.

REFERENCES

- Bačuvčík, R. (2012). *Marketing kultury. Divadlo, koncerty, publikum, veřejnost*. Zlín: VeRBuM.
- Balasubramanian, S. K. (1994) Beyond advertising and publicity: Hybrid messages and public policy issues. *Journal of Advertising*, (23) 4, p. 29.
- Bauman, Z. (2002). *Tekutá modernita. (The Liquid Modernity, 2000)*. Prague: Mladá fronta.
- Bell, D. (1999). *Kulturní rozpory kapitalizmu. (The Cultural Contradictions of Capitalism, 1966)*. Prague: Sociologické nakladatelství.
- Borovský, J. & Smolková, E. & Niňajová, I. (2008). *Cestovný ruch trendy a perspektívy*. Bratislava: Iura Edition.
- Burton, G. & Jiráček, J. (2001). *Úvod do studia medií*. Brno: BARRISTER&PRINCIPAL.
- Čábyová, Ľ. (2010). *Mediálny marketing*. Trnava: FMK UCM.
- Davydyuk, Y & Panasenko, N. (2016). Figuring the male and female: fire and water in Bradbury's (science) fiction. *Lege artis. Language yesterday, today, tomorrow*, 1 (1), pp. 4 -47
- Fiske, J. & Hartley, J. (1978). *Reading Television*. London: Methuen.
- Gúčík, M. (2006). *Manažment cestovného ruchu*. Banská Bystrica: Dali-BB.
- Hudíková, Z. (2015). Emotional factors in creating media contents. *European Journal of Science and Theology*. 11 (6) pp.155 – 165.
- Jameson, F. (1991). *Postmodernism, or, The Cultural Logic of Late Capitalism*. Durham: Duke University Press.

- Kesner, M. (2005). *Marketing a management muzeí a památek*. Prague: Grada Publishing.
- Magál, S. & Tinka, J. (2016). Wooden Sacral Architecture in Slovakia as a New Dimension of Secular Tourism. In, *ESRARC 2016: 8th European Symposium on Religious Art, Restoration & Conserveation: Proceedings book*. Firenze: Nardini Editore, pp. 163-166.
- McKercher, B. & du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural Tourism. The Partnership Between Tourism and Cultural Heritage Management*. New York: An Imprint of the Hawort Press.
- Peterson, R. (1992). Understanding audience segmentation: from elite and mass to omnivore and univore. *Poetics*, 21 (4), 58 - 243.
- Petranová, D. (2011). Rozvíja mediálna výchova v školách kritické kompetencie žiakov? Does media education at schools develop students` critical competences? *Communication Today*, 2 (1) pp. 67-83.
- Postman, N. (1999). *Ubavit se k smrti. Veřejná komunikace ve věku zábavy. (Amusing Ourselves to Death: Public Discourse in the Age of Show Business, 1985)*. Prague: Mladá fronta.
- Pravdová, H. (2011). PHENOMENON OF AMUSEMENT AND ROLE OF STEREOTYPES IN PRODUCTION AND ACCEPTANCE OF MEDIA CULTURE. *Communication Today*, 2 (1) pp. 6-24
- Pravdová, H. (2015). *Manažment&marketing v kultúrnych inštitúciách*. Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského v Bratislave.
- Příkrylová, J. & Jahodová, H. (2010). *Moderní marketingová komunikace*. Prague: Grada Publishing, a. s.
- Schultze, G. (1992). *Die Erlebnisgesellschaft. Kultursoziologie der Gegenwart*. Frankfurt am Main: Campus
- Slušná, Z. (2013). *Aspekty a trendy súčasnej kultúry*. Bratislava: Národné osvetové centrum.
- Urry, J. (1990). *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*. London: Sage.
- Vysekalová, J. & Mikeš, J. (2007). *Reklama. Jak dělat reklamu*. Prague: Grada Publishing, a. s.

ABSTRACTS

STRATEGIC IMAGE MANAGEMENT OF CSR FOR LUXURY BRANDS - THE CASE OF LUXURY HOTELS

Anne –Flore Maman Larraufie
ESSEC Business School & SémioConsult

Abstract

CSR-oriented strategies are more and more required by consumers, whatever the sector of activity. However, authenticity in its management and its communication is part of its credibility in the eyes of consumers¹. Part of this authenticity lies within the full integration of it in the brand management strategy of the company. However, not all brands have been found as CSR-consistent, from their identity perspective, at least in consumers' imaginary. Luxury brands do not escape this sociological trend, and need to fully take in into account in their strategic development plan". However, CSR-topics sound very materialistic and down-to- earth with comparison to the more symbolic attributes traditionally associated with luxury brands. Therefore, there is high chance that they have a carefully-crafted communication plan with regard to their CSR moves.

One sector of activity that faces such issues in a very important way is the hospitality sector, as it belongs to the so-called experience goods^{iv}. Besides, the brand-image management of such companies is specific^v. In the present study, we aim at identifying the various strategies used by luxury hotels to communicate about their CSR actions, focusing on the common patterns. This would enable us to define several types of strategies, depending on carefully identified criteria.

To achieve these goals, we use a triangulation of methods in three separate studies. Study 1 consists of a structural semiotic reading of CSR online communication made by luxury hotels. Study 2 gathers interviews with main stakeholders of the offer-side (excluding consumers) to get an emic perspective on the topic and understand the relationship between brand-identity management and CSR strategy. Study 3 is a qualitative content analysis of the press around CSR strategic actions conducted by luxury hotels.

References

- Cervellon MC. (2013), Conspicuous Conservation - Using Semiotics to understand Sustainable Luxury, *International Journal of Market Research*, 55 (5), 695-717
- Azilah K. (2007), Toward a Wider Adoption of Environmental Responsibility in the Hotel Sector, *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 8 (2), 25-49; Shah K. (2011),

¹ Hudders L., Pandelaere M. & Vyncke P. (2013), Consumer Meaning-making, *International Journal of Market Research*, 55 (3), 391-412

Strategic Organizational Drivers of Corporate Environmental Responsibility in the Caribbean Hotel Industry, *Policy Sciences*, 44(4), 321-344

Hanna S. & Rowley J. (2011), Towards a Strategic Place Brand-management Model, *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27 (5/6), 458-476

THE RELATION BETWEEN SLOW FOOD TOURISM AND ENVIRONMENT: THE CASE OF BUYUKKONUK MUNICIPALITY

Ecem İnce and Deniz İşcioğlu
Eastern Mediterranean University, Cyprus

As, nowadays, natural resources decrease day after day; there is an ever increasing relation between tourism and environment. Tourism activities do make a considerable contribution to the economy in many countries. Governments that fail to take a sensible approach to the environment and cannot develop sustainable environmental policies are doomed to failure in the field of tourism. In a world where special interest tourism movements are in upward trend, Slow Food Tourism captures broad interest with its environment-friendly philosophy. This study aims to investigate and discuss the relation between Slow Food tourism and environment. The specific aim of the study is to investigate to what extent the special interest tourism activity (SlowFood tourism) realized in Buyukkonuk affects the environment. The study will enable us to analyse both the effects of the environmental factors on the SlowFood Tourism and vice versa, namely the ones of SlowFood movement on the environment. The study will be realized based on the method of literature review and all the related sources, written or unwritten, will be reviewed. In addition, interviews will be realized with the administrative cadre in the Municipality of Buyukkonuk, local people and tourists visiting the region, in an effort to gain an insight into the effects the SlowFood tourism in Buyukkonuk on the environment around Buyukkonuk. In turn, it will also be possible to get insights into the effects of environment and resources in Buyukkonuk on the SlowFood Tourism.

As environment and tourism are two factors inseparable from each other, the study will especially focus on both of these dimensions. Environment and tourism substantially affect each other. The key limitation in this study is that the Municipality of Buyukkonuk is located in Northern Cyprus which is not recognized at international level, a fact that has a great impact on the national and/or local tourism in the country. A review of the literature reveals that very few publications are available which investigate the relation of SlowFood and environment with special focus on two different dimensions at local level. An effective and efficient usage of environmental resources will not only enhance the values of the region, but also enable to develop more characteristic special interest tourism.

Key words: Buyukkonuk Municipality, Slow Food, Special Interest Tourism, Environment, Environmental Resources.

EXAMINING THE PERCEIVED DESTINATION IMAGE OF ISTANBUL AS REPRESENTED IN THE TRAVEL BLOGS OF WESTERN TRAVELERS

Mithat Zeki Dinçer Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics Istanbul, Turkey

Füsun İstanbullu Dinçer Istanbul University, Department of Tourism Management, Istanbul,
Turkey

Zaid Alrawadieh Istanbul University, Istanbul, Turkey And

Parvin Mammadova TRT World Istanbul, Turkey

ABSTRACT

This paper examined the image of Istanbul (Turkey) as perceived by Western travelers. For this purpose, a sample of recent travel blog entries written about Istanbul on the popular travel blog website TravelPod were selected and content analyzed. The findings suggest that the destination image of Istanbul perceived by Western travelers is generally positive. Istanbul is mainly appreciated for its cultural and historical heritage as well as its tourist infrastructure. The findings also expound on some issues that Western travelers seem to be concerned about such as safety. Implications for Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) are discussed.

Key Words: Destination image, eWOM in tourism, Travel Blogs, Tourist behavior, Istanbul.

INTRODUCTION

Over the few past years, tourism scholars have been increasingly benefitting from the data available on the cyberspace and particularly those posted on the User Generated Content (UGC) websites to reveal new paradigms in tourist behavior in the era of internet. Destination image has been increasingly an attractive area of research because of its influential role in travelers' decision making process, particularly in choosing a travel destination (Law & Cheung, 2010). Recently, researchers have paid attention to the travel blogs as an important source of data to examine destination image (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Law & Cheung, 2010; Jani & Hwang, 2011; Li & Wang, 2011; Son, 2011; Tse & Zhang, 2013). The review of literature on online destination image particularly that revealed in travel blogs shows that China has been a predominant context.

Turkey is gaining prominence as an important global tourism destination reaching an advanced

position among the world's top tourism destinations in terms of both number of international arrivals (6th place) and tourism receipts (12th place) (WTO, 2016). The current study chooses Istanbul, Turkey's main tourist destination with a unique geographical location between Asia and Europe. Istanbul has been growing as an attractive destination catering for heterogeneous travel markets. While the city hosted only about 2.34 million tourists in 2000 (Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism, 2010), the number rose to reach more than 8 and half million in 2016 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2016).

METHOD

In the current study, data were collected from travel blogs' entries available on TravelPod.com which is a popular public travel blog web site that hosts individual travel blogs. This travel blog web site was selected for its long history as well as its functionality that helped collecting the data necessary for the study's objectives. A total of 90 entries posted on Travelpod about Istanbul during the period from January the 1st till December 31st 2016 were considered usable for further analysis. Unlike similar studies that depended mainly on specific computerized software (Govers, Go, & Kumar; Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, & Chen, 2015), the coding process in this study was completely conducted manually. A coding schema based on the dimensions and attributes of destination image identified by Beerli and Martm (2004) was established to guide the coding process. In a nutshell, the blog entries were carefully read and coded by one of the researchers. The coding results were then examined independently by another researcher to ensure their consistency with the coding schema. When disagreement arises researchers/coders discussed the area in question until a consensus is reached.

FINDINGS

The findings suggested that the majority of the entries were shared by female US bloggers. Entries are argued to be shared by experienced bloggers who on average visited more 15 countries and shared numerous entries and photos in more than one travel blog. Content analysis of the entries produced 462 elements of which about 75 percent are positive while the rest are either negative (16 percent) or neutral (9 percent). The results of the paper suggest that Istanbul is mainly appreciated for its cultural and historical heritage as well as its tourist infrastructure. Yet, Western travelers are argued to be concerned about some issues related to the political instability in the country especially with regard to safety.

REFERENCES

Beerli, A., & Martm, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism*

Research, 31(3), 657-681.

- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination image representation on the web: Content analysis of Macau travel related websites. *Tourism Management*, 28(1), 118-129.
- Govers, R., Go, F. M., & Kumar, K. (2007). Virtual destination image a new measurement approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(4), 977-997.
- Istanbul Provincial Directorate of Culture and Tourism. (2010). Istanbul Turizm Istatistikleri-2010. Retrieved January 26, 2017, from <http://www.istanbulkulturturizm.gov.tr/TR,71518/istanbul-turizm-istatistikleri---2010.html>
- Jani, D., & Hwang, Y.-H. (2011). User-generated destination image through weblogs: A comparison of pre- and post-visit images. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 339-356.
- Law, R., & Cheung, S. (2010). The perceived destination image of Hong Kong as revealed in the travel blogs of mainland Chinese tourists. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 11(4), 303-327.
- Li, X., & Wang, Y. (2011). China in the Eyes of Western Travelers as Represented in Travel Blogs. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(7), 689-719.
- Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2016). Distribution of foreigners arriving in turkey by provinces of entry and means of transport-2016. Retrieved January 25, 2017, from <https://www.kultur.gov.tr/EN,170247/number-of-arriving-departing-foreigners-and-citizens-no-.html>
- Son, A. (2011). International tourists' image of Zhangjiajie, China: content analysis of travel blogs. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 5(3), 306-315.
- Tse, T. S., & Zhang, E. Y. (2013). Analysis of blogs and microblogs: A case study of Chinese bloggers sharing their Hong Kong travel experiences. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 314-329.
- Tseng, C., Wu, B., Morrison, A. M., Zhang, J., & Chen, Y.-c. (2015). Travel blogs on China as a destination image formation agent: A qualitative analysis using Leximancer. *Tourism Management*, 46, 347-358.
- World Tourism Organization. (2016). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2016 Edition*. Retrieved January 27, 2017, from <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418145>

EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION BRAND LOYALTY: A SYMBOLIC CONSUMPTION PERSPECTIVE

Çağatan Taşkın and Ahmet Akif Karadamar
Uludağ University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Tourism is considered to be as one of the most important sectors on economic development. That's why, many destinations try to develop tourism marketing strategies to attract increasing numbers of tourists and to build destination brand loyalty. Destination brand loyalty can be defined as "the level of tourist's perception of a destination as a recommendable place" (Chen and Gursoy, 2001) and symbolic consumption which describes the fundamental part in the creation, enhancement, maintenance, transformation, disposition, expression, association, and differentiation of the self, is a key for successful destination brand loyalty.

According to the World Tourism Organization, Turkey is the 6th country in terms of international tourist numbers and 12th country in terms of tourism income (WTO, 2016). Turkish tourism faces major competition and it is highly vulnerable. Turkish tourism industry figures show that the tourism activity in Turkey is highly seasonal and it is mainly based on one tourism product, sun and sea tourism. Thus, Turkey needs new tourism product and destination development. Some of the provinces should be marketed as cultural/historical destinations. The aim of this study is to explore the relationships among the antecedents of destination brand loyalty from symbolic consumption perspective (including self-congruence, brand identification and lifestyle-congruence) for a destination called Diyarbakir in Turkey, a town famous for its historical and cultural features. It has great tourism potential especially for historical and cultural tourism. Sample of the research is composed of foreign tourists, who came in Diyarbakir town in May, June and July 2015, and stayed at three star, four star and five star hotels.

Structural equation modeling was used to test the relationships among the dimensions that are self-congruence, brand identification, lifestyle-congruence and destination brand loyalty (Chon, 1990; Mael and Ashforth, 1992;

Sirgy and Su, 2000; Belen del Rio, Vazquez and Iglesias, 2001; Johnson, Herrmann and Huber, 2006; Kressman et al., 2006; Hohenstein et al., 2007; Mao, 2008; Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado, 2013; Kumar and Nayak, 2014). Multiple items were used to measure each dimension of self-congruence, brand identification, lifestyle-congruence and destination brand loyalty. Research findings indicate that all of the antecedents influence a destination's brand loyalty

positively.

According to the modeling results, tourism marketing strategies are proposed for destination managers of Diyarbakir for the international tourism market. The results have implications for decision-makers in tourism both at micro- and macro-levels, in terms of effective decision-making and resource allocation.

Key Words: Destination Brand Loyalty, Self-congruence, Brand Identification, Lifestyle-congruence, Symbolic Consumption, Structural Equation Modeling, Diyarbakir, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism can make a significant contribution to the diversification of the economy and it is considered to be an important industry especially for a country like Turkey due to its high multiplier effect. Many destinations try to develop tourism marketing strategies to attract increasing numbers of tourists. As destination branding is an important field of research within tourism and hospitality, it has attracted the attention of several scholars to study this specific field from a wide variety of perspectives. Loyalty is also an important concept from the perspective of destination branding and it has been successfully applied to destination branding in several studies (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Bosnjak et al., 2011; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado, 2013; Bianchi, Pike and Lings, 2014; Gursoy, Chen and Chi, 2014). In addition, symbolic benefits are gaining more importance in consumer behavior generally (Levy, 1959; Sirgy 1982, Solomon, 1983; Sirgy, Grezeskowiak and Su, 2005). Thus, this reality leads to a more severe competition in markets and also requires a symbolic consumption perspective for destination branding studies.

Turkish tourism faces major competition and the tourism industry figures show that the tourism activity in Turkey is highly seasonal and it is mainly based on one tourism product, sun and sea tourism. Thus, Turkey needs new tourism product and destination development. Some of the provinces should be marketed as cultural/historical destinations such as Diyarbakir that has great tourism potential especially for historical and cultural tourism.

The aim of this study is to explore the relationships among the antecedents of destination brand loyalty from symbolic consumption perspective (including self-congruence, brand identification and lifestyle-congruence) for a destination called Diyarbakir in Turkey, a town famous for its historical and cultural features. The results have implications for decision-makers in tourism both at micro- and macro-levels.

METHODOLOGY

Research Sample

Sample of the research is composed of foreign tourists, who came in Diyarbakir town in May, June and July 2015, and stayed at three star, four star and five star hotels. A total of 228 questionnaires were collected. Based on the initial screening of the collected questionnaires 26 of them were excluded as they were incomplete. IBM SPSS 21.0 and Lisrel 8.71 programs were used for the analysis of data. The validity and reliability of the scales used in the research have been proved by various international studies. However, as the survey was applied on a different sample, the validity and reliability of the scale were retested with a pilot study.

Profile of Respondents

As it can be seen in Table 1, the sample was divided almost equally between males (51.5%) and females (48.5%). A large percentage of respondents were highly educated with a college graduate (56.4%) and postgraduate (19.8%). Half of the respondents had a monthly income between 1001\$ and 3000\$, 25.7% of respondents had a monthly income less than 1000\$ and only 6.9% of the respondents had a monthly income more than 5000\$.

Table 1: Profile of Respondents

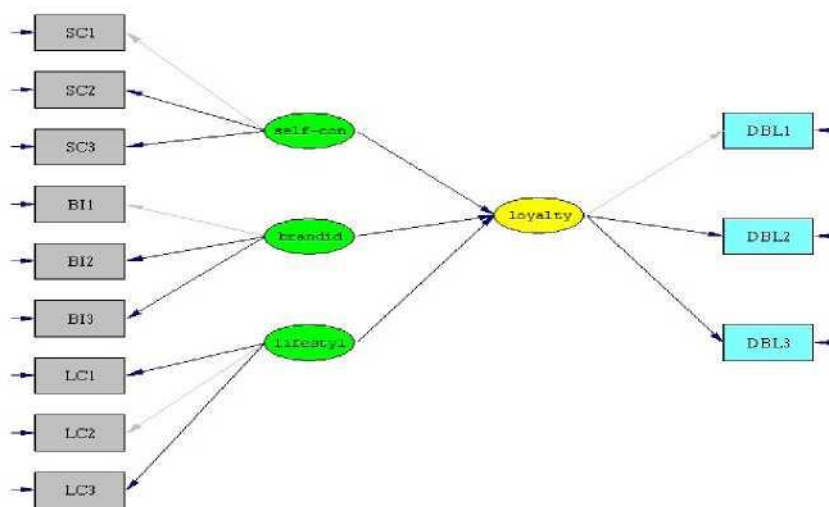
Sex	Frequency	%	Marital Status	Frequency	%
Male	104	51.5%	Married	86	42.6%
Female	98	48.5%	Single	116	57.4%
Total	202	100.0%	Total	202	100.0%
Income	Frequency	%	Education	Frequency	%
<1000 \$	52	25.7%	Primary School	6	3.0%
1001-3000	102	50.5%	High School	42	20.8%
3001-5000	34	16.8%	College	114	56.4%
>5000 \$	14	6.9%	Postgraduate	40	19.8%
Total	202	100.0%	Total	202	100.0%
Age	Frequency	%	Nationality	Frequency	%
18-24	36	17.8%	Germany	47	23.3%
25-34	76	37.6%	Italy	27	13.4%
35-44	54	26.7%	England	22	10.9%
45-54	28	13.9%	USA	17	8.4%
55-64	6	3.0%	France	15	7.4%
>65	2	1.0%	Russia	14	6.9%

Total	202	100.0%	Portugal	13	6.4%
			Ukraine	11	5.4%
			Bulgaria	10	5.0%
			Hungary	8	4.0%
			Other	18	8.9%
			Total	202	100.0%

Research Model and Hypotheses

The research model is given in Figure 1. The variables included in the research model are; “self-congruence” “brand identification”, “lifestyle congruence”, and “destination brand loyalty”.

Figure 1: Research Model



As seen from Figure 1, research hypotheses are:

As seen from Figure 1, research hypotheses are:

H1: “Self-congruence” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively.

H2: “Brand identification” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively.

H3: “Lifestyle congruence” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively.

Scale Used in Research and Reliability Analysis

A detailed literature review was conducted to test the “destination brand loyalty” model proposed for Diyarbakir destination and a final scale was formed (Chon, 1990; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Sirgy and Su, 2000; Belen del Rio, Vazquez and Iglesias, 2001; Johnson, Herrmann and Huber, 2006; Kressman et al., 2006; Hohenstein et al., 2007; Mao, 2008; Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado, 2013; Kumar and Nayak, 2014). Reliability analysis was applied on the collected data. The Cronbach Alpha values obtained as a result of the reliability analysis are shown below.

Table 2: Reliability Analysis Results

Dimensions	Cronbach Alpha
Self-congruence	0,79
Brand Identification	0,80
Lifestyle Congruence	0,76
Destination Brand Loyalty	0,79

Testing the Research Model by Using Structural Equation Modeling

In this section, the results of the structural model are given. The reliability of the structural model can be measured by various statistics. These are called goodness of fit statistics generally. Common used fit statistics are shown in Table 3. Goodness of fit statistics indicates that the structural model is valid.

Table 3: Goodness of Fit Statistics

Goodness of Fit Statistics	Value
Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom	2,53
GFI	0,91
AGFI	0,85
CFI	0,94
RMSEA	0,08
NFI	0,92
RMR	0,04
Standardized RMR	0,06

The GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI and IFI are widely used statistical tests and provide evidence for goodness of fit and hypothesized model. These values show that the structural model has good values. The RMSEA, RMR and SRMR values also show that the model has a good fit.

The structural model with the standardized path coefficients is shown in Figure 2. The modeling results indicate that both brand identification and lifestyle congruence influence a destination's brand loyalty positively while the influence of self-congruence on destination brand loyalty was found to be statistically insignificant.

Figure 2: Structural Model and Standardized Path Coefficients

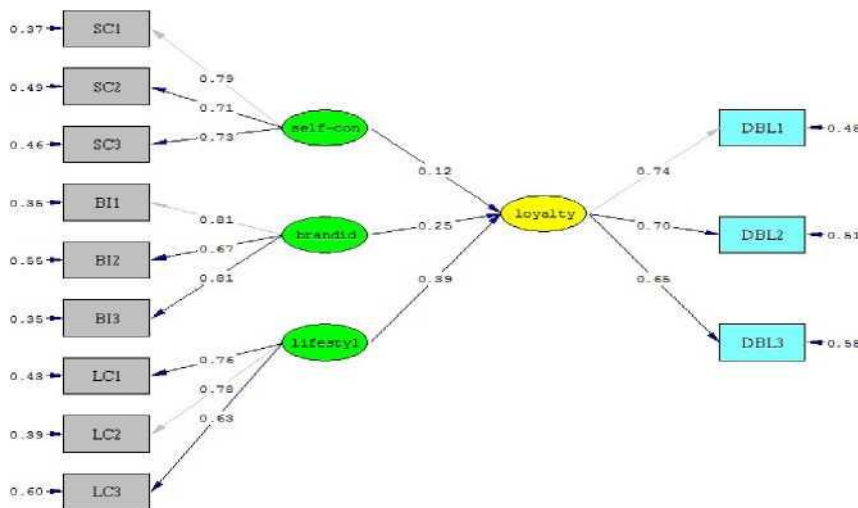
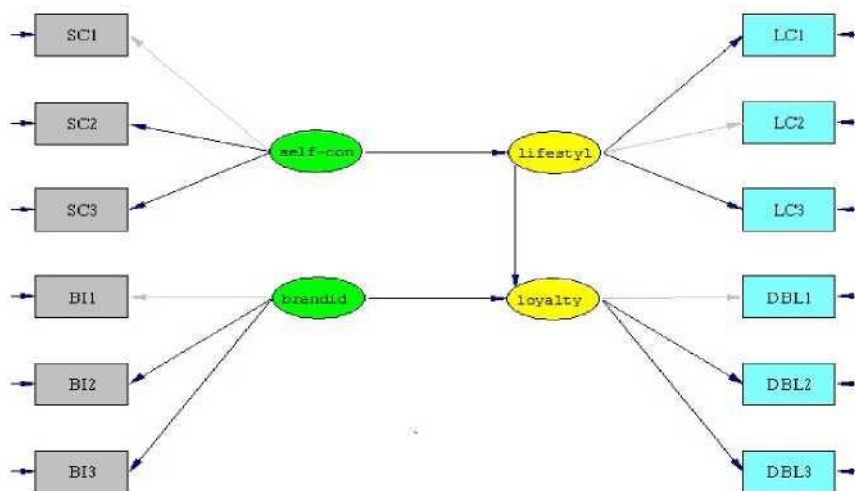


Table 4: Results of Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

Paths	Hypothesis	Path Coefficients	T Values	Result
Self-congruence -	H1	0.12	0.90	Rejected
Brand Identification -	H2	0.25	2.99	Accepted
Lifestyle Congruence	H3	0.39	2.66	Accepted

The path coefficients between “self-congruence” and “destination brand loyalty”, “brand identification” and “destination brand loyalty” and “lifestyle congruence” and “destination brand loyalty” are 0.12, 0.25 and 0.39 respectively. As can be seen from Table 4, H₁ was rejected. In many researches (Ekinici, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado, 2013; Kumar and Nayak, 2014), self-congruence was found to have positive influence on destination brand loyalty, thus it’s decided to revise the model for including “self-congruence”.

Revised Research Model and Hypothesis Figure 3: Revised Research Model



As seen from Figure 1, research hypotheses are:

H₁: “Self-congruence” influences “lifestyle congruence” positively.

H₂: “Brand identification” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively. H₃: “Lifestyle congruence” influences “destination brand loyalty” positively.

Testing the Revised Research Model by Using Structural Equation Modeling

In this section, the results of the revised structural model are given. Common used fit statistics are shown in Table 5. Goodness of fit statistics indicates that the structural model is valid.

Table 5: Goodness of Fit Statistics

Goodness of Fit Statistics	Value
Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom	2,37
GFI	0,91
AGFI	0,86
CFI	0,95
RMSEA	0,08
NFI	0,92
RMR	0,04
Standardized RMR	0,06

These values show that the structural model has good values. The RMSEA, RMR and SRMR values also show that the model has a good fit.

Revised structural model with the standardized path coefficients is shown in Figure 4. The modeling results indicate that both brand identification and lifestyle congruence influence a destination’s brand loyalty positively like in the previous model. In addition, self-congruence was found to have an effect on lifestyle congruence. Thus, it’s proved that self-congruence was one of the important antecedents of destination brand loyalty.

Figure 4: Structural Model and Standardized Path Coefficients for Revised Model

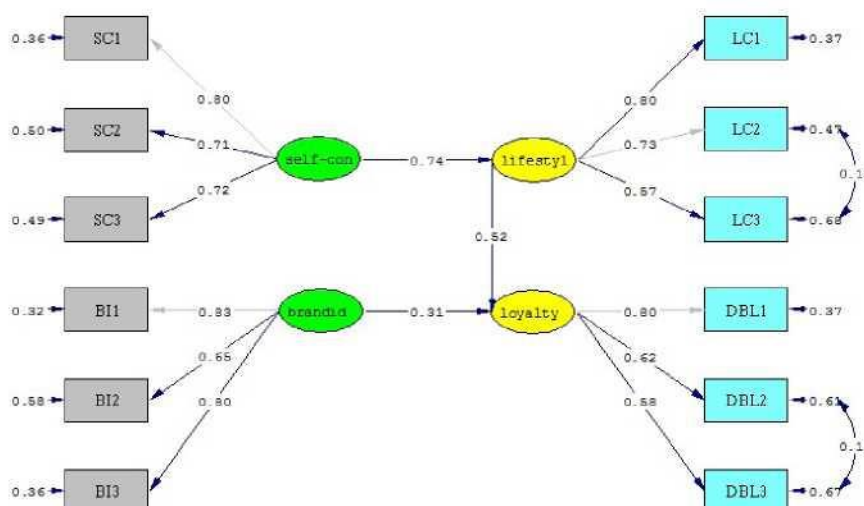


Table 6: Results of Structural Equation Modeling Analysis for Revised Model

Paths	Hypothesis	Path Coefficients	T Values	Result
Self-congruence -	H1	0.74	7.35	Accepted
Brand Identification -	H2	0.31	5.33	Accepted
Lifestyle Congruence	H3	0.52	3.59	Accepted

The path coefficients between “self-congruence” and “lifestyle congruence”, “brand identification” and “destination brand loyalty” and “lifestyle congruence” and “destination brand loyalty” are 0.74, 0.31 and 0.52 respectively.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study helps draw relevant and useful implications for both academics and practitioners in tourism and hospitality. It is important for destination managers, local authorities and other practitioners to analyze the relationships among the dimensions of destination brand loyalty. Thus, destination managers may develop strategies which would allow them to evaluate their position in the tourism market in relation to its direct and indirect competitors. Additionally, the above practitioners may also use the findings to establish competitive advantage by reassessing and redesigning their value offerings.

Findings of the first model showed that brand identification and lifestyle congruence can be considered as two important dimensions of a destination’s brand loyalty. The findings in the proposed model indicated that lifestyle congruence was an important factor in building brand loyalty. This finding supports the findings of Nam, Ekinci and Whyatt (2011), Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado (2013) and Kumar and Nayak (2014).

Although the influence of self-congruence on destination brand loyalty was found to be statistically insignificant in the first model, it was proved that self-congruence was an important antecedent of a destination’s brand loyalty with the revised model. This result is also in line with the findings of the studies of Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk and Preciado (2013).

In addition, self-congruence was found to have a positive influence on lifestyle congruence which refers to the degree of match between destination brand experience and tourist’s actual or desired lifestyle. As self-congruence

positively influences lifestyle congruence and lifestyle congruence positively influences a destination’s brand loyalty, tourism marketers should study destination personality

characteristics from the tourist's point of view.

In the literature, it was seen that various antecedents of a destination's brand loyalty are considered. But there were few studies that examined the antecedents of destination brand loyalty from symbolic perspective (antecedents such as self-congruence, brand identification and lifestyle congruence). Thus, this study fills an important gap in the literature.

According to the results of the structural model, there were different influences among the dimensions of destination brand loyalty for the town of Diyarbakir. The insight gained based on the findings of the study are believed to enable allow above mentioned practitioners to make effective decisions and develop strategies in terms of segmenting, targeting and positioning.

REFERENCES

- Belen del Rio, A., Vazquez, R., & Iglesias, V. (2001). The effects of brand associations on consumer response. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(5), 410-425.
- Bosnjak, M., Sirgy, M. J., Hellriegel, S., & Maurer, O. (2011). Postvisit destination loyalty judgments: Developing and testing a comprehensive congruity model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(5), 496-508.
- Chen, J. S., & Gursoy, D. (2001). An investigation of tourists' destination loyalty and preferences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(2), 79-85.
- Chon, K. S. (1990). *Consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction in tourism as related to destination image perception (Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Tech)*.
- Bianchi, C., Pike, S., & Lings, I. (2014). Investigating attitudes towards three South American destinations in an emerging long haul market using a model of consumer-based brand equity (CBBE). *Tourism Management*, 42, 215223.
- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2-12.
- Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Preciado, S. (2013). Symbolic consumption of tourism destination brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(6), 711-718.
- Gursoy, D., S. Chen, J., & G. Chi, C. (2014). Theoretical examination of destination loyalty formation. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(5), 809-827.
- Hohenstein, N., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., & Heitmann, M. (2007). Self-congruity: Antecedents and consequences. *Aix en Provance: France University Paul Cezanne*, 118-130.
- Johnson, M. D., Herrmann, A., & Huber, F. (2006). The evolution of loyalty intentions. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(2), 122-132.
- Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S., & Lee, D. J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(9), 955-964.
- Kuenzel, S., & Vaux Halliday, S. (2008). Investigating antecedents and consequences of brand

- identification. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 17(5), 293-304.
- Kumar, V., & Nayak, J. K. (2014). The Role of Self-Congruity and Functional Congruity in Influencing Tourists' Post Visit Behavior. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 2(2), 22-44.
- Levy, S. J. (1959). Symbols for sale. *Harvard Business Review*, 37(4), 117-124.
- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(2), 103-123.
- Mao, Y. I. (2008). *Destination image building & its influence on destination preference & loyalty of Chinese tourists to Australia (Doctoral dissertation, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University)*.
- Nam, J., Ekinci, Y., & Whyatt, G. (2011). Brand equity, brand loyalty and consumer satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(3), 1009-1030.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in consumer behavior: A critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 287-300.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(4), 340-352.
- Sirgy, M. J., Grzeskowiak, S., & Su, C. (2005). Explaining housing preference and choice: The role of self- congruity and functional congruity. *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 20(4), 329-347.
- Solomon, M. R. (1983). The role of products as social stimuli: A symbolic interactionism perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(3), 319-329.
- WTO. (2016). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights*, 2016 Edition.

EFFECT OF ADAPTIVE REUSE OF HISTORICAL BUILDING ON TOURISM-LED REVITALIZATION

Faraneh Sahraianjahromi

Faculty of Architecture, Eastern Mediterranean University,
Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

Sedigheh Safshekan

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University,
Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

Azar Ghaedi

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University,
Famagusta, North Cyprus via Mersin 10 Turkey

Abstract

Revitalizing the historic urban area is breathing new and fresh life into the environment for increasing the economic and social advantages. How to deal with the past and its valuable heritage is a big challenge that many of the cities are dealing with it. In this regard the main aim of this study is to evaluate the effect of adaptive reuse of historic building in the urban area and effect of that on the tourism led revitalization , due to reach to this aim the methodology which will be used in this study is selecting the case study's which were successful in tourism led revitalization and evaluate them according to their location, reason for decline types of obsolescence and the revitalization strategy for new function, at the end of the study this paper will answer the question of how adaptive reuse can help the tourism led revitalization in the area.

1. INTRODUCTION

whereas preservation of the individual building is necessary but not enough for revitalizing of the quarter nowadays in most of the cities protection of the single building developed to conservation of the areas and it cause the enhancement of the revitalization. Development of the cities are depends on the physical social and economic renewal, some criteria such as market disaster, politics, degeneration and condition of the locals have some negative points like: poor environment and

housing, lack of work, settlement of immigrant , crime and etc. which make the area on the urgent needs of regeneration. In some areas especially the industrial areas due to the structural unemployment these kinds of disaster are more obvious.

Whereas during the 1980 development of the tourist has an important effect on the regeneration and economic change of the cities and also restructuring and regeneration of the area. There are many cities which attracted the visitors by a planned development like making different kinds of attraction such as: special galleries and museums, cinemas, casino, aquarium or shopping bars and etc. these kinds of new attraction are planned to provide the job, economic activity and in this situation the abandoned area will be transfer to a “bubbles tourist” (Judd, 1999: 36) (Beioley, Maitland and Vaughan, 1990). Tourism development is attracting more investment and has an important influence on economic and physical growth.

Adaptive reuse and rehabilitation of the historic building is one of the significant criteria of development of the city and character of the place (Montgomery, 2004) in this regard development of the tourism in the city seen as a planned process to boost the neglected place. This study try to evaluate the three key criteria: adaptive reuse, urban revitalization and tourism led revitalization by evaluating their concept and examples of the city which has faced this phenomenologist. (Ashworth and Tunbridge, 1990).

1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In revitalizing historic urban area , cities are trying to attract the new activity in this regard one of the most significant factor attracting the tourism and related cultural activity, in tourism led revitalization the area has to be explore the historic area very carefully and to reach to this the area need economic diversification or restructuring so this study is needed to show the importance of tourism and to show how it used against image obsolescence of the city and returning the sense of place to the area.

1.2. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to evaluate the effect of adaptive reuse of historic building on the tourism led revitalization of historic urban area for reaching to this aim there are various criteria that should evaluate the adaptive reuse and its relation with revitalization of the urban area, the comprehensive related theories of revitalization in historic urban quarter and also finding the factors which led to have a tourist revitalization, at the end for better understanding of these criteria three case study will evaluate to show the performance of this factors in historic urban area.

1.3. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study is based on qualitative types of research and the methodology for reaching to the aim of study is divided in two parts. The first part is reviewing the literature on the related subject and second part is selecting the case study's which was successful in tourism led revitalization and three revitalized historic quarter were investigated in terms of their location, reason for decline types of obsolescence and the revitalization strategy for new function and evaluate them according to their revitalization strategy.

2. REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

In this part related literature in the subject has discussed, it will start with related definition and terminology regarding to the revitalization of historic urban area, after that the term of adaptive reuse and its relation with the urban revitalization and at the end the tourism led revitalization, the ways to achieve it and its relation with adaptive reuse will be disuse.

2.1. REVITALIZATION OF HISTORIC URBAN QUARTER

Tiesdell et al., (1996) defined the Revitalization of the historic area as: "The process through which the mismatch between the services offered by the fabric of the historic quarters and the contemporary needs can be reconciled". There are two factors which has an important affect in the revitalization process these are consist of: types of obsolescence and dynamic of the place, also there are 3 general types of revitalization in historic urban area which is mentioned in table 1.

Table 1: Different types of revitalization (Tiesdell et al., 1996)

Types of revitalization	Description
Physical revitalization	Adaptation of the physical fabric to contemporary requirements through various modes of renewal.
Functional revitalization	Is very important to identify the appropriate new uses to reduce changes in the existing historic urban fabrics.
Economic revitalization	Utilization and purposeful occupation of the improved/ enhanced building stock (through physical revitalization) to sustain revitalization in a long-term perspective, and to enable the area to compete with the rest of the city.

According to the level of mismatch and also a dynamic which is faced by historic urban are, there are three different model for the economic activity and these models are listed as table 2 (Tiesdell et al., 1996; cited in Doratli et al., 2005).

Table 2: Different types of economic revitalization (Tiesdell et al., 1996)

Economic revitalization	Description
Functional restructuring	changes in occupation with new uses or activities replacing the former ones
Functional diversification	Keeping the existing uses to some extent and introducing some new ones.
Functional regeneration	Existing uses remain but operate more efficiently or profitably.

2.2. DEFINITION OF ADAPTIVE REUSE

Adaptive reuse of building is one of the best way to secure them against deterioration and keeping them as an active use and economically viable. In the Adaptation of the building or environment the approach of allowing the generation for more use and updating and matching the old building with new use is the main goal. This action also could be more beneficial by for the tourism industry for providing the local and cultural service for the historic area in order to increase the tourism industry, the building age is also important character and by getting the appropriate new function the value of it will be increase.

According to Bullen and Love (2009, 351) "retention of older commercial buildings has commonly been regarded as a barrier to progress and a hindrance to the regeneration of older urban areas" Recently the new movement happened in reuse of historical and industrial structure and in many areas adaptive reuse project play an important role in the revitalization development and extended to the urban area and the neighborhood environment got affected by this development.

2.2.1. DIFFERENT TYPES OF OBSOLESCENCE

There are many cities with large number of abandoned building inside that have high potential for adaptive reuse, these kinds of building are lost their function by obsolescence and it has different type such as social, physical, functional, economical, and etc. (Langston,Wong, Hui, & Shen, 2008).

In order to imitation of the resource in governments prioritizing the adaptation of building has a direct relation with amount of obsolescence in them , because measuring the effective life of the building is difficult at it depends to the types of obsolescence table 3 shows the different types of obsolescence in the building: (Langston,Wong, Hui, & Shen, 2008).

2.3 TOURISM LED REVITALIZATION

Tourism led revitalization an important part of this research is used for improvement of the economics of the local, revival of the area and having the tourism potential, it should also take on the

consideration that tourism led revitalization has a cultural aspect and that dimension is a most important feedback of tourism led revitalization Nel and Binns (2002) stayed that “effective marketing and reliance on tourism-led development can have a noteworthy impact on a local economy”. So the tourism led revitalization depends on the culture and it has the economic and socio cultural value and at the same time it has an important effect on the sustainability of the environment. In Tourism led revitalization value added to the environment by usage of existing identity, culture and ethic. (Shaw et al, 2004).

Table 3: Different types of obsolescence (Langston,Wong, Hui, & Shen, 2008)

Types of obsolescence	
Physical obsolescence	While all buildings experience natural decay over time, accelerated deterioration leads to reduced physical performance and obsolescence. Natural decay is not considered an attribute of obsolescence but rather of age.
Economic obsolescence	The period of time over which ownership or use of a particular building is considered to be the least cost alternative for meeting a business objective governs investor interest and obsolescence based on economic criteria. Economic obsolescence can also include the need for locational change
Functional obsolescence	Change in owner objectives and needs leads to possible functional change from the purpose for which a building was originally designed. Many clients of the building industry, particularly in manufacturing industries, require a building for a process that often has a short life span.
Technological obsolescence	This occurs when the building or component is no longer technologically superior to alternatives and replacement is undertaken because of expected lower operating costs or greater efficiency.
Social obsolescence	Fashion or behavioral changes (e.g. aesthetics, religious observance) in society can lead to the need for building renovation or replacement
Legal obsolescence	Revised safety regulations, building ordinances or environmental controls may lead to legal obsolescence.

2.3.1. HOW TO ACHIEVE TOURIST REVITALIZATION

One of the important criteria for revitalization of historic urban quarter is attracting the people to visit the site work or live-in it. In this process tourism has a significant role because first it let the people to see the cities and contributing to the local economy of the city and also maybe in long term they return to the area and start live or work there. One of the new and creative development plan of tourism also simulating the cultural production and arranging the different activities for the area to encourage the tourist and people to come spending their time and enjoying the environment.

Nowadays there are variety of new activity related to tourism is exist to attracting the people for visiting (Richards, 2007). According to Zukin, 1995 in urban environment one of the most important

factors has raised in 1970 when most of the project starts to use the cultural facility like: concert hall, cinema, museum, theater and etc. to make some attraction for visitor and improve the poor image of urban environment. Also there are different strategies that adopted by the cities for social restructuring and economic challenge that also has the key impact on achieving the tourism revitalization, in table 4.

3. CASE STUDY

For better understanding of the mentioned criteria in the literature in this part 3 case study will be examine with their attempts for achieving the tourism potential in historic environment the first case is in Manchester Castlefield the second one is located in Dublin temple bar and the last one is in Massachusetts in Lowell quarter all of these 19th century urban environment experienced the economic restructuring and their area changed from industrial quarter to the mixed use with the tourism emphasize.

Table 4: Key criteria to achieve tourism revitalization

key criteria to achieving the Tourist revitalization	
Iconic structures	Cities are increasingly constructing iconic landmarks as a means of creating or changing an image and focusing cultural and economic activity. The development of the Bilbao Guggenheim Museum is a good example of this, but there are numerous others (e.g. the Tate Modern in London, The Angel of the North on Tyneside).
Heritage mining	When cities decline, they are usually forced to conserve the past because they do not have the resources to redevelop it. In these situations, cities are often left with a rich historical legacy, even when other economic resources may be missing. Cities such as Bruges, Venice, New Orleans and Kyoto have led the way in valorizing their past to stimulate current economic activity.
Mega-events	Many cities have tried to use major international events as a stimulus to development. In addition to sporting events, such as the Olympic Games, cultural events, such as World Expos, the European City of Culture or the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) sponsored Universal Forum of Cultures, have become popular means of stimulating economic development and improving city image.
Thematization	Some cities have tried to distinguish themselves by developing a specific cultural theme. For example, cities such as London and New York compete for the title of 'world cities', with New York in particular positioning itself as the 'cultural capital of the world' (Zukin, 1995). Such strategies have been successful in a range of different settings, but the most spectacular results have arguably been achieved in what Bianchini and Parkinson (1993) term 'declining cities', where the need to replace lost manufacturing employment has driven a search for cultural development as a new source of jobs and income. Well-known examples of this type of redevelopment include Baltimore, which has used culture to attract visitors and regenerate its

3.1. LOWELL, MASSACHUSETTS

Lowell is a mill urban which is located 25 miles in North West of the Boston (figur:1) between the Merrimack and Concord River, this area describe as the first manufacturing town of 19th century in America (Ryan, 1991, p. 377). As Gall (1991, p. 397) mentioned the collaps of this cotton textile in the early 20th century was one of the terrible examples of declines in the England, the area was suffered from the location obsolescence.

Figure 1: Lowell, Masachuset map



As Gall (1991) state: the first idea of tourism led revitalization in this area was to create the National historic park and it helps to the land and build owner to renovate their structure and as a result more than one hundred of old structure rehabilitated and many new use for the buildings are appeared, In 1986, more than 800000 tourist and visitor came to the national historic park for different activities such as historic walks canal tour, different entertainment and etc. the other important factor for the revitalization of the area was creation of the Lowell university and also one of the other more tourist attraction of the area was transformation of the boot cotton mill to the Museum which had an significant effect on revitalization of the area and around it there are exhibitions art galleries, teacher training industrial center, residential building and food hall to attract the visitor and each of these criteria has an important effect on the economic activity and attraction of the tourism.

In 1991 Gall states: the industrial cities for their revitalizations can learn from the Lowell the area revitalization start with the change in community.' Gall also notes that: "Without rejecting its past or clinging mindlessly to it, Lowell translated its heritage into a source of local pride and a touchstone for future development".

3.2. CASTLEFIELD, MANCHESTER

In the Manchester city the Castelfield area is located in the western edge of the center of the city(fig:2), the canal networks and area are shaped the history of first world industrial city. In 1960 the change in transportation and storage method the area declined into the abandoned industrial area in the center of the city In the 1982 the potential of tourism in city center of Manchester was noted and the visitors are attracting to the area because of the historic feature and great architecture and these criteria also has an impact in the future tourist attraction, the project of the revitalization of the area was aimed to create the economic revitalization by the tourist and increase the community quality of life. As the Castlefield quarter had the important historical and cultural background the industrial buildings with the canal and river are providing the major physical attraction and the city image has changed by tourism development and its revitalization, one of the most important and significant action for revitalization of the city was relocation the Museums of science and industry to the quarter and also the opening of grand television in 1988.

By opening of these two major attraction the Castelfield transform from its old and deteriorated image to the most attractive touristic quarter and by starting the revitalization of the area the visitor raised from zero to around two million a year, by these tourism impact the area transformed its disadvantages point to the opportunity for local and business of the community and it affect to the creating the local job, hotels, services for industry and etc. also by investing the Olympic games it help to internationalization of the city and area, in this regard the Castelfield growth has variety of benefit for the quarter such as local attraction reduce the crime employment and economic revitalization.

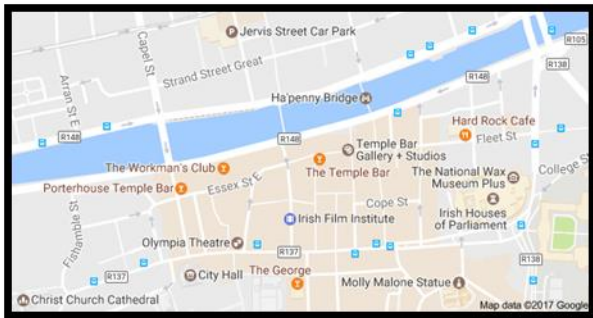
Figure 2: Castlefield, Manchester map



3.3. TEMPLE BAR, DUBLINE

The Quarter of Temple bar in Dublin was located between the retail and commercial center of the city (figure: 3).

Figure 3: Temple Bar, Dublin, map



In 1950s the area failed into disrepair and it causes the relocation of much retail and in 1981 the Irish company developed the area as a transportation center. Although in 1985 the proposal of transportation failed, in 1989 the tourism development in the temple bar in doubling has the emerged under the revitalization strategy such as increasing the retail element and quarter resident, the tourist has an important effect on changing the images of the city and changing the image obsolescence. The tourist attraction of the area cause the attention of both visitors and also investor as law (1994) state that: “The argument for concentration is that tourists prefer a compact, walking city, and that a clustering of facilities makes a city more attractive to potential visitors because the total is perceived to be greater than the sum of the parts. With a critical mass of facilities and therefore tourists, higher thresholds will be reached to support secondary activities like hotels, catering and retailing” Indeed there are variety of advantages of tourism for the city such as accommodating them, their food, service and etc. and all of these factors affect the economy of the local (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Kotler et al, 1993).

As success of revitalization in temple bar is defined that in 1992 the amount of hotels restaurant and shops and residence are increased after revitalization and also it helps the local economy and livability of the city (Montgomery, 1995a, p. 163).

4. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDING

By evaluating these case studies it's found that, there are some industrial cities and quarter that can develop and promote the tourism in the historic urban quarter and if these are focus on the attractive and interesting assets they can support the attraction Nevertheless, as Law (1994, p. 26) states: “In

the post-industrial world cities must compete to attract new activities to replace those they have lost. In this race cities do not start from the same position nor do they have an equal chance of being successful” .

The different approaches are existing in this example with the different success degree. The Castelfield and Lowell are transforming to a quarter with the influence of cultural activity like museum, center for the visitor, and interpretation. In the Lowell the industrialization of the city cause to promotion for the tourism and also the development of the national historical park, Castelfield development was more in the tourism than history of the area but in the temple bar the most focused was in vitality of the quarter.

Each of the case studies is showing that the promotion of tourist led revitalization can play an important role in the revitalization of the historic urban environment.

The raise of tourism in the historic part of industrial cities in the 1980 was a result of two facto: the first one is that most of the cities was suffered from the industrialization and they faced with the unemployment and also obsolescence of the cities , tourism was known as a development industry for enhancing the quarter, the tourism revitalization process has always the cultural activity in the heart of the city and the most important factor is that the quarter has to change for attracting the tourist. The result of evaluating of these case studies shows that in all of them the revitalization of the historic environment was a planned strategy while these quarters faced the historic environment was a planned strategy while these quarters faced the Physical, functional and locational obsolescence in different stages, the strategy that they used was physical revitalization and functional restructuring with the tourist led revitalization as a planning tool.

Table 5: Evaluation of the case studies (by Author)

Indicators/ Criteria	Lowell Masachuset	Castlefield, Manchester	Temple Bar Dublin
Planned Development or not?	Yes as a result of the strategy of urban revitalization	Yes as a result of the strategy of urban revitalization	Yes as a result of the strategy of urban revitalization
Pre-existing uses/character	-Brick bill cotton mill complex 5& 6 story - warehouse - canal - Worker housing - warehouse - machine building factory	Warehouse Passenger railway station	Retail and distribution firms
Types of obsolescence:	Physical and structural obsolescence: Decaying vacant building and infrastructure Functional obsolescence: collapse of Lowells cotton textile industry Locational obsolesce: decline of the textile industry and due to its inland situation the area become a hindrance in terms of transportation	Physical and structural obsolescence: Decaying vacant building and infrastructure Functional obsolescence: Change of storage methods, indigenous economic functions had disappeared Locational obsolesce: decline of the textile industries combined with the change in transportation and storage method	Physical and structural obsolescence: The building were in a poor state of repair Functional obsolescence: Fossilization of the built form Locational obsolesce: Companies and buildings falling into disrepair. Irish state bus company announced plans to redevelop the area as a transportation center
Development/Revitalization Strategy	Physical revitalization: physical improvements to the facades on Main Street Functional restructuring: attracting tourist and reusing the building	Physical revitalization: In 1979, the city council designated Castlefield as a conservation area. Functional restructuring: Reusing the building and changing the quarter function by tourism revitalization	Physical revitalization: New pedestrian and physical improvement Functional restructuring: Become the touristic and cultural quarter and changing the economics of it.
Functional and/ Social Gentrification	Social and functional gentrification Without rejecting its past, Lowell translated its heritage into a source of local pride.	social and functional gentrification tourism led revitalization cause to opportunity for the quarter for both local residence and business community	The success of the revitalization process in Temple Bar is partly identifiable from the following statistics: in 1992, there were only two hotels, 27 restaurants, 100 shops and 200 residents in the quarter; in 1996, it is forecast that there will be five hotels, over forty restaurants, 200 shops, 2 000 residents, twelve cultural centers, and over 2 000 people employed in the quarter (Montgomery, 1995a, p. 163).
Joint Venture	Lowell Development and Financial Corporation (LDFC - a consortium of local banks and financial institutions).	Together with Manchester's bid for the 1996 Olympic Games, this has helped draw international attention to the area.	
Planning Tools	The planning tool is tourism led revitalization. Without rejecting its past, Lowell translated its heritage into a source of local pride.	The aims of the project in relation to the Castlefield Quarter were to encourage economic revitalization through the creation of a tourist destination of international status, and to enhance the quality of life for the local community	The planning tool is cultural and tourism led revitalization. Creating life and vitality in the quarter which are essential qualities of urban revitalization.

5. CONCLUSION

By evaluating these case studies it's found that, there are some industrial cities and quarter that can develop and promote the tourism in the historic urban quarter and if these are focus on the attractive and interesting assets they can support the attraction Nevertheless, as Law (1994, p. 26) states: "In the post-industrial world cities must compete to attract new activities to replace those they have lost. In this race cities do not start from the same position nor do they have an equal chance of being successful" .For revitalizing the historic urban area many cities are try to attracting the activities and one of the key activities are tourism that related to the cultural activity, The findings of this study shows that adaptive reuse can play an important role in the revitalization of the historic urban quarter and by getting the new life to the environment the area can achieve the tourist led revitalization.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Authors want to have a special thanks to Associate.prof.Dr. Beser Oktay Vehabi for her valuable and useful guidance for completing this study.

REFERENCES

- Ashworth, G.J, and Tunbridge, J.E. (1990), *The Tourist-Historic City*, Belhaven Press, London.
- Beioley, S., Maitland, R. and Vaughan, R. (1990) *Tourism and the Inner City*. Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO), London.
- Bullen, P. A., & Love, P. E. (2009). Residential regeneration and adaptive reuse: learning from the experiences of Los Angeles. *Structural Survey*, 27(5), 351-360.
- Bollack, francoise Astorg. (2013)*Old Buildings New Forms: New Directions in Architectural Transformations*, New York. Monacelli press.
- Doratli, N. (2005). Revitalizing historic urban quarters: A model for determining the most relevant strategic approach. *European Planning Studies*, 13(5), 749-772.
- From the Experiences of Los Angeles." *Structural Survey* 27.5 (2009): 351-360. Web. 16 Oct. 2014.
- Gall, L. D. 'The Heritage Factor in Lowell's Revitalization', in Weible, R. (ed), (199D, *The Continuing Revolution: A History of Lowell*, Massachusetts, Lowell Historical Society, Lowell.
- Judd, D. and Fainstein, S.S. (eds) (1999) *The Tourist City*. Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut.
- Lin, Xiaojun. "Adaptive Reuse: A Proper Way for Chinese Architectural Preservation." (1995).
- Law, CM. (1994), *Urban Tourism: Attracting Visitors to Large Cities*, Mansell, London.
- Langston, C., Wong, F. K., Hui, E. C., & Shen, L. Y. (2008). Strategic assessment of building adaptive reuse opportunities in Hong Kong. *Building and Environment*, 43(10), 1709-1718.
- Montgomery, J. (2004) Cultural quarters as mechanisms for urban regeneration. Part 2. A review of four cultural quarters in the UK, Ireland and Australia. *Planning Practice and Research* 19(1), 3–31.
- Mathieson, A. and Wall, G. (1982), *Tourism; economic, physical and social impacts*, Longman, New York.
- Min, Q.W., and Sun, Y.H. (2007). *Conservation and adaptive management of Globally Important Agricultural Heritage Systems (GIAHS)*. Beijing: Chinese Academy of Science.
- Nel E., Binns T., *Place Marketing*(2002),, *Tourism Promotion and Community Based Local Economic Development in Post-Apartheid South Africa: The Case of Still Bay – The Bay of Sleeping Beauty*, *Urban Affairs Review*.38, 184–208
- Heath, T., Oc, T., & Tiesdell, S. (2013). *Revitalising historic urban quarters*. Routledge.
- Richards, G. (2007) *Cultural Tourism: Global and Local Perspectives*. Haworth Press, Binghampton, New York.
- Ryan, L.A. 'The Remaking of Lowell and Its Histories', in Weible, R. (ed.), (199D, *The Continuing Revolution: A History of Lowell*, Massachusetts, Lowell Historical Society, Lowell.
- Shaw S, Bagwell S, and Karmowska J., *Ethnoscapes as Spectacle: Reimagining Multicultural Districts as New Destinations for Leisure and Tourism Consumption*, *Urban Studies*, September 2004, Vol. 41, No. 10,1983–2000
- Zukin, S. (1995) *The Culture of Cities*. Blackwell, Oxford.

**BIOCULTURAL CONSERVATION AND ISLAND REDEVELOPMENT THROUGH
CRAFT DISTILLERY TOURISM AND MARKETING: THE SHACKAMAXON ISLAND
CASE STUDY**

Christina Cavaliere

Assistant Professor Stockton University School of Business
Hospitality and Tourism Management Studies Sustainability Program Galloway, New Jersey USA
08205 christina.cavaliere@stockton.edu

Donna Albano

Stockton University, USA
Associate Professor Stockton University School of Business
Hospitality & Tourism Management Studies Galloway, New Jersey USA 08205
donna.albano@stockton.edu

The intention of this paper is to explore a biocultural conservation issues recently uncovered that resulted from the interpretation of craft distillery entrepreneurship and its relationship to cultivating a sense of place in the state of New Jersey (NJ). The story of Shackamaxon Island, also known as Petty Island, and its relationship to craft entrepreneurial development has allowed the researchers to delve deeper into the socio-environmental trends within craft distillery marketing. This research extends understandings of biocultural conservation while incorporating an exploration of the impacts of place-making resulting from craft distillery tourism. Due to a recent change in legislation that resulted in significant strides in craft spirit production and related craft distillery tourism, research has begun regarding socio-environmental impacts and place redevelopment.

The case study presented in this paper resulted from a larger study that was conducted regarding craft beverage tourism in the area. Through in-person interviews and via content analysis of craft distillery websites in the region, the authors developed a more nuanced understanding of connotations of the use of sustainability and sense of place concepts in craft distillery marketing in NJ. This allowed for the uncovering of the unique biocultural case study of Shackamaxon/Petty Island as related to craft beverage tourism.

Petty's Island Rum is named after Petty's Island, a 300-acre island located in the Delaware River directly between the urban centres of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania and Camden, New Jersey. The island has a long history full of bio-cultural importance that includes the influence of Native Americans, Afro-Caribbean Slaves, and Dutch colonist presence. In addition, there is island folklore that involves pirates and long lost shipwrecked fortunes. In more recent history, the island was used by CITGO, a multinational fossil fuel corporation. Currently, extensive regional debate continues

regarding how the island will be remediated and when it will open to the public. Once it is more fully remediated, it is intended to be used as green open-space for tourism in an otherwise highly urbanized context.

The authors plan for further research to take place this year involving additional qualitative inquiry with Island stakeholders, that will focus on the role of tourism as a potential conduit for promoting redevelopment of sense of place. This intriguing socio-environmental open-space area holds significant cultural, historical and economic significance. Through the resurgence of tourism and with the influence of craft beverage marketing, there is a possibility for this once forgotten island to become an enlivened space for historical and cultural reflection, nature-based connections and further craft entrepreneurial economic development. It is the authors' hope that discourse generated as part of this paper at the conference will influence the next stages of research development for this ongoing longitudinal study. This is particularly important to an area that has suffered from unsustainable peri-urban development that has impacted cultural, social and economic structures and place-identity. In summary, this case study reinforces the notion that craft producers can influence the recreation of sense of place and therefore, these small entrepreneurs are valuable contributors to bio-cultural conservation.

References

- Cavaliere, C. T. and Albano, D. (2017 in press) New Jersey Craft Distillery: Sense of place and sustainability. In Slocum, S., Kline, C. S. and Cavaliere, C. T. (Eds.). (2017 in press). *Beers, Ciders & Spirits: Craft Beverages and Tourism in the U.S.* (Volume 2. Environmental and Social Trends and Marketing Implications). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan
- Cavaliere, C. T. (2017). Cultivating Climate Consciousness: Agritourism Provider's Perspectives of Farms, Food and Place (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Otago. Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Gossling, S., Garrod, B., Aall, C., Hille, J., & Peeters, P. (2011). Food management in tourism: Reducing tourism's carbon 'foodprint'. *Tourism Management*, 32(3), 534-543.
- Gruenewald. (2003). Foundations of place: A multidisciplinary framework for placeconscious education. *American educational research journal*, 40(3), 619-654.
- Kneafsey, M., Cox, R., Holloway, L., Dowler, E., Venn, L., & Tuomainen, H. (2008). Reconnecting consumers, producers and food: Exploring alternatives. *Oxford, UK: Berg*
- Jennings, G. (2009). Methodologies and methods. In T. Jamal & M. Robinson (Eds.), *The handbook of tourism studies* (pp. 672-692). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Kraftchick, J. F., Byrd, E. T., Canziani, B., & Gladwell, N. J. (2014). Understanding beer tourist motivation. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 12, 41-47.
- Meintjes, C., Niemann-Struweg, I., & Petzer, D. (2011). Evaluating web marketing of luxury lodges in South Africa. *African Journal of Marketing Management*, 3(9), 233-240.

- Mennell, S. J. (1969). Prohibition: A Sociological View. *Journal of American Studies*, 3(02), 159-175.
- Phillimore, J., & Goodson, L. (2004). Qualitative research in tourism: Ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies (Vol. 14). *Psychology Press*.
- Rosco, H. (2015). "Drinking and remaking place: A study of the impact of commercial moonshine in east Tennessee" (Masters' thesis). University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Slaughter, T. P. (1986). The Whiskey Rebellion: Frontier Epilogue to the American Revolution. *Oxford University Press*.
- Slocum, S., Kline, C. S. and Cavaliere, C. T. (Eds.). (2017 in press). *Beers, Ciders & Spirits: Craft Beverages and Tourism in the U.S.* (Volume 1. The Landscape of Craft Beverages. Volume 2. Environmental and Social Trends and Marketing Implications) New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan
- Swaminathan, A. (2001). Resource partitioning and the evolution of specialist organizations: The role of location and identity in the US wine industry. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1169-1185.
- Williams, D.R.; Stewart, S.I. 1998. Sense of place: an elusive concept that is finding home in ecosystem management. *Journal of Forestry*. 95(5): 18-23.

INNOVATION IN CULTURAL TOURISM CLUSTERS

Dioni Elche, Angela Martinez, Perez and Pedro M. Garcia Villaverde
University of Castilla-La Mancha, Spain

Literature on cluster has traditionally focused on industrial sectors, however recent studies have highlighted the interest in studying the agglomerations of tourism firms (Aurioles et al., 2008). A motivation as to why the territorial agglomeration approach is used in tourism is due to interconnections between political, economic and social dimensions in this industry. Also the wide range of economic activities that tourism embraces as well as their interactions with other industries have contributed to increase the interest of scholars and policy-makers on tourism networks (Gibson & Lynck, 2007).

The co-terminality is a well-known feature of tourism activity because of the immaterial nature of the output, which reinforces the phenomenon of firms' concentration. The tourism offer is structured as a network of horizontal, vertical and diagonal links between firms (Michael, 2007), and also the destination generally is part of touristic product (Kylanen, 2007). Thus, the value of the tourist package will depend mainly on cooperation between the different agents located in the area (Novelli et al., 2006), where the territory plays a critical role. Therefore, the cluster concept can be applied to tourism since it engages with the firms agglomerations theory, where the group's interests aim to exploit resources located into the territory.

As one of the positive externalities generated into a cluster, the literature has studied widely the role of inter-firm relationships on innovation (Exposito-Langa et al, 2015; Sorensen, 2007; Yu, 2013). Territorial agglomerations organized as inter-firm networks generate opportunities for innovation due to information exchange, tacit knowledge flows, cooperative behaviour, access to strategic resources, as well as lower agency and transaction costs. Most studies on the drivers of innovation focus on relationships established within the boundaries of clusters (Li et al., 2013), however, the focus has recently shifted towards external relations beyond the limits of agglomeration (Martinez-Perez, 2015). The latter emphasize the importance of building stable ties with actors outside the cluster who bring novel and non-redundant information, which is critical for innovation (Hemphala & Magnusson, 2012).

The main aim of this paper is to analyze the effects of relationships with internal and external agents of cluster on innovation, in the context of cultural tourism clusters. Specifically, we analyze the

different patterns of relations that emerge from the links with diverse agents and their impact on innovation. The empirical study is carried out with a sample of tourism firms located in the UNESCO World Heritage Cities of Spain.

The findings revealed that both types of relations could yield positive and negatives effects on innovation; therefore, tourism firms must find an appropriate balance between relations with internal and external agents of cluster. This paper contributes to the literature on networks, mainly inter-organizational, by analyzing how inside and outside contacts impact on innovation performance. While previous research has focused on either type of relationship individually, we study their joint effect. As novelty the paper focuses on cultural tourism clusters which have received little attention in the theoretical and empirical literature so far.

Keywords: Tourism cluster, innovation, inter-firms relationships

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION ON THE SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT:

MAIN THEMES AND SUB-THEMES

M Chan Sun ^{*1}, D Gursoy², R P Gunpath¹, F Liu³, H R Ramkisson³, H Kuzmanovikj⁴, Y Jiang⁵, W Wei⁶, A Lu⁷

1. University of Mauritius
2. Washington State University
3. Curtin University
4. Zhejiang Gongshang University
5. Monash Business School
6. South China University of Technology
7. Sun Yat-sen University

*Corresponding Author: mariechansun@gmail.com

The need for innovation in the hospitality and tourism sector coupled with the need to help smokers to quit smoking in light of smoking bans in hospitality venues have triggered the design of the design of the Smoke-Free Support (SFS) Hotel Concept (Chan Sun & Nunkoo, 2016). The SFS Hotel Concept differentiates itself from the traditional hotel accommodation package as it proposes a completely smoke-free environment to all clients for healthy holidays, it provides help from health professionals to smokers who want to quit smoking at the Spa Centre of the hotel for supportive smoking cessation and it delivers health messages in Kids Club for the prevention of tobacco use among children and adolescents. The aim of this research work which started in July 2016 is to validate and/or put forward the findings of the workshop which was dedicated to the SFS Hotel Concept at the Advances in Hospitality & Tourism Management and Marketing Conference 2016 in Guangzhou. After the presentation of the concept, a focus group discussion took place with the participation of 8 members of academia from different countries. The main themes which emerged from the workshop were as follows: Attractiveness of the hotel concept for people who do not like hospitals, Significance of smoke-free environment for smokers to quit smoking, Importance of legal provisions for fair buyer-seller partnership, Scepticism about ability of the concept to attract smokers, Existence of funding from potential stakeholders, Feasibility of the concept, Need for strong communication and marketing strategy, Need for a pilot hotel to develop the concept. Both positive and negative views on the new concept as well as the sub-themes will be presented. The focus group discussion concluded towards the need to work towards the implementation of a pilot hotel providing the services with marketing strategy well planned and orchestrated well in advance.

Keywords: Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept, smoking cessation, marketing strategy

MODERATED MODERATION EFFECT OF AGE AND GENDER ON ATTITUDE- INTENTION LINK FOR MOBILE-BASED TOURISM EDUCATION IN EMERGING MARKET

Johra Fatima

University of Canberra, Australia

ABSTRACT

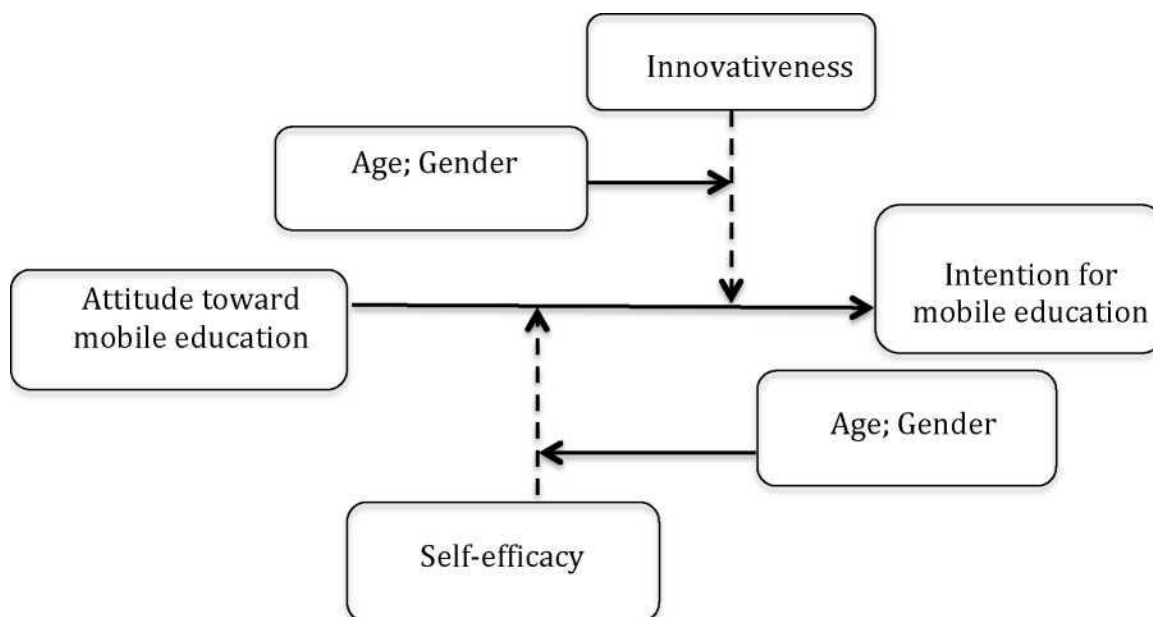
The study attempts to configure the moderated role of innovativeness and self-efficacy of tourism students on attitude and intention relationship to use mobile-based education. It also intends to examine how age and gender further moderate the moderation effects of innovativeness and self-efficacy (moderated moderation effect).

Key Words: Innovativeness, Self-efficacy, Mobile-based education, Emerging market.

Mobile education for tourism and hospitality are cost-effective, convenient and more suitable for remote population in emerging markets in particular for rural girls who often kept away from education for the lack of insecurity in towns, poverty and socio-cultural obstacles. However, considering the early stage of mobile education in this context, it is crucial whether and to what extent, students' level of innovativeness and self-efficacy affects their intention to adopt mobile-based tourism education.

While there is an extensive research on innovativeness and self-efficacy for behavioral adoption (Shin & Kang, 2015), impact of these two constructs on mobile-based tourism education is scant. Literature is also limited in providing insights of the impact of age and gender (Leung & Tanford, 2016) on the moderated role of innovativeness and self-efficacy leading to attitude-intention link. Further complexity arises while understanding of this relationship in an emerging market context, despite of high proliferation of cheap mobile devices and widely availability of fast and affordable Internet services in this market (Tagoe & Abakah, 2014).

Figure 1 Conceptual model.



Data has been collected from three leading tourism and hospitality education institutions in Dhaka, Bangladesh. A face-to-face in class survey on 199 students has been conducted with a five-point ‘Likert scaled’ questionnaire. Smart PLS 3 along with SPSS have been used to analyze the final data of 176 with 88.44% response rate.

Since, there is still limited number of girl students are involved in tourism education and with specific range of ages in the context of Bangladesh, one of the methodological limitations of the study is, sample ratio between male and female students and their age gaps is not proportionate enough.

This study is one of the pioneering attempts in literature to examine the moderator role of innovativeness and self efficacy on attitude-intention relationship for using mobile devices to get tourism education. Again, the study will capture useful insights about the distinct effects of gender differences and age gaps (Muhanna & Abu-Al-Sha'r, 2009) on the level of self-efficacy and innovativeness of an emerging market's tourism students. Finally, the study will provide overview of the tourism education perspectives in the context of an emerging market, Bangladesh.

The study has several important implications for tourism educators, policy makers and practitioners. First, the crucial turning stage from attitude towards intention (Fatima et al., 2015) to adopt mobile-based education can be positively influenced by employing age specific, narrowly targeted approach to the tourism students. Also, if findings confirm innovativeness and self-efficacy vary with gender differences, then, educators and education policy makers can take differentiated step to promote mobile-based education to the students.

REFERENCES

- Fatima, J. K., Khan, H.Z. & Goh, E. (2015). Environmental knowledge and behavioural outcomes of tourism students in Australia: towards testing a range of mediation and moderated mediation effects. *Environmental Education Research*, 1-18.
- Leung X. Y. & Tanford S. (2016). What Drives Facebook Fans to “Like” Hotel Pages: A Comparison of Three Competing Models. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 25, 314-345.
- Muhanna, W.N. & Abu-Al-Sha'r, A.M. (2009). University Students' Attitudes towards Cell Phone Learning Environment. *International journal of interactive mobile technologies*, 3(4), 35-40.
- Shin, W. S. & Kang, M. (2015). The Use of a Mobile Learning Management System at an Online University and Its Effect on Learning Satisfaction and Achievement. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 16(3), 110-130.
- Tagoe M. & Abakah E. (2014). Determining distance education students' readiness for mobile learning at University of Ghana using the Theory of Planned Behavior. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, 10(1), 91

THE EFFECT OF INSTITUTIONALIZATION ON EMOTIONAL LABOR BEHAVIOR: A RESEARCH IN HOSPITALITY ORGANIZATION IN ALANYA REGION

Ali Sükrü Çetinkaya, Selcuk University, Turkey

Emine Vasfiye Korkmaz, Selcuk University, Turkey

Emotional labor, the idea of managing emotions with others as part of the work role, involves adapting emotional expressions to better align with appropriate organizational display rules. Employee display of positive emotions is a significant predictor of customer positive moods. Employees may either fake the expressed emotions, called surface acting, or modify the underlying feelings, called deep acting, to adhere to emotional expectations of their jobs. Frontline employees working in hospitality organizations are expected to display more intensive emotional labor behaviors. Institutionalization is the process which translates an organization's code of conduct, mission, policies, vision, and strategic plans into action guidelines applicable to the daily activities of its officers and other employees. It aims at integrating fundamental values and objectives into the organization's culture and structure. Institutionalization specifies the relations between interactional episodes and institutional principles. In the literature review, a study which examine the relationship between employee perception of institutionalization and emotional labor was not found. From this point of view authors aimed to answer this basic research question: Does employee perception of firm's institutionalization level affect their emotional labor? So, the purpose of this study was to determine the effect of employees' perception of institutionalization on their emotional labor (H1: Perception of firm institutionalization affect employee emotional labor). An empirical research was designed to test the proposed theoretical model and the underlying hypotheses. Questionnaire technique was used for the data collection. Hospitality firms operating in Alanya in Turkey was the universe of the research. Data was analyzed by using linear regression analysis method with 393 valid responses obtained from randomly selected employees. Results of test of the hypotheses revealed that institutionalization perception has positive relationship with deep acting emotional labor and no statistically significant relationship with the surface acting one. Formalization dimension of the institutionalization concept significantly predicted deep acting emotional labor scores, $\beta = -.21$, $t(386) = 2.08$, $p < .05$. Institutionalization also explained a significant proportion of variance in deep acting emotional labor scores, $R^2 = .07$, $F(6, 386) = 5.08$, $p < .001$. The power of the affect is small. Results suggest that when employee perception of firm institutionalization increases, employee deep action emotional labor will also increase. Results also suggest that there are other variables, rather than

institutionalization, that have effect on the emotional behavior.

Key words: Institutionalization, emotional labor, hospitality, Alanya Selected

References

- Anaza, N. A., Nowlin, E. L., & Wu, G. J. (2016). Staying engaged on the job The role of emotional labor, job resources, and customer orientation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 50(7-8), 1470-1492. doi: 10.1108/Ejm-11-2014-0682
- Lee, J., Ok, C., & Hwang, J. (2016). An emotional labor perspective on the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 54, 139-150. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2016.01.008
- Lee, Y. H., & Chelladurai, P. (2016). Affectivity, Emotional Labor, Emotional Exhaustion, and Emotional Intelligence in Coaching. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 28(2), 170-184. doi: 10.1080/10413200.2015.1092481
- Lin, J. S. C., Chou, E. Y., & Lin, C. Y. (2016). Satisfying Customers through Satisfied Service Employees: Integrating the Emotional Labor and Emotional Contagion Perspectives. *Looking Forward, Looking Back: Drawing on the Past to Shape the Future of Marketing*, 576-579.
- Mroz, J., & Kaleta, K. (2016). Relationships between Personality, Emotional Labor, Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction in Service Professions. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 29(5), 767-782. doi: 10.13075/ijomeh.1896.00578
- Pandey, J., & Singh, M. (2016). Donning the mask: effects of emotional labour strategies on burnout and job satisfaction in community healthcare. *Health Policy and Planning*, 31(5), 551-562. doi: 10.1093/heapol/czv102
- Roh, C. Y., Moon, M. J., Yang, S. B., & Jung, K. (2016). Linking Emotional Labor, Public Service Motivation, and Job Satisfaction: Social Workers in Health Care Settings. *Social Work in Public Health*, 31(2), 43-57. doi:10.1080/19371918.2015.1087904
- Seger-Guttmann, T., & Medler-Liraz, H. (2016). Does emotional labor moderate customer participation and buying? *Service Industries Journal*, 36(7-8), 356-373. doi: 10.1080/02642069.2016.1219724
- Sohn, B. K., Hwang, J. Y., Park, S. M., Choi, J. S., Lee, J. Y., & Jung, H. Y. (2016). Relationship of emotional labor and job stress among hospital workers. *International Journal of*

Neuropsychopharmacology, 19, 132-133.

- Wang, E., Berthon, P., Pitt, L., & McCarthy, I. P. (2016). Service, emotional labor, and mindfulness. *Business Horizons*, 59(6), 655-661. doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2016.07.002
- Wang, M. L., & Chang, S. C. (2016). The Impact of Job Involvement on Emotional Labor to Customer-Oriented Behavior: An Empirical Study of Hospital Nurses. *Journal of Nursing Research*, 24(2), 153-162. doi:10.1097/jnr.0000000000000114
- Wang, X. F., Wang, G. C., & Hou, W. C. (2016). Effects of Emotional Labor and Adaptive Selling Behavior on Job Performance. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 44(5), 801-814. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2016.44.5.801
- Yoo, J. (2016). Perceived customer participation and work engagement: the path through emotional labor. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 34(7), 1009-1024. doi:10.1108/Ijbm-09-2015-0139
- Yuan, W. P., & Akhir, I. M. (2016). Emotional labor and job performance: A case study of receptionists in Carlton Holiday Hotel and Suite, Shah Alam, Selangor. *Innovation and Best Practices in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 67.

OSTRACISM, SELF-ESTEEM, AND PERFORMANCE: A MODERATED MEDIATION

Irene Huertas-Valdivia University of Granada Granada, Spain

Jessica Braojos University of Granada Granada, Spain and

Javier Llorens-Montes University of Granada Granada, Spain

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Contact employees play a key role in service delivery. Since each service encounter is different in service organizations due to people's heterogeneity, many unexpected contingencies that arise during service delivery can be resolved promptly and satisfactorily by frontline employees if their managers enable them to use their professional judgment and discretion at work. In hospitality, excellence in serving customers sometimes involves employees *going the extra mile*. According Bettencourt and Brown (1997) *extra-role behavior* is the discretionary behaviors of contact employees in serving customers that extend beyond formal role requirements. The self-esteem level that employees have clearly influences this extra-role behavior. Self-esteem level induces (positive or negative) behaviors that serve a self-verifying purpose. However, some workplace factors, such as workplace ostracism, can negatively affect the employee's self-esteem, as previous studies evidence (Ferris et al., 2015).

Being ostracized at work has a negative impact on employee self-esteem level, but given that individual psychological factors have a substantially influence to behavioral performance, we assess how the positive behavior of employees can be encouraged by improving their self-perception through psychological empowerment. Spreitzer (1995) defines psychological empowerment as a motivational construct: it is conceived as a work-related, experienced psychological state that reflects an active orientation to a work role. Psychological empowerment is manifested in four cognitions: *meaning* (value that employees assign to their jobs), *competence* (employees' belief in their capability to perform their tasks skillfully), *self-determination* (sense of having freedom of choice), and *impact* (perception of achieving positive outcomes in accomplishing the purpose of a task). Psychological empowerment is thus especially beneficial for heterogeneous services, where guest-contact employees must adapt their behaviors to the demands of each and every service encounter (Bowen & Lawler, 1995). Empowered employees feel they have independence, flexibility, discretion, and control in performing their jobs. They are enabled to deal with the unexpected contingencies that characterize service encounters in hospitality, which frequently require employees "to depart from

the script”.

The main objective of this study is to determine whether ostracism affects self-esteem, and how this, in turn, is associated with the performance of hotel workers. Also explored is whether psychological empowerment can mitigate the possible negative effects. We explore processes of mediation and moderation linking work ostracism to extra-role customer service. To serve this purpose, a survey questionnaire was employed to collect data on those variables. Data were collected over a three-month period (from July to September 2015) from a sample of hotel workers in three of the most important tourist destination cities in Spain. The target population of this study was limited to full-time customer contact employees who had intense face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers (e.g., concierges, reservations agents, staff from the front desk department, etc.). 340 hotel employees volunteered to participate in our study.

The variance-based structural equation modelling (SEM) technique was used. The partial least squares (PLS) method of estimation was employed to test the hypotheses and to examine the mediation and moderation effects involved in the proposed model. PLS estimation method was chosen since it is particularly suitable for estimating models combining composite and reflective constructs (Henseler et al., 2014).

The empirical analysis suggests that self-esteem positively affects extra-role customer service; also, that workplace ostracism negatively impacts on a global self-esteem level. Moreover, in the presence of psychological empowerment, the negative relationship between ostracism and self-esteem decreases. Results provide thus support to the fact that empowering workers can improve their self-perception. Furthermore, empowering workers can improve their self-esteem and hence the final service given to customers.

Our results contribute to current nascent ostracism literature. It provides useful findings for managers and HR managers in the hospitality industry who seek to counteract employees' ostracism in their working places. In addition, this study explains some possible internal mechanisms that influence employees' performance in hospitality organizations. Identifying factors that influence employees' self-esteem can provide guidance to hospitality managers to enhance practices fostering employees' wellbeing.

A discussion of managerial implications is included along with theoretical implications of the findings, an evaluation of research limitations, and directions for future research.

Keywords: ostracism, psychological empowerment, self-esteem, extra-role behavior, hospitality.

REFERENCES

- Bettencourt, L. A., & Brown, S. W. (1997). "Contact employees: Relationships among workplace fairness, job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviors". *Journal of Retailing*, 73 (1), 39-61.
- Bowen, D. E., & Lawler, E. E. (1995). "Empowering service employees". *Sloan Management Review*, 36 (4), 73-84.
- Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., & Morrison, R. (2015). "Ostracism, self-esteem, and job performance: When do we self-verify and when do we self-enhance?". *Academy of Management Journal*, 58 (1), 279-297.
- Henseler, J., Dijkstra, T., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C., Diamantopoulos, A., Straub, D., Ketchen, D., Hair, J., Hult, T.M. and Calantone, R. (2014), "Common beliefs and reality about PLS: Comments on Ronkko & Evermann (2013)", *Organizational Research Methods*, 17 (2), 182-209.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). "Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation". *Academy of Management Journal*, 38 (5), 1442-146

HOW TO BUILD ENGAGEMENT AMONG HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES

Irene Huertas-Valdivia University of Granada Granada, Spain

Maria I. Roldan-Bravo University of Granada Granada, Spain

Araceli Rojo Gallego-Burin University of Granada Granada, Spain

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Tourism and its workplaces have been subjected to the impact of sustained turbulence and change in the last decade (Baum, 2015). New workplace employment relations, as well as different trends in human resource management (HRM) and leadership, have emerged. Given these new job demands and job resources (Demerouti et al, 2001), organizations face an imperative to evolve in their HRM practices. The need to adapt to these new labor trends in tourism is currently forcing companies to develop innovative ways to motivate people, develop capabilities, and engage valuable contributors.

In parallel, many organizational behavior studies in academia have shifted their focus towards the *Positive Psychology Paradigm* (De Klerk & Stander, 2014; Seligman et al., 2005). These studies highlight how organizations should nurture their employees' positive psychological capital (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015), and the important effects of positive work emotions in improving organizational functioning.

Employee engagement is one of the main drivers of employee enthusiasm and dedication at work. Further, supportive managerial environments allow people to make decisions without fear of the consequences, and encourage positive feelings of self-determination and competence among workers. Achieving a highly engaged workforce is especially crucial in hospitality organizations, where customer satisfaction is greatly influenced by the attitudes and behaviors of the frontline employees. One strategy is for organizations to implement high-performance work practices (HPWPs) to boost employee skills, motivation, and participation and to encourage leaders to display empowering behaviors.

A theoretical serial mediation model was developed to examine the proposed relationship. The hypotheses were tested using regression analysis with bootstrapping. Mediation effects were evaluated using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013). The quantitative method used to test the research hypotheses included development of a three-section survey questionnaire to measure the

hotel employees' perceptions. Existing multi-item scales from previous research were used. 340 hotel workers participated in this study conducted in Spain. Hospitality industry workers were selected for the study because employee engagement is particularly relevant in the hotel sector. In such a high-customer-interaction job, it is crucial that employees be motivated and passionate about their work in order to provide good service.

Results suggest that hospitality organizations should implement HPWPs and encourage empowering leadership behavior in their managers to create a work context that fosters psychological empowerment. This, in turn, will generate employee job engagement. The main conclusion of the study is thus that organizations must build and nurture an environment that supports empowerment to achieve engaged employees by adopting internal policies to align leaders' behaviors with the company's HPWPs values.

This research highlights the importance of specific organizational conditions and managerial strategies in achieving the psychological fulfillment of hospitality employees. This study makes significant contributions to the engagement literature in different ways. First, it explains internal sequential procedures to achieve employee engagement in the context of hospitality. Moreover, it is the first empirical study to explore the internal process through which HPWPs influence employee engagement with a *serial mediation* model (Hayes, 2013). Second, analyzing the *black box* between HPWPs and engagement reveals some contextual and psychological mechanisms underlying engagement for practitioners and the research community.

From a practical standpoint, this discovery will help organizations to orient their efforts to develop sets of HR practices that enable high performance, and to enhance empowering leadership styles that promote psychological empowerment. Taken together, these factors are likely to translate into more energetic, enthusiastic, focused employees who will be more likely to perform better and provide more virtuous customer service.

In sum, the present study provides important insights for managers and human resource managers in the hospitality industry who seek to foster empowered, engaged employees.

Keywords: high-performance work practices, engagement, psychological empowerment, hospitality

REFERENCES

- Baum, T. (2015). "Human resources in tourism: Still waiting for change? - A 2015 reprise", *Tourism Management*, 50, 204-212.
- De Klerk, S. & Stander, M.W. (2014). "Leadership empowerment behaviour, work engagement and

turnover intention: The role of psychological empowerment", *Journal of Positive Management*, 5 (3), 28-45.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Nachreiner, F. & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). "The job demands-resources model of burnout", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (3), 499-512.

Hayes, A.F. (2013). "Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach". *New York: Guilford Press*.

Karatepe, O.M. & Karadas, G. (2015). "Do psychological capital and work engagement foster frontline employees' satisfaction? A study in the hotel industry", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), 1254-1278.

Seligman, M.E.P., Steen, T.A., Park, N. & Peterson, C. (2005). "Positive psychology progress: Empirical validation of interventions", *American Psychologist*, 60 (5), 410-421.

JOB INSECURITY, JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AND THEIR EFFECTS ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES' SERVICE RECOVERY PERFORMANCE AND QUITTING INTENTIONS

Homayoun Pasha Safavi Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa,
North Cyprus Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North
Cyprus Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Job embeddedness (JE) presents a number of forces that keep employees in the job. JE enables managers to understand why employees stay rather than how they leave (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). As discussed by Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez (2001), JE consists of three components, which are fit, links, and sacrifice. Fit refers to "...an employee's perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and with his or her environment" (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1105). Links are defined as "...formal or informal connections between a person and institutions or other people", while sacrifice refers to "...the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job" (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1105). JE consists of both on-the-job (i.e., organization) and off- the-job (i.e., community) factors (Lee et al., 2004). JE gives rise to various outcomes such as creative performance, lower actual turnover, extra-role performance, reduced quitting intentions, and diminished job search behavior (e.g., Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Murphy, Burton, Henagan, & Briscoe, 2013).

Job insecurity which refers to "... the subjective experience of being threatened by job loss..." (Schaufeli, 2016, p. 33) is a critical problem awaiting an immediate solution in the hospitality industry. When employees perceive that job insecurity threatens stability of employment in the organization, they start to question their JE that in turn engenders lower intentions to remain and gives rise to higher job search behavior (Murphy et al., 2013). In short, they feel disembedded from the organization and the community and therefore display undesirable outcomes. However, once management is likely to guarantee job security to employees in the organization, job security becomes a significant high-performance work practice. For example, job security has been treated as one of the most important human resource practices in other relevant studies (e.g., Jiang et al., 2012; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Despite various voids in JE research, evidence about its antecedents is still scarce (Bambacas & Kulik, 2013; Karatepe & Karadas, 2012).

More importantly, very little is known about JE as a mediator of the influence of job insecurity on job outcomes such as intention to remain and job search behavior (Murphy et al., 2013).

Against the above backdrop, our study examines JE as a mediator of the impact of job insecurity on service recovery performance (SRP) and quitting intentions. SRP refers to "... frontline service employees' perceptions of their own abilities and actions to resolve a service failure to the satisfaction of the customer" (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003, p. 274). Data were gathered from 313 hotel customer-contact employees in three waves in Iran. Customer-contact employees' SRP was assessed by their immediate supervisors.

All hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling. The empirical data support all hypotheses. The results demonstrate that customer-contact employees' unfavorable perceptions of security at work mitigate their JE. Furthermore, the empirical data support the premises that JE is an antidote to customer-contact employees' quitting intentions, while it fosters their SRP. The results of the Sobel test reveal that JE is a full mediator of the influence of job insecurity on both SRP and quitting intentions.

Key Words: hotel employees; job embeddedness; job insecurity; service recovery performance; quitting intentions

REFERENCES

- Babakus, E., Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(3), 272-286.
- Bambacas, M., & Kulik, T. C. (2013). Job embeddedness in China: How HR practices impact turnover intentions. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(10), 1933-1952.
- Jiang, K., Liu, D., McKay, P. F., Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (2012). When and how is job embeddedness predictive of turnover? A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(5), 1077-1096.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Karadas, G. (2012). The effect of management commitment to service quality on job embeddedness and performance outcomes. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 13(4), 614636.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2016). The mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between high-performance work practices and job outcomes of employees in Nigeria.

International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 28(10), 2350-2371.

- Karatepe, O. M., & Vatankhah, S. (2014). The effects of high-performance work practices and job embeddedness on flight attendants' performance outcomes. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 37(May), 27-35.
- Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablinski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5), 711-722.
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1102-1121.
- Murphy, W. M., Burton, J. P., Henagan, S. C., & Briscoe, J. P. (2013). Employee reactions to job insecurity in a declining economy: A longitudinal study of the mediating role of job embeddedness. *Group and Organization Management*, 38(4), 512-537.
- Schaufeli, W. B. (2016). Job insecurity research is still alive and kicking twenty years later: A commentary. *Australian Psychologist*, 51(1), 32-35.

NEW LEADERSHIP STYLES: THEIR EFFECT ON HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES

Irene Huertas-Valdivia University of Granada Granada, Spain

Araceli Rojo Gallego-Burin University of Granada Granada, Spain

Marisel Fernandez Giordano University of Granada Granada, Spain

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Given the unique characteristics of work in hotels (changing shifts, work overload fluctuations due to seasonality, emotional labor, variability of service encounters depending on personal characteristics, etc.), managers need to thoroughly understand how to ensure that hospitality employees experience positive feelings at their workplace. Employee empowerment and engagement are both seen as promising solutions to deal with many organizational issues in hospitality. In this line, there is rising concern for employees' wellbeing, an issue in which the role of managers is becoming increasingly relevant.

It is thus important for managers to understand the extent to which their own behaviors, and more importantly, which of their behaviors are key drivers of employee engagement and psychological empowerment. This study responds to the call for further scholarly research on the influence of new leadership styles on those positive employee outcomes. This elucidation will help managers to maximize desirable employee outcomes through managing their own leadership styles.

Growing trends in hospitality organizations indicate that novel leadership styles are gradually becoming more significant. In today's workplaces, servant, empowering, and paradoxical leadership styles are interesting management proposals particularly suitable for hospitality managers seeking to create *service* environments. Focusing on leader behaviors that help followers to realize their full potential, this research built and tested a theoretical model linking these three novel leadership styles (namely, paradoxical, empowering and servant) with psychological empowerment and engagement. These relationships were assessed using structural equation modeling (SEM) with survey data gathered from 340 customer-contact hotel workers in Spain.

This study has three main objectives: 1) First, it contributes to the emerging body of leadership literature by investigating three novel leadership approaches—paradoxical, empowering, and servant leadership—in hotel settings. 2) Second, it provides new insights into the construct of engagement by exploring some of its antecedents in Spanish hospitality organizations. 3) Finally, the findings of the study offer a timely starting point for effective, efficient, and innovative leadership strategies in

a sector characterized by traditional, autocratic styles.

Results of hypothesis testing showed that servant and empowering leadership styles are both antecedents of job engagement. As predicted on the basis of Self-Determination Theory, empowering leadership style and paradoxical leader behavior were both positively related to psychological empowerment. Contrary to expectations, servant leadership style was not an antecedent of psychological empowerment.

This study has important theoretical implications. It contributes to clarifying some managerial antecedents of employee engagement in a particular service sector, hospitality, where having resolute and happy workers really makes a difference in business performance. Moreover, the study findings have the potential to help researchers better understand the relationship between psychological empowerment and engagement. Further, this study differs from other leadership research in that it highlights how novel leadership approaches are necessary in the Spanish hotel industry to achieve positive employee feelings at work.

This investigation also delineates several useful implications for managers in the hospitality industry regarding leadership styles conducive to positive employee outcomes. The findings strongly advise hotel managers to display more participatory leadership styles, especially empowering behavior, to encourage their employees to experience psychological empowerment and engagement. In particular, hospitality organizations should encourage *enabling* behaviors in their managers, supporting followers to assume responsibilities and to work autonomously. But managers must keep in mind that empowering is not merely delegating: cession of resources and a rewards system must accompany the empowerment process.

Also highlighted for educators is the importance of instruction for future hospitality workers on innovative leadership trends.

This research is not without limitations, which can be viewed as opportunities for future research. Cross-sectional research design, convenience sampling and self-report measures are the main limitations of the study. Future avenues for research are also outlined. For example, it is important to identify the boundary conditions under which leadership behaviors influence the desired outcomes. To do so, moderators of the links between leadership styles and engagement must be explored. Personality traits may also be highly influential in employee perceptions and work experiences.

Key Words: paradoxical leadership, servant leadership, empowering leadership, engagement, psychological empowerment, hospitality

UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF TOURIST SOUVENIR IN TERMS OF CULTURAL CONTEXT

Xiaoming Liu and Yi Fu
Univerisity of Macau, China

Abstract

The diversity of Chinese souvenirs is based on the long history, environmental and cultural diversity (Miao, 2004). A number of cultural products such as porcelain (fine china), Chinese Qipao (Chinese traditional dress), silk, Chinese tea, tea set, antiques, handicrafts, jades, paintings and calligraphies, wines and spirits, and traditional Chinese medicine are the popular choices as souvenirs during the journey in China. However, for more cities and regions in the world, the ability to create “uniqueness” arguably diminishes in tourism, often assumed to lead towards the “serial reproduction” of culture, “placelessness”, non-places or McDonaldisation (Richards & Wilson, 2006). Ironically, in souvenir market, the similar phenomena has occurred in China, a country known for its culture. It is a key issue for tourism that how to develop souvenir in order to attract local and international tourists. Therefore, the characteristics of tourist souvenir need to be re-recognized.

Scholars concurrently describe souvenirs in a positive light (more often when they are reminders) or criticism (usually when they are sellable commodities). The contrary nature of the views of souvenirs is further illustrated by the consideration of the souvenir as a commodity for sale to remember “locations and experiences that are not for sale”(Stewart, 1984). Therefore, from the view of nature of tourism, the contrasts between the ordinary/work and nonordinary/leisure were described as reasons for tourists possessing souvenirs (Swanson, 2014). Tourists need to capture a sacred experience which distinguishes the ordinary experience, a tangible souvenir served this need well (Setiyati & Indrayanto, 2011).

Existing literature shows the characteristics of tourist souvenir could take many forms because of different perspectives of classification (e.g., Gordon (1986)’s souvenir as gift and sign, Hume (2014)’s souvenirs as sampled, crafted and representative). Cultural characteristics are very important factors for tourist souvenir to attract consumers. However, there is little literature to investigate the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. This paper aims to develop a conceptual model for the characteristics of tourist souvenir in term of cultural context. Based on Chinese cultural context, this conceptual model will provide a solution for souvenir providers to create a unique

souvenir within local context.

References

- Gordon, B. (1986). The Souvenir: Messenger of the Extraordinary. *The Journal of Popular Culture*, 20(3), 135-146.
- Hume, D. (2014). *Tourism Art and Souvenirs: The Material Culture of Tourism: Routledge*.
- Miao, X. (2004). Tourism Merchandise and Souvenirs: Discussion on the Conceptual Definitions and Local Features. *Tourism Tribune*, 19(1), 27-31.
- Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2006). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1209-1223.
- Setiyati, E. A., & Indrayanto, A. (2011). Outsourced souvenirs: An investigation towards authenticity anxiety and tourists purchase behavior. *International Journal on Social Science, Economics and Art*, 1(3), 196-201.
- Stewart, S. (1984). *On longing: Narratives of the miniature, the gigantic, the souvenir, the collection: Duke University Press*.
- Swanson, K. (2014). Souvenirs, Tourists, and Tourism *The Wiley Blackwell Companion to Tourism* (pp. 179-188): John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF JOB INSECURITY AMONG HOTEL SALESPeOPLE

Mona Bouzari Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus
Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North
Cyprus Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Job insecurity which is defined as “...the subjective experience of being threatened by job loss...” (Schaufeli, 2016, p. 33) is an endemic problem in the hospitality industry (e.g., Karatepe, 2013; Vujicic, Jovicic, Lalic, Gagic, & Cvejanov, 2015). According to Lastad, Elst, and De Witte (2016), job insecurity emerges from individuals’ perceptions of job insecurity and then aggravates perceptions of a job insecurity climate at work. Job insecurity can surface from lack of industry experience and skills needed to fulfill the requirements of the job and result in quitting intentions. For example, employees have unfavorable perceptions of job security and therefore may display quitting intentions when a new supervisor arrives (Kim, Poulston, & Sankaran, 2016). Job insecurity can arise from different hiring practices. Specifically, hiring individuals via contracts and outsourcing triggers feelings of insecurity (Ozturk, Hancer, & Im, 2014). Furthermore, job insecurity depends upon employees’ interpretations of events, people, and signals associated with the work and social environments (Vujicic et al., 2015). It seems that job insecurity brings a number of problems. For instance, job insecurity is a stressor that gives rise to undesirable consequences such as burnout, psychosomatic complaints, counterproductive work behavior, job dissatisfaction, and erosion in organizational commitment (e.g., De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016; Debus, Probst, Konig, & Kleinmann, 2012; Tian, Zhang, & Zhou, 2014). However, Schaufeli (2016) aptly argues that solution to job insecurity is not easy.

Selective staffing, training, and career opportunities are among the most important human resource practices/job resources for customer-contact employees in the hospitality industry (cf. Karatepe, 2013; Kim et al., 2016; Ozturk et al., 2014). Their simultaneous presence is likely to weaken salespeople’s perceptions of job insecurity. As a personal resource, hope enables individuals to formulate their goals and determine ways to achieve them (Karatepe, 2014). However, salespeople’s perceptions of job insecurity are likely to alleviate their hope and lead to job dissatisfaction. Such salespeople in turn cannot display creative performance that is related to the generation of ideas and

provision of feedback about novel problems in service encounters (Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). Despite the detrimental effect of job insecurity and the findings given above, empirical research about the antecedents and consequences of job insecurity is sparse (Cheung, Gong, & Huang, 2016; De Witte et al., 2016). The void associated with the factors influencing job insecurity and its consequences is also apparent in the extant hospitality knowledge.

Against this backdrop, this study examines the interrelationships of job resources, job insecurity, hope, job satisfaction, and creative performance using a time-lagged research design and multiple sources of data. Data came from 187 hotel salespeople and their immediate supervisors in Iran.

The results from structural equation modeling suggest that selective staffing, training, and career opportunities as the indicators of job resources mitigate salespeople's perceptions of job insecurity, while their joint presence activates hope. Consistent with the study predictions, job insecurity threatens salespeople's job satisfaction, while hope fosters their job satisfaction. The results further suggest that job satisfaction exerts a strong influence on creative performance. Contrary to the study prediction, job insecurity stimulates hope. That is, there is no empirical support for the negative association between job insecurity and hope. Overall, five out of six direct effects (hypotheses) are supported.

The results of the Sobel test suggest that job insecurity has a partial mediating role in the association between job resources and job satisfaction. The results further suggest that hope partially mediates the relationship between job resources and job satisfaction. There is empirical support for job satisfaction as a full mediator of the impacts of job insecurity and hope on creative performance. However, the empirical data do not support job insecurity as a mediator of the effects of job resources on hope. This is also valid for hope as a mediator between job insecurity and job satisfaction. In short, four out of six indirect effects (hypotheses) receive support from the empirical data.

Key Words: hope; hotel salespeople; job insecurity; job outcomes; job resources

REFERENCES

- Cheung, S. Y., Gong, Y., & Huang, J-C. (2016). Emotional intelligence, job insecurity, and psychological strain among real estate agents: A test of mediation and moderation models. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(22), 2673-2694.
- De Witte, H., Pienaar, J., & De Cuyper, N. (2016). Review of 30 years of longitudinal studies on the association between job insecurity and health and well-being: Is there causal evidence?. *Australian Psychologist*, 57(1), 18-31.

- Debus, M. E., Probst, T. M., Konig, C. J., & Kleinmann, M. (2012). Catch me if I fall! Enacted uncertainty avoidance and the social safety net as country-level moderators in the job insecurity-job attitudes link. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 690-698.
- Karatepe, O. M. (2013). Perceptions of organizational politics and hotel employee outcomes: The mediating role of work engagement. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(1), 82-104.
- Karatepe, O. M. (2014). Hope, work engagement, and organizationally valued performance outcomes: An empirical study in the hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 23(6), 678-698.
- Kim, P. BC., Poulston, J., & Sankaran, A. C. (2016). An examination of leader-member exchange (LMX) agreement between employees and their supervisors and its influence on work outcomes. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2017.1228094
- Lastad, L., Elst, T. V., & De Witte, H. (2016). On the reciprocal relationship between individual job insecurity and job insecurity climate. *Career Development International*, 27(3), 246-261.
- Ozturk, A. B., Hancer, M., & Im, J. Y. (2014). Job characteristics, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment for hotel workers in Turkey. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 23(3), 294-313.
- Schaufeli, W. B. (2016). Job insecurity research is still alive and kicking twenty years later: A commentary. *Australian Psychologist*, 57(1), 32-35.
- Tian, Q., Zhang, L., & Zou, W. (2014). Job insecurity and counterproductive behavior of casino dealers-the mediating role of affective commitment and moderating role of supervisor support. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 40(July), 29-36.
- Vujicic, D., Jovicic, A., Lalic, D., Gagic, S., & Cvejanov, A. (2015). The relationship between job security, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment among employees in the tourism sector in Novi Sad. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 36(4), 633-652.
- Wang, G., & Netemeyer, R. G. (2004). Salesperson creative performance: Conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(8), 805-812

DOES WORK ENGAGEMENT MEDIATE THE EFFECTS OF SERVICE ORIENTATION ON JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AMONG FULL TIME FRONTLINE FOUR AND FIVE STAR HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN NORTHERN CYPRUS?

Reza Bahman Teimouri

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Cyprus

Hüseyin Araslı

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Cyprus

Hasan Kılıç

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Cyprus

Iman Aghaei

Faculty of Business and Economics, Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, Cyprus

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to develop and test a conceptual model which examines the mediation role of work engagement on service orientation and job embeddedness. Data is obtained from full-time frontline hotel employees for testing these relationships with a time lag of three weeks in north Cyprus. The relationships are surveyed through structural equation modeling. Results based on hierarchical regression analysis reveal that service orientation intensifies work engagement and work engagement has a significant positive effect on job embeddedness. Results also indicated that work engagement partially mediates the effects of service orientation on job embeddedness. Relevant implications and discussions were highlighted in the study with necessary future recommendations.

Keyword: Front line employees, Job embeddedness, Northern Cyprus, Service orientation, Work engagement

REASONS BEHIND STUDENTS' CHOICE OF GASTRONOMY AND CULINARY ARTS: CASE OF NORTHERN CYPRUS

Sarvnaz Baradarani and Ozlem Altun
Eastern Mediterranean University, Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Gastronomy is expressed as “knowledge and art of eating good food”, and it is a matter of human, food and aesthetics. Last quarter of 19th century became the milestone of culinary arts education. Formal cooking education began in 1882 in the “National Institute of Cookery” of London, followed by “L'Ecole Professionnelle de Cuisine et des Sciences Alimentaires” that started this field in Paris (Brown, 2013).

Gastronomy education in Turkey began in 1980, with associate degree and afterwards in 2000 with undergraduate education, and today this number has reached thirty departments in Turkey. However, there are still some limitations in finding professional and trained teaching staff to provide gastronomy and culinary arts education.

On the other hand, food and beverage industry needs professional employees to work in the hotels, restaurants, etc. Thus, the numbers of graduates in this field are very important for this industry, however this number is still quite low in Turkey (Sarioglan, 2014). Yet, the number of universities that start to consider gastronomy and culinary arts as the major of study is gradually increasing. Northern Cyprus universities also started to consider this issue, Eastern Mediterranean University as one of the largest universities in the island has focused on this field, by starting associate and Bachelor's degrees. Despite the gradually increasing number of students in this major, still the number of graduates has not reached the desired number to fulfill the need of food and beverages industry. Thus this study aims to evaluate the reasons behind students' choices of gastronomy and culinary arts as their future career profession. Moreover, this research expects to find out the underlying motives that might be of help to increase the number of prospective students in this major. This study will follow some methodological steps. The data for this study will be collected from the first and second year students of gastronomy and culinary arts major in Eastern Mediterranean University located in Northern Cyprus, as one of the three universities with highest number of students in this field. Moreover, the study aims to make comparisons between two different years; in order to find out if the reasons behind the choice of this major has changed.

The research team expects to collect approximate number of one hundred and fifty questionnaires

from students studying in first and second year of gastronomy and culinary arts, following the belief that student's tend to decide on their profession during the first two years of university (Dalci et al., 2013). The data collection process will be carried out in January 2017. The students will fill out questionnaires with items related to their demographic background followed by items related to the points that influence students' choice of gastronomy and culinary arts as their future profession replicated from various sources in the literature (Dalci et al., 2013). The findings from this research could be of great help for university staff as well as food and beverage industry to put more effort on promoting the positive aspects of education in this major, and trying to fade the traditional view that experience is more important than education in this field.

Keywords: Gastronomy and Culinary Arts, Education, Eastern Mediterranean University, Northern Cyprus.

References

- Brown, J. (2013). "A Brief History of Culinary Arts Education in America", *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 17(4): 47-54.
- Dalci, I., Arasli, H., Turner, M., & Baradarani, S. (2013). "Factors that influence Iranian students' decision to choose accounting major", *Journal of Accounting in Emerging Economies* 3(2): 145-163.
- Sarioglan, M. (2014). "Expectations of Employee in Food & Beverage Firm and Gastronomy Education (Case of Turkey)", *European Journal of Research on Education*, 2 (Special Issue 6), 198-202.

MURDER AND RELATED OFFENCES: THE DILEMMA AMONG TOURISTS IN PARADISE-TOURIST DESTINATIONS: THE MAURITIAN NEW PHENOMENON CASE STUDY

Associate Professor (Dr.Dr.) [Rajendra Parsad GUNPUTH](#), Faculty of Law & Management, Univ.
of Mauritius, rpgunput@uom.ac.mu

Mr [Sameerchand PUDARUTH](#), Faculty of Ocean Studies, Univ. of Mauritius,
sameerchand.pudaruth@gmail.com, s.pudaruth@uom.ac.mu

Abstract

In an empirical research, this paper is focused on to what extent tourists suffer from criminal offences such as, *inter alia*, rape, murder, swindling, embezzlement or involuntary homicide in Mauritius. Indeed, since a couple of years now, with more than two millions of people coming from abroad to visit or work on the small island of Mauritius tourists have been raped and/or murdered and some have been arrested because they were under medication, the medicine they took were considered as prohibited drugs in Mauritius whereas they are legal and perfectly lawful medicines abroad. This is the other side of the picture. Therefore, this research paper enables us to understand to what extent criminal offences have an impact on the tourism sector on the small island developing State like Mauritius. Or is there any zero impact? Quite often most tourists overlook this sensitive issue, which is also very often considered indeed as more or less taboo, as people avoid to talk on this pertinent issue probably because Mauritius is considered as a paradise-tourist destination where it is safe to live and to travel and where most hotels, irrespective they are five stars hotels or not, guarantee security, CCTV and afford all types of logistics to prevent crime on their premises. Nevertheless, despite an abundant literature on this issue there are still some unsolved legal issues on this phenomenon. Is there any government policy apart from legislations which are most often inspired from English legislations with a Criminal Code of French origin to protect both tourists and the local population against the invasion of drugs for instance? Following a literature review on the subject-matter based on cited authors, the authors would bring a contribution by raising some hypothesis coupled with primary and secondary data to gather relevant facts and findings on this new phenomenon among tourists but there is a dilemma: notwithstanding that they have to leave the country, because either their visa have expired or failed to be renewed in time, despite they are

prosecuted, and/or where suspects are very often left unpunished in the absence of witnesses before our local courts. Relying on important precedent cases which have been dealt before our courts on this new phenomenon, the authors tried to solve this dilemma which is becoming more and more common among tourists on the island. A research questionnaire (500) has been distributed online and administered among students, academics, police officers and tourists who have been selected to build on the survey. What shall come out of this original study shall definitely contribute to combat crime promoting the vision the Mauritian government has to both tourists and the local inhabitants for all of us to live in a safe, sane and welfare society.

Key words: Tourism, murder, tourism sector

SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF PLACE ATTACHMENT AT A NIGERIAN CULTURAL FESTIVAL

[Kayode Aleshinloye](#), Texas A&M University, USA

[Kyle Woosnam](#), University of Georgia, USA

[Manuel Ribeiro](#), Middlesex University, United Kingdom

[Jingxian Jiang](#), Frostburg State University, USA

[Emrullah Erul](#), Texas A&M University, USA

Cultural festivals not only allow residents the opportunity to showcase their local traditions, customs, and beliefs, they also serve as educational opportunities for tourists to learn about unique cultures and develop cross-cultural understanding, each of which potentially aid in fostering a level of attachment within each group. While the literature focusing on ‘place’ within festival contexts is growing (see Derrett, 2003; McClinchey & Carmichael, 2010), few works consider residents and tourists collectively and furthermore, how relationships factor into forging an attachment to place. With that said, it is unclear as to whether residents’ and tourists’ level of place attachment (PA) at a festival is uniquely different and if social aspects of the relationship between members of each group can serve to explain a significant degree of place attachment. Considering the Osun Osogbo Cultural Festival within the Osun Osogbo Sacred Grove (a UNESCO World Heritage Site), data were collected on-site from festival visitors ($n_{\text{residents}} = 469$; $n_{\text{tourists}} = 461$). MANOVA results revealed significant differences in the items from the Place Attachment Scale (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Confirmatory factor analyses from each sample revealed excellent model fit and psychometric properties, resulting in two distinct PA factors: *place identity* (PI) and *place dependence* (PD). Frequency of interaction and the degree of closeness (measured through a modified version of the ‘Inclusion of other in self Scale’) predicted PI and PD in each sample, with the two independent variables explaining higher degrees of variance in the attachment factors among residents (e.g., 37% and 34% versus 24% and 16% for tourists). Implications and limitations/future research opportunities will be discussed.

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF JOB CRAFTING AMONG HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Georgiana Karadas Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North
Cyprus Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North
Cyprus Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Job crafting which refers to “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries in their work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 179) enables employees to redesign their jobs. Not surprisingly, jobs are not designed only by managers according to the organizational requirements but are also redesigned by employees who are expected to fulfill the requirements of their jobs (Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016). As stated by Bakker (2010), employees who craft their jobs “... are about changing the job in order to experience enhanced meaning of it” (p. 239).

According to Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012), increasing structural job resources, decreasing hindering job demands, increasing social job resources, and increasing challenging job demands are the indicators of job crafting. Understanding job crafting in terms of job demands and job resources enables employees to capture many aspects of their jobs which they may want to change (Tims et al., 2012). Customer-contact employees have frequent interactions with customers and spend most of their time serving customers (Karatepe, 2013). They also experience elevated levels of challenging job demands at work. Studies demonstrate that challenge stressors or challenging job demands positively influence customer-contact employees’ work engagement, their in-role performance, and creativity (Hon, Chan, & Lu, 2013; Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014). Considering these findings and the information given above, our study proposes that customer-contact employees are more likely to seek challenges, especially when they think their supervisors underemphasize their potential for success at work. Such employees are also more likely to seek assistance and feedback when needed (social resources) and enhance the work environment by asking for training and/or empowerment (structural resources) (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012). Consistent with the work of Bakker et al. (2012), we exclude decreasing hindering job demands from the conceptualization of our study due to the fact that it includes a passive adaptation to the challenging work situation or service encounters.

Despite the critical role of job crafting, very little is known about the factors influencing job crafting and its outcomes (Cheng, Chen, Teng, & Yen, 2016; Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017; Niessen et al., 2016; Vogt, Hakanen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2016). Recognizing the void

in the extant knowledge base, our study investigates the antecedents and consequences of job crafting among hotel employees. Specifically, our study aims to examine: (a) the impact of work social support on job crafting, absence intentions, in-role performance, and service recovery performance; (b) the influence of job crafting on absence intentions, in-role performance, and service recovery performance; and (c) job crafting as a partial mediator in the aforesaid relationships. Work social support is represented by coworker and supervisor support (e.g., Karatepe & Olugbade, 2017). Service recovery performance is defined as "...frontline service employees' perceptions of their own abilities and actions to resolve a service failure to the satisfaction of the customer" (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003, p. 274), while in-role performance refers to the successful completion of a number of tasks prescribed in job descriptions (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007). Displaying intentions to be absent from work is an undesirable outcome that influences employee retention deleteriously (cf. Morrow, McElroy, Lacznia, & Fenton, 1999). Data were collected from 282 customer-contact employees with a time lag of two weeks and their immediate supervisors in Romania.

The results from structural equation modeling reveal that coworker and supervisor support are significant indicators of work social support, while increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources, and increasing challenging demands are significant indicators of job crafting. As expected, work social support exerts a significant positive influence on job crafting, while it mitigates customer-contact employees' absence intentions and fosters their in-role and service recovery performances. The results demonstrate that job crafting alleviates absence intentions, while it activates both in-role and service recovery performances.

The results of the Sobel test also illustrate that job crafting is a partial mediator of the influence of work social support on absence intentions, in-role performance, and service recovery performance. Broadly speaking, work social support influences the abovementioned outcomes directly and indirectly through job crafting.

Key Words: absence intentions; hotel employees; in-role performance; job crafting; service recovery performance; work social support

REFERENCES

- Babakus, E., Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(3), 272-286.
- Bakker, A. B. (2010). Engagement and "job crafting": Engaged employees create their own great

- place to work. In S. L. Albrecht (Ed.), *Handbook of employee engagement: Perspectives, issues, research and practice* (pp. 229-244). Glos., UK: Edward Elgar.
- Bakker, A. B., Tims, M., & Derks, D. (2012). Proactive personality and job performance: The role of job crafting and work engagement. *Human Relations*, 65(10), 1359-1378.
- Chen, C-Y., Yen, C-H., & Tsai, F. C. (2014). Job crafting and job engagement: The mediating role of person-job fit. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 37(February), 21-28.
- Cheng, J-C., Chen, C-Y., Teng, H-Y., & Yen, C-H. (2016). Tour leaders' job crafting and job outcomes: The moderating role of perceived organizational support. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 20(October), 19-29.
- Hon, A. H. Y., Chan, W. W. H., & Lu, L. (2013). Overcoming work-related stress and promoting employee creativity in hotel industry: The role of task feedback from supervisor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(2), 416-424.
- Karatepe, O. M. (2013). Perceptions of organizational politics and hotel employee outcomes: The mediating role of work engagement. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(1), 82-104.
- Karatepe, O. M., Beirami, E., Bouzari, M., & Safavi, H. P. (2014). Does work engagement mediate the effects of challenge stressors on job outcomes? Evidence from the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36(1), 14-22.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Eslamlou, A. (2017). Outcomes of job crafting among flight attendants. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 62(July), 34-43. Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2017). The effects of work social support and career adaptability on career satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 23(3), 337-355.
- Morrow, P. C., McElroy, J. C., Lacznia, K. S., & Fenton, J. B. (1999). Using absenteeism and performance to predict employee turnover: Early detection through company records. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 55(3), 358-374.
- Netemeyer, R. G., & Maxham, J. G. (2007). Employee versus supervisor ratings of performance in the retail customer service sector: Differences in predictive validity for customer outcomes. *Journal of Retailing*, 83(1), 131-145.
- Niessen, C., Weseler, D., & Kostova, P. (2016). When and why do individuals craft their jobs? The role of individual motivation and work characteristics for job crafting. *Human Relations*, 69(6), 1287-1313.
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012). Development and validation of the job crafting scale.

Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80(1), 173-186.

Vogt, K., Hakanen, J. J., Brauchli, R., Jenny, G. J., & Bauer, G. F. (2016). The consequences of job crafting: A three-wave study. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 25(3), 353-362.

Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 179-201.

TOURIST ATTITUDES TOWARDS PAMUKKALE DESTINATION

Assoc. Prof. Dr. [Serkan Bertan](#)

Pamukkale University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Tourism Management,

serkanbertan@yahoo.com

Assist. Prof. Dr. [Serap Alkaya](#)

Pamukkale University, Tourism Faculty, Department of Tourism Management,

serkanbertan@yahoo.com

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

One of the most important factors considered in destination choice is destination image (Hanlan & Kelly, 2005: 163; Chen & Kerstetter, 1999: 256). Destinations with a strong image are being noticed more easily compared to their competition and they effect the process of decision-making through their images (Bigne et al., 2001; Hunt, 1975; Mayo, 1973, Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Today, among the intense competition, necessary importance should be given to image-making which plays a critical role in the process of choosing destination (Mayo, 1975: 15; Ulama, 2015: 232). Having an identity is of utmost importance in terms of image in the creation of known, preferred destinations as well as their branding (Ceylan, 2011: 90).

This study analyzes whether tourists' ages, their use of thermal services and people who accompany them in their travel have an impact on their attitudes towards Pamukkale destination. Data collected through questionnaires have been, first of all, analyzed according to the frequency distribution of demographical data. Later, criteria related to participants' attitude towards destination image have been subjected to t test and oneway analysis of variance in order to study the impact of age, accompanying people and use of thermal services. In case result of variance analysis was significant, Scheffe test has been applied. Questionnaire consisted of two sections. First section consisted of questions related to demographical characteristics of tourists while the second section consisted of statements of attitudes related with the destination image on the 5-point Likert scale.

Significant differences were found when attitudes were studied according to participants' use of thermal services, their ages and people accompanying them in their travel. Tourists who made use of thermal services had the intention of coming back again since they found shopping opportunities and

guidance adequate. Tourists who came with their spouses thought shopping opportunities and museums were adequate in contrast to the ones who came with their spouses and children; tourists who came with their spouses or friends thought more positively about the adequacy of food and beverages services compared to the ones who came alone. The ones who came with their spouses had a more positive attitude about recommending Pamukkale to their friends compared to the ones who came alone.

In this study, criteria related to participants' attitude towards destination have been subjected to t test and one-way analysis of variance in order to study the impact of age, accompanying people and use of thermal services. Significant differences were found when attitudes were studied according to participants' use of thermal services, their ages and people accompanying them in their travel. Majority of the participants of the questionnaire consisted of people who were 30 years old and younger who came with their friends and whose use of thermal services were equally proportional whether they did or not. When their attitudes were analyzed according to their use of thermal services, significant differences were found. The ones who made use of thermal services found shopping opportunities and guidance adequate and had the intention of revisiting.

Participants who were 51 years old and older found shopping opportunities adequate compared to the ones who were 31 and younger, they found entertainment opportunities adequate compared to the ones in the age group of 31-40, they found museums adequate compared to the ones who were 50 years old and younger. Participants who were older than the age of 51 were more willing to revisit the destination compared to the ones who were younger than 30 years old. Participants who were 30 years old and younger found accommodation prices high compared to the ones in the age group of 31-50, they found accommodation facilities adequate compared to the ones in the age group of 31-40 as well as the ones who were 51 years old and older, they thought accommodation facilities were more hygienic and food and beverage facilities were adequate compared to the ones in the age group of 31-40. Participants who were in the age group of 31-40 found sportive activities adequate compared to the participants who were 30 years old and younger, they thought accommodation and food and beverage facilities were adequate compared to the ones who were 51 years old and older. The ones in the age group of 41-50 were more satisfied with thermal services compared to the ones who were 30 years old and younger and the ones who were 51 years old and older. Participants who were older than the age of 41 were more positive in terms of giving recommendations to their friends compared to the ones who were younger than 30 years old.

Participants who were 51 years old and older found shopping opportunities adequate compared to the ones who were 31 and younger, they found entertainment opportunities adequate compared to the

ones in the age group of 31-40, they found museums adequate compared to the ones who were 50 years old and younger and they were more willing to revisit the destination compared to the participants who were under the age of 30. Participants who were 30 years old and younger found accommodation prices high compared to the ones in the age group of 31-50, they found accommodation facilities adequate compared to the ones in the age group of 31-40 as well as the ones who were 51 years old and older, they thought accommodation facilities were more hygienic and food and beverage facilities were adequate compared to the ones in the age group of 31-40. Participants who were in the age group of 31-40 found sportive activities adequate compared to the participants who were 30 years old and younger, they thought accommodation facilities were adequate compared to the ones who were 51 years old and older, they thought food and beverage facilities were adequate compared to the ones who were 51 years old and older. The ones in the age group of 41-50 were more satisfied with thermal services compared to the ones who were younger than 30 and older than 51, the ones who were 41 years old and older were more positive in recommending to their friends compared to the participants who were younger than 30 years old.

Tourists who came with their spouses thought shopping opportunities and museums were adequate in contrast to the ones who came with their spouses and children; tourists who came with their spouses or friends thought more positively about the adequacy of food and beverages services compared to the ones who came alone. The ones who came with their spouses had a more positive attitude about recommending the destination to their friends compared to the ones who came alone.

Keywords: Tourist attitudes, destination, Pamukkale.

SUCCESSFUL URBAN PLACES AND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM; CASE OF TEHRAN'S BAZAAR

[Mahasti Shotorbani Payam](#), Cyprus International University/Architecture Department Nicosia,
North Cyprus

[Mokhtarshahi Sani Rafooneh](#), Eastern Mediterranean University/Architecture Department
Famagusta, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Sustainable tourism generally represents a set of principles and management methods to develop tourism in such a way to protect environmental resources for future use. Among those protected resources in sustainable tourism, commonly more attention has been given to natural resources rather than cultural features.

As an industry, tourism is very sensitive. Statistics can fall down by any small incident. Therefore, sustainability is essential for tourism to keep the investment beneficial and assure public for a growing economy and their occupation. Local authorities and public, mostly have a positive view towards tourism development and looking for sustainability as an assurance for a stable industry in their cities. Therefore, all the issues about hosting tourists are in concern of public and authorities even in details.

Practically the real hosts of tourists in cities are urban places. These places make a face to face contact with tourist and give them the real feeling of the destination which can be called "sense of place". As it mentioned, this feeling is fundamental for the local authority and public, because it may encourage tourists to come back again or suggest the destination to their friends and bring more tourists. And physical feature of a place is only one side of this sense of place. There are other sides which are involving. Cultural features and activities also showing another sides of the sense of place, and in some ways they can change the physical settings of an urban place. Therefore, the urban places should analyze carefully for the sake of tourism.

Recently, public attention towards Iran has more positive views and as a result, the number of tourist's arrival has been increased enormously. Tehran the capital of Iran (center of administration) and the center of trades in country has a big share of hosting tourists. Bazaar of Tehran which can be called as

symbol of trade in all country is the first place of this city to visit. Therefore, the present study would argue the importance of cultural features including the successful places in historical context to support sustainable tourism. This study by focusing on Bazaar of Tehran, discusses that successful places are not only critically important for citizens; their role could be even more significant in sustaining cultural identity and attracting tourists to specific urban places. The findings of this research indicate that the two factors of “Pedestrian activity” and “Street life” are more important for sustainable tourism development in Bazaar of Tehran.

Key Words: sustainable tourism, place identity, successful places, Bazaar, Tehran

DESIGNING A MODEL FOR SUSTAINABLE SMALL-SCALE HOTEL: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS

Soad Abokhamis Mousavi
Mousavisoad@gmail.com , soad.mousavi@cc.emu.edu.tr

Eastern Mediterranean University, Department of Architecture

ABSTRACT

In today's world, hotels have got a very critical role in developing tourism industry. Hotels are one of the main factors in the progress of tourism industry and they play important role in attracting tourists and contribute to their prosperity. Therefore, the focus of the present research study is on sustainable architecture design of small-scale hotels considering the fact that North Cyprus is a small Island with problems such as limit of natural resources and economic and it's believed that most of hotels of North Cyprus multiply these problems due to their large and unsustainable architecture design. In addition, this research believed that sustainable hotels not only have an important role in improving the sustainable tourism in North Cyprus but will protect the environment, improve the economics of the local peoples, create new opportunity, increase the local employment and...etc. Thus, this paper aims design a model for sustainable small-scale hotel in North Cyprus Island according to dimension of sustainability. Consequently, in this study, we first discuss the problems of Island in terms of environmental, economic and social resources, and focusing on dimensions of sustainable tourism with be analyzed and finally the most suitable hotel type for this Island will be introduced. The study is backwards end up with different types of gathering information methods to get the best results possible, which it is based on questionnaires, conducting interviews, literature reviews, surveys.

Keyword: sustainable development, sustainable design, sustainable tourism, North Cyprus.

ONLINE REVIEWS' EFFECTS ON YOUNG CONSUMERS' BUYING BEHAVIOR

Emel Yarimoglu Kursunluoglu , Yigit Sebahattin Bozkurt and Tugrul Gunay
Yasar University, Turkey

Abstract

Today, with the rapid development in information technologies, consumers have become more engaged with the online world. Raising various choices in product and service lead customers to search all channels for seeking the information, and the importance of e-word of mouth activities have increased. Consumers' suggestions and comments provide to be able to search profound information about product and service. One of the most important information sources is social media channels. Particularly, consumers' online reviews in social media attract potential customers who intend to buy the same product or service. In this study, it was focused on analyzing consumers' e-word of mouth activities in social media in tourism industry. Besides social media channels, some websites such as TripAdvisor and Booking were included to the research since they have detailed information and reviews about hotels. The aim of the study was to measure the effects of e-word of mouth activities on young consumers' buying behavior. The field study was conducted with 150 university students with convenience sampling. Data was analyzed via regression and Anova analyses. Findings were shown, managerial implications for hotel industry were interpreted, and limitations and further research suggestions were advised.

Keywords: hotels, social media, online customer reviews

THE RELATION BETWEEN TOURISM GROWTH AND GOVERNMENT REVENUE IN BANGLADESH: A BOUND TEST APPROACH

Sakib B. Amin, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor Department of
Economics North South University
Dhaka, Bangladesh

Ms. Nazre Hafiz

BS in Economics Department of
Economics North South University
Dhaka, Bangladesh

Abstract: Many types of taxes are included in tourism-related products and tourism activities increase the tax revenue in general. The revenue earned from tourism industry can be spent to build better infrastructure for the economy or better academic, training and health institutions. All these will eventually raise the standard of living of people and lead to economic development of any country like Bangladesh. The revenue earned from the tourism industry can also be spent on the welfare of the economy. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study addressing this issue for Bangladesh economy. Thus, this paper investigates the relationship between tourism growth and government revenue in Bangladesh economy. The annual data series over the period 1980-2014 has been used in this paper. We performed the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) test to check if the variables are stationary, either at their level or at first differences. All the variables were found to be stationary at first difference. Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (ARDL) has been used in this study to check if the concerned variables are cointegrated. Our findings reveal that growth of tourist arrivals and government revenue are cointegrated in different lags. Finally, we applied the Granger causality test and found that tourist arrivals can affect the government revenue in the long run. Therefore, by promoting tourism industry, Bangladesh can earn significant amount of revenues from taxes in future which can be added up to the national income.

EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF TOURIST COMPLAINING CONSTRAINTS ON JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND LOYALTY INTENTIONS OF CHINESE TOURISTS IN ISTANBUL, TURKEY

Erdogan Ekiz

Faculty of Tourism, King Abdulaziz University Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Ali Bavik

Tourism College, Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau, SAR

Fevzi Okumus

Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida, Florida, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Not many companies like to hear bad news, especially if it is in the form of complaints. However, to keep up with ever-increasing competition and customer empowerment, companies need to hear about their mistakes from unhappy customers. Whether by online or offline negative word of mouth (WOM), or simply by walking away and never coming back, customers will find a way to express their dissatisfaction (Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler, 2006) but not always to the failed service providers themselves. That is why companies do not hear from the majority of their dissatisfied customers. In order to rectify the causes of dissatisfaction, it is very important for managers of service organizations to know the underlying factors/reasons why customers do not voice their complaints. In particular, tourism and hospitality industries are more susceptible due to their unique features (Josiam, Kinley, & Kim, 2005). Although quite a number of studies consider tourist complaining and general consumer complaining to be the same, Ekiz, Au and Hsu (2012) proposed a new measurement scale which was based on Ekiz's (2011) doctoral research. He argued that the unique features of tourism call for a tailor-made tourist complaint constraints - TCC - scale (Ekiz,

and recommended replication of the TCC scale in other settings to test its robustness. Therefore, this study aims to assess the effects of TCC on perceptions of justice ('justice perceptions' in the model) and commitment to loyalty ('loyalty intention') of Chinese tourists in Istanbul, Turkey. To do so, this paper replicates Ekiz, Au and Hsu's (2012) methodology in general and tourist complaining constraints (TCC) scale in particular. In this methodology, "limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood" (Ekiz, 2011, p. 125) are used as independent variables. Justice perceptions (interactional, procedural and distributive) from the

recovery and loyalty to the organization were interviewing and dependent variables respectively.

In order to test this model, 700 questionnaires were printed in Mandarin and distributed in Istanbul's historic tourist attractions through convenience sampling between June and August 2015. Respondents were requested to provide answers in a self-administrative manner. 597 questionnaires were found complete, giving a response rate of 85.3 percent. The collected data were subjected to comprehensive analyses following the guidelines of Churchill (1979), Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) and Babbie (2004). The Structural Equation Modelling analyses indicated that the proposed seven-factor theoretical model fitted the data equitably well.

Path analysis suggested that the data supported the majority of the relationships that had been hypothesized. More specifically, 'limited communication' on 'interactional justice', and 'unfamiliarity' on 'procedural and distributive justice' dimensions were found to be the most significant constraints. These results are consistent with Ekiz's (2011) findings, 'distributive justice' was found to have the strongest effect on 'loyalty'.

This study has several managerial and theoretical implications. For instance, given the increasing importance of Chinese tourists to the economy, tourism officials in Turkey (and in similar destinations) need to understand Chinese tourists' behavior if they are to increase their share of the tourism market (Ekiz, Au, & Hsu, 2012). On the practical side, understanding tourist complaint constraints has several implications. Given that limited communication is a barrier, tourism officials and managers should pay extra attention to hiring people who can speak Chinese and/or provide Chinese language education. This will improve the communication skills of their frontline employees, which in turn will motivate Chinese tourists to voice their complaints. Tourism officials should also provide detailed information to familiarize Chinese tourists with relevant procedures. If they know how and where to voice their dissatisfaction, this will encourage them to do so. Managers cannot change the amount of time their guests have allocated for their holiday, but they can and should find ways to handle complaints efficiently within the limited time available. In this respect, managers may consider extending their guest relations services to the Internet, allowing complaints to be made after the holiday is over, so that the effects of these constraints can be lessened. Moreover, they should inform their guests that their hotel has a well-functioning and efficient complaint-handling system. This message would motivate guests to register complaints that otherwise would go unvoiced.

The findings of both the literature review and primary data collection suggest that the involvement levels of consumers are related to their responses. In other words, whether they voice their complaint or just walk away depends on how involved they feel. Managers should therefore focus on increasing guests' involvement in their holidays by offering them more interaction and continuous feedback. For

instance, Saarinen (2003) stressed that large amounts of public money are being spent in Finland to involve guests in service design as well as in service recovery. Finally, managers should be more proactive in identifying potential problems even when their guests are in a holiday mood and do not feel like raising their voices: silent guests are not always satisfied guests. Managers should therefore try to make complaining as convenient as possible to avoid ruining guests' holiday moods. All in all, knowing about these constraints will help managers minimize the effect of service failures and modify their way their companies' procedures for handling complaints, in ways that do not deter guests from voicing their grievances. Consistent with this, Hjalager et al. (2008) stressed that innovation systems in Nordic countries should also include research on tourist behavior, and complaint behavior in particular, if they are to be successful. Once companies can lessen the constraints, they will be one step closer to remedying the problem and thus retaining their guests, avoiding negative WOM and reducing customer turnover (Kotler et al., 2002; Tax et al., 1998).

As for the theoretical implications, first and most importantly, this paper argues that tourist complaining is different from overall customer complaining (Ekiz & Au, 2009; Yagi & Pearce, 2007). Second, there has been no scale available to measure TCC previously, so the newly developed TCC scale has filled this gap, providing a tailor-made and industry-specific measurement scale for future use.

A number of limitations should be borne in mind when interpreting this study. First, it focused only on developing the TCC scale and did not consider any possible causal relationships between the dimensions of TCC and other constructs. Therefore, including constructs such as organizational responses (Gursoy et al., 2007), justice perceptions (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005), overall satisfaction (Zeithaml et al., 2006), repurchase intention (Hirschman, 1970), and WOM intention (Swanson & Kelly, 2001) would likely provide further insight. The second limitation is the use of convenience sampling. The use of probabilistic sampling would give more confidence in being able to generalize the results. Finally, it would be useful to test the extent to which the TCC scale is generalizable by conducting similar studies in other contexts and with larger samples.

Key Words: Tourist Complaining Constraints, Justice Perceptions, Loyalty intention, Chinese Tourists, SEM, Turkey.

REFERENCES

- Ekiz, H. E. (2011). Effects of Tourist Complaining Constraints on Justice Perceptions and Loyalty: Using Culture and Magnitude as Moderators. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, *The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, School of Hotel and Tourism Management*, Hong Kong.
- Ekiz, H. E., & Au, N. (2011). Comparing Chinese and American attitude towards complaining. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. 23(3), 327-343.
- Ekiz, H. E., Au, N. & Hsu, C. H. C. (2012). Development of a tourist complaining constraints (TCC) measurement scale. *Scandinavian Journal Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(4), 373-399.
- Gursoy, D., Ekiz, H. E. & Chi, C. G. (2007). Impacts of organizational responses on complainants' justice perceptions and post-purchase behaviors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, 8(1), 1-25.

THE ROLES OF KNOWLEDGE AND TRANSPARENCY IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORRUPTION AND RESIDENTS' TRUST ON MEGA-EVENTS

ORGANISING COMMITTEE

Manuel Alector RIBEIRO

Department of Marketing Branding and Tourism, Business School

Middlesex University, London, UK

E-mail: M.Ribeiro@mdx.ac.uk

Robin NUNKOO

University of Mauritius, Faculty of Law and Management

University of Mauritius, Reduit, Mauritius

E-mail: r.nunkoo@uom.ac.mu

Dogan GURSOY

Taco Bell Distinguished Professor

Washington State University, College of Business School of Hospitality Business Management

Pullman, USA

E-mail: dgursoy@wsu.edu And

Alexandre PANOSSO NETTO

Associate Professor, University of Sao Paulo

School of Arts Science and Humanity, Sao Paulo, Brazil

E-mail: panosso@usp.br

ABSTRACT

Reducing corruption and improving citizen trust are important aims to local organising committee and government, yet the link between these two policy aims has rarely been explored in the context of sporting mega-events organisations. This article reports a study into the roles played by knowledge and transparency in the relationship between governmental corruption and residents trust in organising committee and trust in government with sporting mega-event organisation. A questionnaire was designed to collect data from 3786 Brazilian residents in twelve cities that hosted at least one game during the 2014 FIFA CUP to evaluate the residents' roles of knowledge and transparency in the relationship between corruption and trust in government and their influence in trust in the organising committee. The questionnaire was applied three months after the games.

Prior to assessing the relationship among the Knowledge, Corruption, Transparency and Trust in Government and Trust in Organizing committee, a measurement model was formulated using confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS. The results of CFA showed a good model fit and both convergent and discriminant validity were achieved. Structural equation modelling was developed to predict residents' roles of knowledge and transparency in the relationship with trust in government and trust in the organising committee. The results indicated that there is a direct positive relationship among residents' level of knowledge about mega-events, transparency and both trust in government and organising committee and a significant and negative relationship between knowledge and corruption was found. The direct relationship between transparency and corruption was found to be significant and negative; the relationship between transparency and both trust in government and trust in organising committee were found to be significant and positive. Also, the research identified a negative direct relationship between corruption and trust in government. The relationship between corruption and trust in organising committee was insignificant.

Keywords: Knowledge, transparency, corruption, trust in government, trust in organising committee, mega-events.

THE EFFECT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON FLIGHT ATTENDANTS’ SATISFACTION OUTCOMES: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF TRUST

Shiva Ilkhanizadeh

Cyprus International University School of Tourism and Hotel Management Lefkosa, North Cyprus
Via Mersin 10, TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

In today’s competitive aviation industry, one of the key challenges facing companies is retention of talented flight attendants. Servant leadership (SL) which focuses on the follower rather than the firm may help managers retain such employees (cf. Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016). As stated by Greenleaf (1977), “The servant leader is servant first. It begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead” (p. 27). SL is different from other leadership styles such as transformational leadership. For example, transformational leaders inspire their followers to enhance their performance and therefore accomplish organizational objectives for the sake of the organization, while servant leaders focus more on their followers and foster their well-being (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leaders also activate their followers’ functioning for the realization of a shared organizational mission (Van Dierendonck, 2011). According to a recent study, SL has been reported to work via follower need satisfaction, while transformational leadership has been shown to work through leadership effectiveness (Van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). More recently, Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu’s (2016) meta-analytic study has reported that SL appears to explain a number of outcomes better than authentic and ethical leadership styles do.

Research indicates that SL creates trust in organization, bolsters personal resources, fosters work engagement, and results in positive outcomes such as customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior, service-sales ambidexterity, reduced lateness attitude, and intention to remain with the organization (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017; Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016; Wu, Tse, Fu, Kwan, & Liu, 2013). Despite this realization, there is still a need for empirical research concerning the consequences of SL among service employees (e.g., flight attendants) (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017; Donia, Raja, Panaccio, & Wang, 2016; Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016). Empirical research about the underlying process through which SL influences employees’ attitudinal and/or behavioral outcomes is also scarce (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017; Ling, Lin, & Wu, 2015; Zou, Tian, & Liu, 2015). Accordingly, our study uses trust in organization as a mediator because in an environment where there is SL, employees

develop trust in organization (cf. Wu et al., 2013; Zou et al., 2015). Our study uses job satisfaction (JS), career satisfaction (CS), and life satisfaction (LS) due to the dearth of evidence about the factors affecting these satisfaction outcomes simultaneously (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2013). LS refers to “an affective state resulting from one’s evaluation of his or her life in general” (Karatepe & Baddar, 2006, p. 1018), while CS is related to employees’ satisfaction with different aspects of the progress they have made in their career in the current organization (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). JS refers to “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Our study utilizes data gathered from flight attendants because flight attendants influence the quality of services they provide and play a crucial role in achieving passenger satisfaction (Yeh, 2014).

Based on the above discussion, our study investigates trust in organization as a mediator of the influence of SL on JS, CS, and LS. Specifically, our study aims to examine: (a) the relationship of SL with trust in organization, JS, and CS; (b) the influence of trust in organization on JS, CS, and LS; (c) the impacts of JS and CS on LS; (d) trust in organization as a mediator of the effect of SL on the aforesaid satisfaction outcomes; and (e) JS and CS as mediators of the effects of SL and trust in organization on LS. Data obtained from 299 flight attendants via a time-lagged survey design in a major low-cost airline company in Turkey were used to assess the aforesaid relationships.

The structural equation modeling results indicate that SL exerts a strong positive influence on flight attendants’ perceptions of trust in organization. The empirical data support the positive effect of SL on JS and CS. Furthermore, flight attendants’ perceptions of trust in organization foster their JS, CS, and LS. As expected, flight attendants who are satisfied with their job and career display higher LS.

The results of the Sobel test provide support for all mediating effects. Broadly speaking, trust in organization partially mediates the influence of SL on JS and CS, while it has a full mediating role in the association between SL and LS. The results further demonstrate that SL influences LS indirectly via JS and CS.

Key Words: flight attendants; low-cost airlines; satisfaction outcomes; servant leadership; trust in organization

REFERENCES

Bouzari, M., & Karatepe, O. M. (2017). Test of a mediation model of psychological capital among hotel salespeople. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(8).

- Donia, M., Raja, U., Panaccio, A., & Wang, Z. (2016). Servant leadership and employee outcomes: The moderating role of subordinates' motives. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2016.1149471>
- Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(1), 64-86.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership*. New York: Paulist Press.
- Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2016). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*. DOI: 10.1177/0149206316665461
- Karatepe, O. M., & Baddar, L. (2006). An empirical study of the selected consequences of frontline employees' work-family conflict and family-work conflict. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 1017-1028.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Karadas, G. (2015). Do psychological capital and work engagement foster frontline employees' satisfaction? A study in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), 1254-1278.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Talebzadeh, N. (2016). An empirical investigation of psychological capital among flight attendants. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 55(August), 193-202.
- Ling, Q., Lin, M., & Wu, X. (2015). The trickle-down effect of servant leadership on frontline employee service behaviors and performance: A multilevel study of Chinese hotels. *Tourism Management*, 52(February), 341-368.
- Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction?. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4(4), 309-336.
- Van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 37(4), 1228-1261.
- Van Dierendonck, D., Stam, D., Boersma, P., de Windt, N., & Alkema, J. (2014). Same difference? Exploring the differential mechanisms linking servant leadership and transformational leadership to follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(3), 544-562.
- Wu, L-Z., Tse, E. C-Y., Fu, P., Kwan, H. K., & Liu, J. (2013). The impact of servant leadership on hotel employees' "servant behavior". *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54(4), 383-395.
- Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Babakus, E. (2013). Correlates of nonwork and work satisfaction among hotel employees: Implications for managers. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and*

Management, 22(4), 375-406.

Yeh, Y-P. (2014). Exploring the impacts of employee advocacy on job satisfaction and organizational commitment: Case of Taiwanese airlines. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 36(April), 94-100.

Zou, W-C., Tian, Q., & Liu, J. (2015). Servant leadership, social exchange relationships, and follower's helping behavior: Positive reciprocity belief matters. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 57(October), 147-156.

COOPETITION TOURISM MODEL: EXPLORING THE POSSIBILITY FOR JAMAICA AND CUBA

Gaunette Sinclair Maragh
University of Technology, Jamaica

There is renewed relationship between the United States of America (USA) and Cuba after almost fifty-five years of non-diplomatic ties which involved commercial, economic and financial embargos. It is intended to encourage change in Cuba's social and political frameworks. It is also predicted to positively impact economic reform and transition in tourism by encouraging investments and marketing. Cuba is, therefore, responding to the opportunities presented by the US policy change by focusing on tourism development. Tourism in Cuba is not new. This destination is known for its white sandy beaches before the 1959 Revolution. A recent poll shows that 37 percent Americans are considering a visit to Cuba. The main travel motivation in Cuba are its culture and heritage offerings such as the capital Havana as an attraction, cigars, sipping of mojitos, the antique bars, classic cars and music; its tropical weather as well as health and medical tourism (Hamre, 2016).

There is a demand for increase flights, accommodation, food and beverage services and cruise shipping. In response, Cuba is welcoming foreign investments. The multinational Starwood Hotels and Resort has already invested in Cuba. In its tourism development plan, Cuba intends to increase its hotel room capacity to 108,000 rooms by the year 2030 (Cuba Business Report, 2016). Current hotel facilities are being renovated. Likewise, hotel services, and bed and breakfast facilities are being improved. There is improved accessibility to Cuba through the renovation of airports and increased flights to six (6) cities. Its marketing efforts are also increasing. The major concerns among Caribbean countries such as Jamaica which is one of the leading tourist destinations in the region, is that the USA may give bilateral preferential treatment to Cuba which is likely to impact the tourism economy (Caribbean Policy Research Institute / CAPRI, 2016).

Sinclair-Maragh (2016) proposed that a coopetition arrangement in tourism could be a useful strategy for both countries in collectively branding and marketing their tourism offerings. Coopetition is described as a recent phenomenon where cooperation and competition simultaneously take place (Levy, Loebbecke & Powell, 2003). This is based on the tenet of cosharing and on the premises that Jamaica has a renowned tourism model based on leisure, pleasure and recreation, and Cuba's tourism model is based on culture and heritage tourism. Both countries have distinct competitive tourism products which make their offerings unique. The co-opetition model is one where collaboration can be established between both countries regarding their tourism offerings despite them competing in

the global tourism market.

There is sparse enquiry regarding coopetition and so modeling the framework and managing it is a challenge (Levy et al., 2003). Hence, the purpose of this study is to critically analyze the concept of coopetition and empirically present its usefulness and practicality in creating a collaborative tourism model for Jamaica and Cuba whilst they simultaneously compete in the global market place. Data will be ascertained from the stakeholders in the tourism industry in both Jamaica and Cuba.

References

Caribbean Policy Research Institute / CAPRI, 2016. *The opening up of Cuba*.

Hamre, J. (2016). *Surge of Americans tests limits of Cuba's tourism industry*. Retrieved on October 6, 2016 from Retr<http://www.reuters.com/article/us-cuba-usa-tourism> idUSKCN0V40DP

Levy, M., Loebbecke, C., & Powell, P. (2003). SMEs, co-opetition and knowledge sharing: the role of information systems. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 12(1), 3-17.

Sinclair-Maragh, G. (2016). Co-opetition is the right policy choice for Jamaica with the opening up of Cuba-CAPRI. Loop News. Retrieved on November 2, 2016 from www.loopjamaica.com/content/coopetition-right-policy-choice-jamaica-openingcuba capri.

THE EFFECTS OF SELECTED ANTECEDENTS ON HOTEL CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEES' SERVICE-ORIENTED ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

Olusegun A. Olugbade

European University of Lefke School of Tourism and Hotel Management Lefke, North Cyprus Via
Mersin 10, TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

Service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are employees' discretionary behaviors that are beyond their formal role requirements. Loyalty, service delivery, and participation are the indicators of service-oriented OCBs (Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001). Loyalty service-oriented OCBs are associated with customer-contact employees' behaviors that influence the image and representation of the organization to the outsiders, while service delivery service-oriented OCBs highlight the crucial role of customer-contact employees in providing quality services to customers as well as meeting and/or exceeding customers' expectations (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017). Participation service-oriented OCBs emphasize customer-contact employees' behaviors such as taking initiatives, especially in communication that will improve service delivery by the organization, their coworkers, and themselves (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017). A service climate that provides work social support motivates employees to exhibit higher service-oriented OCBs (Tang & Tsaur, 2016). Delivering service quality and value as well as making customers have memorable experiences is heavily dependent on customer-contact employees' service-oriented OCBs. Therefore, ascertaining the factors that contribute to such employees' service-oriented OCBs is relevant and significant. However, empirical research about the factors influencing service-oriented OCBs in the current hospitality knowledge base is sparse (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2017; Choo, 2016; Nasurdin, Ahmad, & Tan, 2015; Tang & Tsaur, 2016).

In light of the above discussion, the purpose of this empirical study is to investigate the antecedents of service-oriented OCBs among hotel employees. The antecedents used in this study are coworker support, supervisor support, work engagement, and affective organizational commitment. Coworker and supervisor support represent work social support. They are important tools affecting employees' level of commitment to an organization (Limpanitgul, Boonchoo, & Photiyarach, 2014). Work engagement is defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Affective organizational commitment refers to the strength of emotional attachment to an

organization (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe & Avci, 2003). Data obtained from 287 customer-contact employees through a time-lagged survey design and their immediate supervisors in Nigeria were utilized to test the proposed relationships.

The structural equation modeling results demonstrate that both coworker and supervisor support activate customer-contact employees' work engagement. That is, the presence of work social support motivates employees to focus more on what they are responsible for. The results reveal that both coworker and supervisor support foster employees' affective organizational commitment, while only coworker support significantly and positively influences service-oriented OCBs. The results further illustrate that work engagement exerts a strong positive influence on both affective organizational commitment and service-oriented OCBs. Contrary to what has been hypothesized, the empirical data do not lend any credence to the direct influence of supervisor support on service-oriented OCBs. Surprisingly, affective organizational commitment has a negative influence on service-oriented OCBs. Such a finding does not support the conclusion that the relationship between the two constructs is straightforward (cf. Cetin, Gurbuz, & Sert, 2015). It appears that the availability of work social support motivates hotel employees to display extra-role performance. What is needed for meeting and/or exceeding customers' expectations is the presence of highly engaged employees who can take advantage of work social support.

The results of the Sobel test show that work engagement acts as a partial mediator of the influences of both coworker and supervisor support on affective organizational commitment. The empirical data support the propositions that work engagement is a partial mediator between coworker support and service-oriented OCBs, while it is a full mediator between supervisor support and service-oriented OCBs. Inconsistent with the study predictions, affective organizational commitment does not mediate the impacts of coworker support and supervisor support on service-oriented OCBs, while the indirect effect of work engagement on service-oriented OCBs through affective organizational commitment is negative.

Key Words: affective organizational commitment; hotel employees; service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors; work engagement; work social support

REFERENCES

- Babakus, E., Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). The effect of management commitment to service quality on employees' affective and performance outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(3), 272-286.
- Bettencourt, L. A., Gwinner, K. P., & Meuter, M. L. (2001). A comparison of attitude, personality,

- and knowledge predictors of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 29-41.
- Bouzari, M., & Karatepe, O. M. (2017). Test of a mediation model of psychological capital among hotel salespeople. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(8).
- Cetin, S., Gurbuz, S., & Sert, M. (2015). A meta analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior: Test of potential moderator variables. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 27(4), 281-303.
- Choo, L. S. (2016). A study of the role of work engagement in promoting service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in the Malaysian hotel sector. *Global Business and Organizational Excellence*, 35(4), 28-43.
- Limpanitgul, T., Boonchoo, P., & Photiyarach, S. (2014). Coworker support and organizational commitment: A comparative study of Thai employees working in Thai and American airlines. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 21(December), 100-107.
- Nasurdin, A. M., Ahmad, N. H., & Tan, C. L. (2015). Cultivating service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior among hotel employees: The instrumental roles of training and compensation. *Service Business*, 9(2), 343-360.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzales-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3(1), 71-92.
- Tang, Y-Y., & Tsaur, S-H. (2016). Supervisory support climate and service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior in hospitality: The role of positive group affective tone. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(10), 2331-2349.

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP BETWEEN THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF THE IMMIGRANT EMPLOYEES IN NORTH CYPRUS HOTEL INDUSTRY

Mehmet Necati Cizreliogullari

Eastern Mediterranean University, Faculty of Tourism Research Assistants in Computer Center
Gazimagusa/KKTC

Mehmet Veysi Babayiğit

Eastern Mediterranean University, English Language Teaching English Teacher at Ministry of
National Education in Turkey Gazimagusa/KKTC

ABSTRACT

The aim of the study is to seek the role of ethical leadership traits on the psychological capital and job satisfaction levels of the immigrant employees in North Cyprus hotel industry. The study is being shaped around social theory because there are many respondents from immigrant workers. The respondents for this study are the ones working in three, four and five stars hotels in North Cyprus. The study has been conducted within convenient literature. Then data collection instruments for the study are questionnaires and interviews which have been designed and used in accordance with aims, research questions and hypothesis of the study. The duration for data collection is four months. The study uses mixed type research; hence, there are both qualitative and quantitative results. The analysis of data has been processed by using Microsoft Excel software within IBM statics covering SPSS and AMOS. It has been concluded that the ethical leadership has acted a moderating role between job satisfaction and psychological capital because both quantitative results and quantitative results have pinpointed the fruitful side of ethical leadership, also almost all of respondents have been more eager to work under equal conditions brought by ethical leadership issues. This study seems a new era in the academic world as it is interesting and original and it is hoped that the study will give basements for multiple studies planned to be conducted in the future.

Keywords: Ethical Leadership, Psychological Capital, Job Satisfaction, Immigrant Workers.

EXPERIENCE AND REVISIT INTENTION IN AN ADVENTURE TOURISM CONTEXT

Fang Liu

University of Western Australia, Australia

Chaozhi Zhang

Sun Yat-Sen University, China

Abstract

In response to the growing interest of adventure tourism in China, the current study examines the influences of onsite adventure experience, attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control on tourists' revisit intentions towards a tourist destination. A total of 513 Chinese tourists were interviewed immediately after their adventure activities in Zhangjiajie, a well-known tourism destination in China. The results demonstrate that adventure experience is most influential on tourists' revisit intentions to the destination and its effect is stronger for females than for males. Attitude towards travelling is also significant in predicting the revisit intention. Contrary to our expectations, neither subjective norms nor perceived behavioral control helps predict tourists' revisit intentions to the destination. Findings of this study can help tourism marketers develop better understandings of adventure experience so more pinpointed adventure offerings can be designed and offered to tourists.

Key words: adventure tourism; adventure experience; revisit intention, Theory of Planned Behavior, China

THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL ON HOTEL CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEES' NONATTENDANCE INTENTIONS AND CREATIVE PERFORMANCE: TRUST AS A MEDIATOR

Anastasia Ozturk

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Business and Economics Department of Business
Administration Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Osman M. Karatepe

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

Psychological capital which refers to ‘who you are’ is a relatively emerging personality variable in positive organizational behavior (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). Psychological capital is characterized by “...(1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success” (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3). In short, self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism are the four indicators of psychological capital.

Trust refers to “...a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395). Trust in organization is a psychological attachment to an organization (Ng, 2015). Wang (2016) argues that the presence of organizational trust enables employees to deliver quality services with more creativity. However, a past meta-analytic study reports a correlation between trust in leadership and job performance, which is weak at best (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Another study demonstrates no significant association between organization in trust and organizational citizenship behaviors (Wong, Wong, & Ngo, 2012). These mixed findings highlight a need for additional research regarding the influence of trust in organization on employees’ performance outcomes.

Employees high on psychological capital develop trust in organization when they have favorable perceptions about various human resource practices provided by management of the company. This refers to the favorable treatment employees receive in the organization (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005). In short, if employees perceive that management is willing to invest or invests in human resources due to its intent to enhance service quality and foster employee well-being, such willingness or investment is likely to stimulate employees’ psychological capital. Under these circumstances, they

develop trust in organization, which in turn leads to various positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

There are several empirical studies about psychological capital in the extant hospitality research (e.g., Karatepe & Karadas, 2014; Kim et al., 2017; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). However, none of these studies has gauged the effect of psychological capital on various nonattendance intentions such as intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work, and absence intentions. This is evident in Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, and Hirst's (2014) review about psychological capital. An examination of the extant literature reveals that there is a dearth of empirical research through which psychological capital influences employees' attitudinal and/or behavioral outcomes (Kim et al., 2017; Newman et al., 2014; Tho, Phong, & Quan, 2014). In addition, the extant hospitality research appears to be devoid of empirical studies that focus on nonattendance intentions/behaviors and creative performance as the potential consequences of trust in organization (cf. Ariyabuddhiphongs & Kahn, 2017; Lee, Song, Lee, Lee, & Berhnhard, 2013; Yoon, Jang, & Lee, 2016). Our study fills in the abovementioned voids by testing trust in organization as a mediator of the impact of psychological capital on nonattendance intentions and creative performance. In this study, we use creative performance as one of the outcomes of psychological capital and trust in organization because creative performance is a source of innovation and contributes to organizational competitiveness (Abbas & Raja, 2015; Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans, 2011).

Against this backdrop, our study develops and tests a research model that examines trust in organization as a mediator of the influence of psychological capital on intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work, absence intentions, and creative performance. Data came from hotel customer-contact employees based on a time-lagged survey design and their immediate supervisors in Russia.

Based on the results of structural equation modeling, psychological capital exerts a strong positive influence on trust in organization, while trust in organization mitigates nonattendance intentions such as intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work, and absence intentions and fosters creative performance. The results further reveal that psychological capital activates customer-contact employees' creative performance. As for the mediating effects, the Sobel test results demonstrate that trust in organization fully mediates the influence of psychological capital on intention to leave work early, intention to be late for work, and absence intentions, while it partly mediates the relationship between psychological capital and creative performance.

Key Words: creative performance; hotel employees; nonattendance intentions; psychological capital; trust in organization

REFERENCES

- Abbas, M., & Raja, U. (2015). Impact of psychological capital on innovative performance and job stress. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 32(2), 128-138.
- Ariyabuddhiphongs, V., & Kahn, S. I. (2017). Transformational leadership and turnover intention: The mediating effects of trust and job performance on cafe employees in Thailand. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 16(2), 215-233.
- Chen, Z. X., Aryee, S., & Lee, C. (2005). Test of a mediation model of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(3), 457-470.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 611-628.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Karadas, G. (2014). The effect of psychological capital on conflicts in the work-family interface, turnover and absence intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43(October), 132-143.
- Kim, T. T., Karatepe, O. M., Lee, G., Lee, S., Hur, K., & Xijing, C. (2017). Does hotel employees' quality of work life mediate the effect of psychological capital on job outcomes? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(6), 1638-1657.
- Lee, C-K., Song, H-J., Lee, H-M., Lee, S., & Bernhard, B. J. (2013). The impact of CSR on casino employees' organizational trust, job satisfaction, and customer orientation: An empirical examination of responsible gambling strategies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(June), 406-415.
- Luthans, F., Luthans, K. W., & Luthans, B. C. (2004). Positive psychological capital: Beyond human and social capital. *Business Horizons*, 47(1), 45-50.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Newman, A., Ucbasaran, D., Zhu, F., & Hirst, G. (2014). Psychological capital: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S120-S38.
- Ng, T. W. H. (2015). The incremental validity of organizational commitment, organizational trust, and organizational identification. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 88(June), 154-163.
- Paek, S., Schuckert, M., Kim, T. T., & Lee, G. (2015). Why is hospitality employees' psychological capital important? The effects of psychological capital on work engagement and employee morale. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50(September), 9-26.

- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 393-404.
- Sweetman, D., Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., & Luthans, B. C. (2011). Relationship between positive psychological capital and creative performance. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 28(1), 4-13.
- Tho, N. D., Phong, N. D., & Quan, T. H. M. (2014). Marketers' psychological capital and performance: The mediating role of quality of work life, job effort and job attractiveness. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, 6(1), 36-48.
- Wang, C-J. (2016). Does leader-member exchange enhance performance in the hospitality industry? The mediating role of task motivation and creativity. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(5), 969-987.
- Wong, Y-T., Wong, C-S., & Ngo, H-Y. (2012). The effects of trust in organization and perceived organizational support on organizational citizenship behavior: A test of three competing models. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(2), 278-293.
- Yoon, D., Jang, J., & Lee, JH (Jay). (2016). Environmental management strategy and organizational citizenship behaviors in the hotel industry: The mediating role of organizational trust and commitment. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(8), 1577-1597.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS PERCEPTIONS OF MEDICAL TOURISTS AND MEDICAL TOURISM SERVICE PROVIDERS IN TURKEY

Meltem Canoglu
Çukurova University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Medical tourism is one of the world biggest and emerging economy. And as long as the share of medical tourism industry grows in the worldwide economy, it causes the intense competitive environment. For the countries and of course the health institutions, whose objective is to get share from this developing industry, it is a must to understand the motivation factors for attracting new customers and increasing the loyalty of existing customers. As one of the important preference for the health seekers around the world, Turkey, offers price advantage, well equipped service institutions and experienced doctors. The purpose of the study is to analyze the differences between the medical tourism service providers' opinions about the reasons why medical tourists choose a destination for medical treatment and the medical tourists real influencing factors for a medical tourism destination. For this purpose data were collected through survey method and the field study was conducted on 172 medical tourists and 175 medical tourism service providers overall the Turkey. According to the results; medical tourists and managers seem to have close ties. However, it has been seen that medical tourists and administrators have different opinions in some subjects such as "the type of medical treatment not allowed in the countries", "the type of medical treatment not covered by health insurance in the countries" and "the privacy preference" and so on.

Key Words: Medical Tourism, Motivational Factors, Turkey

WHAT FACTORS PREDICT HOTEL EMPLOYEES' ABSENCE INTENTIONS? AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

Rashin Kaviti

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

Absenteeism refers to “...unscheduled or unauthorized absence from work” (Pizam & Thornburg, 2000, p. 212). According to Kocakulah, Galligan, Mitchell, and Ruggieri (2009), unplanned employee absence has resulted in a loss of 2.3% of all scheduled labor hours in the service industries in the United States. Though limited in number, empirical studies reveal that there are various factors reducing and/or exacerbating employees’ absenteeism/absence intentions. For instance, Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, and Holtom’s (2004) past study demonstrated that off-the-job embeddedness reduced voluntary absence, while on-the-job embeddedness had no bearing on voluntary absence. Karatepe and Choubtarash (2014) found that emotional dissonance aggravated absence intentions through emotional exhaustion. Yang’s (210) study documented that both job satisfaction and organizational commitment mitigated absence intentions. The results of another study showed that psychological capital, as a personal resource, alleviated employees’ absence intentions, while family-work conflict heightened their absence intentions (Karatepe & Karadas, 2014). A recent study also showed that high-performance work practices enhanced work engagement that in turn resulted in lower absence intentions (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016).

The aforesaid studies enhance our understanding about the factors influencing absence intentions. However, there is still a need for empirical research to ascertain the factors that mitigate employees’ absence intentions in customer-contact positions (Karatepe & Choubtarash, 2014; Karatepe & Karadas, 2014; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Yang, 2010). With this realization, our study tests the effects of job resourcefulness, customer orientation, and job embeddedness simultaneously on hotel employees’ absence intentions. There are several reasons about why our study has chosen the aforementioned variables. First, job resourcefulness which is defined as “... the enduring disposition to garner scarce resources and overcome obstacles in pursuit of job-related goals” (Licata, Mowen, Harris, & Brown, 2003, p. 258) is a situational-level personality trait. Employees high on job resourcefulness work in an environment where resources are not abundant (Karatepe & Douri, 2012). Such employees may display lower absence intentions. As a surface-level personality trait, customer

orientation is defined as “...an employee’s tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context” (Brown, Mowen, Donavan, & Licata, 2002) and fosters employees’ psychological welfare (Zablah, Franke, Brown, & Bartholomew, 2012). Employees high on customer orientation may also exhibit lower absence intentions. Second, job embeddedness enables managers to retain employees. It consists of three components: links, fit, and sacrifice. Fit is defined as “... an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and with his or her environment”, while links are defined as “...formal or informal connections between a person and institutions or other people” (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001, p. 1105). Sacrifice refers to “... the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job” (Mitchell et al., 2001, p. 1105). Elevated levels of job embeddedness are likely to diminish unscheduled or authorized absence from work.

It appears that there is evidence about the impacts of job resourcefulness, customer orientation, and job embeddedness on burnout, work engagement, job satisfaction, in-role performance, quitting intentions, service recovery performance, creativity, organizational commitment, and/or extra-role performance (e.g., Akgunduz, Bardakoglu, & Alkan, 2015; Ashill, Rod, Thirkell, & Carruthers, 2009; Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2009; Harris, Ladik, Artis, & Fleming, 2013; Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Licata et al., 2003; Semedo, Coelho, & Ribeiro, 2016; Yoo & Arnold, 2014). However, the extant hospitality literature seems to be devoid of empirical research about the influences of job resourcefulness, customer orientation, and job embeddedness simultaneously on absence intentions in customer-contact positions. Data came from hotel employees through a time-lagged survey design (three waves) in Dubai in the United Arab Emirates.

The results from structural equation modeling reveal that job resourcefulness exerts a strong positive influence on customer orientation. As expected, customer orientation activates job embeddedness. Consistent with the study prediction, job embeddedness has a strong negative impact on absence intentions. The results from the Sobel test indicate that job embeddedness is a full mediator between customer orientation and absence intentions, while customer orientation functions as a full mediator of the influence of job resourcefulness on job embeddedness.

Key Words: absence intentions; customer orientation; hotel industry; job embeddedness; job resourcefulness

REFERENCES

Akgunduz, Y., Bardakoglu, O., & Alkan, C. E. (2015). The moderating role of job resourcefulness in the impact of work-family and family-work life conflict on the burnout levels of travel agency

- employees. *Turizam*, 19(3), 111-126.
- Ashill, N. J., Rod, M., Thirkell, P., & Carruthers, J. (2009). Job resourcefulness, symptoms of burnout and service recovery performance: A examination of call center frontline employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 23(5), 338-350.
- Babakus, E., Yavas, U., & Ashill, N. J. (2009). The role of customer orientation as a moderator of the job demand-burnout-performance relationship: A surface-level trait perspective. *Journal of Retailing*, 85(4), 480-492.
- Brown, T. J., Mowen, J. C., Donovan, D. T., & Licata, J. W. (2002). The customer orientation of service workers: Personality trait effects on self- and supervisor performance ratings. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(1), 110-119.
- Harris, E. G., Ladik, D. M., Artis, A. B., & Fleming, D. E. (2013). Examining the influence of job resourcefulness on sales performance. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 21(4), 405-414.
- Karatepe, O. M. (2013). The effects of job resourcefulness and customer orientation on performance outcomes: Evidence from Nigeria. *E + M Ekonomie a Management*, 16(12), 151-160.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Choubtarash, H. (2014). The effects of perceived crowding, emotional dissonance, and emotional exhaustion on critical job outcomes: A study of ground staff in the airline industry. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 40(August), 182-191.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Douri, B. G. (2012). Does customer orientation mediate the effect of job resourcefulness on hotel employee outcomes? Evidence from Iran. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 19(1), 1-10.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Karadas, G. (2014). The effect of psychological capital on conflicts in the work-family interface, turnover and absence intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43(October), 132-143.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Ngeche, R. N. (2012). Does job embeddedness mediate the effect of work engagement on job outcomes? A study of hotel employees in Cameroon. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 21(4), 440-461.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2016). The mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between high-performance work practices and job outcomes of employees in Nigeria. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(10), 2350-2371.
- Kocakulah, M. C., Galligan, A., Mitchell, K. M., & Ruggieri, M. P. (2009). Absenteeism problems and costs: Causes, effects and cures. *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 8(5), 81-88.

- Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablinski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). The effects of job embeddedness on organizational citizenship, job performance, volitional absences, and voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5), 711-722.
- Licata, J. W., Mowen, J. C., Harris, E. G., & Brown, T. J. (2003). On the trait antecedents and outcomes of service worker job resourcefulness: A hierarchical model approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(3), 256-271.
- Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablinski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1102-1121.
- Pizam, A., & Thornburg, S. W. (2000). Absenteeism and voluntary turnover in Central Florida hotels: A pilot study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 19(2), 211-217.
- Semedo, A. S. D., Coelho, A. F. M., & Ribeiro, N. M. P. (2016). Effects of authentic leadership, affective commitment and job resourcefulness on employees' creativity and individual performance. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 37(8), 1038-1055.
- Yang, J-T. (2010). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 609-619.
- Yoo, J. J., & Arnold, T. J. (2014). Customer orientation, engagement, and developing positive emotional labor. *The Service Industries Journal*, 34(16), 1272-1288.
- Zablah, A. R., Franke, G. R., Brown, T. J., & Bartholomew, D. E. (2012). How and when does customer orientation influence frontline employee job outcomes? A meta-analytic evaluation. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(3), 21-40.

ABUSIVE SUPERVISION AND FRONTLINE HOTEL EMPLOYEES' QUALITY OF WORK-LIFE: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

Georgiana Karadas

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism, Gazimagusa North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

Turgay Avcı

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism , Gazimagusa North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

Kayode Kolawole Eluwole

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism, Gazimagusa , North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

ABSTRACT

The influence of leadership on employees' performance and well-being on and off the job cannot be over emphasized. Leadership has been proven to be integral to followers' perception of their workplace success (job performance or work engagement) and to life outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction). For instance, transformational leadership (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007), ethical leadership (Liao, Liu, Kwan, & Li, 2015), servant leadership (Zhang, Kwan, Everet, & Jian, 2012), and authentic leadership (Braun & Peus, 2016) have all been linked to employees' outcomes. Few scholars investigated the negative influences of leadership on their subordinates' work/non-work outcomes. In the hospitality context, the negative effects of leadership on follower's on-the-job and off-the-job wellbeing have been scarcely studied. As an exception to this trend, few researchers responded to the call in this area (Jian, Kwan, Qiu, Liu, & Yim, 2012; Liu, Zhang, Liao, Hao, & Mao, 2016) to investigate the detrimental influence of abusive supervision, a form of negative leadership, on service employees' in-role performance and extra role behavior.

Considering the strenuous nature of the hospitality service delivery, service employees often face situations that may deplete their resources which are often replenished with the Work-Family-Enrichment. Previous studies describe Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) as transferable resources within work-domain into the family domain that help in facilitating a better family relationship (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). When organizational support is perceived to favor WFE, employees tend to find fulfillment in their work and family roles. For example, Zhang and Tu (2016) investigated the effects of ethical leadership on WFE and employees' subjective well-being (e.g., family and life satisfaction). However, abusive supervision, as conceptualized by Tepper (2000), denotes employees'

perception of sustained hostility from their supervisor without physical contact.

The continuum of research on abusive supervision empirically shows that abusive supervision affects employees' resources. WFE theory, however, argues that resources generated from work are crucial to the discharge of employees' various roles within work and family. Based on the above reasoning, we argue that abusive supervision, as an indicator of destructive leadership, will affect employees' resources generated in the work domain to be transferred in the family domain (WFE).

Recent literature also investigated the negative effects of abusive supervision on employees' performance and quality of work life (e.g., job satisfaction) and called for further research in this area (Gabler, Nagy, & Hill, 2010). Therefore, our study takes on Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, and Lee's (2001) quality of work life defined as "employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace" (p. 242) to examine its association with abusive supervision. The present study investigates the impact of abusive supervision on subordinates' quality of work life and the mediating role of WFE between these relationships within Northern Cyprus hotel industry as a response to the calls in the literature regarding underlying mechanisms between abusive supervision and its consequences (Lyu, Zhu, Zhong, & Hu, 2016; Zhang & Liao, 2015).

The study's contribution is two-folds. Firstly, we extend the literature of abusive supervision in the hospitality industry by investigating the consequences of abusive supervision beyond performance to life outcomes (e.g., quality of work-life) based on the calls for further research (*see* Gabler et al., 2014; Jian et al., 2012; Lyu et al., 2016). Secondly, in line with Wu, Kwan, Liu, and Resick's (2012) call regarding further associations between abusive supervision and work-family variables (e.g., WFE), our study contributes to the abusive supervision literature by extending the antecedents of WFE.

Key Words: Abusive supervision; Work-family enrichment; Quality of work-life; Frontline employees; Hospitality; Northern Cyprus

REFERENCES

- Arnold, K. A., Turner, N., Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & McKee, M. C. (2007). Transformational leadership and psychological well-being: the mediating role of meaningful work. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*(3), 193-203.
- Braun, S., & Peus, C. (2016). Crossover of work-life balance perceptions: Does authentic leadership matter? *Journal of Business Ethics, 1-19*. 10.1007/s10551-016-3078-x
- Gabler, C. B., Nagy, K. R., & Hill, R. P. (2010). Causes and consequences of abusive supervision in sales management: A tale of two perspectives. *Psychology & Marketing, 31*(4), 278-293.

- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment Published by: Academy of Management Linked references are available on JSTOR for this article : When work and family are allies : A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(1), 72-92.
- Jian, Z., Kwan, H. K., Qiu, Q., Liu, Z. Q., & Yim, F. H. (2012). Abusive supervision and frontline employees' service performance. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(5), 683-698.
- Liao, Y., Liu, X. Y., Kwan, H. K., & Li, J. (2015). Work-family effects of ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 128(3), 535-545.
- Liu, W., Zhang, P., Liao, J., Hao, P., & Mao, J. (2016). Abusive supervision and employee creativity: The mediating role of psychological safety and organizational identification. *Management Decision*, 54(1), 130-147.
- Lyu, Y., Zhu, H., Zhong, H. J., & Hu, L. (2016). Abusive supervision and customer-oriented organizational citizenship behavior: The roles of hostile attribution bias and work engagement. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 53(February), 69-80.
- Sirgy, M., Efraty, D., Siegel, P., & Lee, D. (2001). New measure of quality of work life (Qowl) based on need satisfaction and spillover theories. *Social Indicators Research*, 55(3), 241-302.
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178-190.
- Wang, W., Mao, J., Wu, W., & Liu, J. (2012). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance: the mediating role of interactional justice and the moderating role of power distance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 50(1), 43-60.
- Wu, L.-Z., Kwan, H. K., Liu, J., Resick, C. J. (2012). Work-to-family spillover effects of abusive supervision. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(7), 714-731.
- Zhang, H., Kwan, H. K., Everett, A. M., & Jian, Z. (2012). Servant leadership, organizational identification and work- to-family enrichment: The moderating role of work climate for sharing family concerns. *Human Resource Management*, 51(5), 747-768.
- Zhang, Y., & Liao, Z. (2015). Consequences of abusive supervision: A meta-analytic review. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 32(4), 959-987.
- Zhang, S., & Tu, Y. (2016). Cross-domain effects of ethical leadership on employee family and life satisfaction: The moderating role of family-supportive supervisor behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-13. doi:10.1007/s10551-016-3306-4

PERSONAL AND JOB RESOURCES PREDICTING HOTEL EMPLOYEES' WORK ENGAGEMENT AND PERFORMANCE

[Georgiana Karadas](#)

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

[Turgay Avci](#)

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

[Ksenia Sumaneeva](#)

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

ABSTRACT

In the present competitive work environment, service organizations pursue different strategies to motivate and improve employees' well-being on the job and consequently to retain a skillful workforce. Engaged employees can maximize guests' satisfaction, generate high service quality and competitive advantage for their organizations (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Managers who attract and retain proactive employees by providing customized employment arrangements such as idiosyncratic deals (I-deals) (Rosen, Slater, Chang, & Johnson, 2013) and foster employees' motivation can boost their job performance.

On the grounds that nowadays employees play an active role in shaping or redesigning their work, significant research is conducted on the importance and the effects of such bottom-up approaches as I-deals. Task I-deals denote personalization of job content that has the potential to enhance employees' well-being (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010). Employees personally negotiate and agree with their employers upon arrangements such as task responsibilities or personalized opportunities to enhance their skills and competencies (Rosen et al., 2013; Rousseau, Hornung, & Kim, 2009) based on their needs. Such proactive behaviors influence employees' work engagement (WE), their attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Hornung et al., 2010; Rofcanin, Berber, Koch, & Sevinc, 2015).

Employees' WE denotes "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

Researchers demonstrated the significant role WE plays within service jobs by investigating its relations with various personal and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009), and employees' performance. Employees' personal resources, such as proactive personality, can also enhance WE (Burke et al., 2013). Proactive personality is defined as "one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces and who effects environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 105). That is, frontline hotel employees can distinguish tasks and situations and act upon them in order to achieve significant changes in their performance (Baba, Tourigny, Wang, & Liu, 2009; Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Shi, Chen, & Zhou, 2011).

Further examination regarding the predictors and consequences of WE, especially within hospitality and management literature has been repeatedly commended (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, & Tekin, 2013; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). In addition, researchers also call for further research regarding associations between individual factors (e.g., proactive personality) and job performance, such proactive customer service performance (PCSP) (Raub & Liao, 2012; Shi et al., 2011). Hence, the present study aims to investigate the associations between frontline hotels employees' proactive personality, I-deals, WE and proactive customer service performance (PCSP) in Russia.

PCSP is described as "individuals' self-started, long-term-oriented, and persistent service behavior that goes beyond explicitly prescribed performance requirements" (Rank, Carsten, Unger, & Spector, 2007, p.364). Previous researches focused on both positive and negative predictors of PCSP in the form of personality and attitudinal variables (Chen, Lyu, Li, Zhou, & Li, 2017; Raub & Liao, 2012), nevertheless additional investigation on PCSP' predictors (Rank et al., 2007) especially within hospitality industry is essential (Chen et al., 2017; Raub & Liao, 2012).

The present study aims to examine the above mentioned relationships based on the empirical evidence mentioned above and the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) which delineates that personal and job resources directly and indirectly boost employees' job performance via WE. The current research contributes to the literature by examining predictors and consequences of WE, which were not investigated before in the hospitality industry. Research on I-deals is in its early stages (Rousseau et al., 2009), therefore scholars encourage further investigation regarding I-deals and their effects on employees' outcomes (Guerrero, Bentein, & Lapalme, 2014; Rosen et al., 2013). Additional research on the predictors of PCSP is also needed, therefore the present study contributes to the hospitality and management literature by examining the associations mentioned above.

Key Words: I-deals, proactive personality, frontline hotel employees, work engagement, proactive

customer service performance, Russia

References:

- Baba, V. V., Tourigny, L., Wang, X., & Liu, W. (2009). Proactive personality and work performance in China: The moderating effects of emotional exhaustion and perceived safety climate. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 26(1), 23-37.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3), 209-223.
- Bakker, A. B., Tims, M., & Derks, D. (2012). Proactive personality and job performance: The role of job crafting and work engagement. *Human relations*, 65(10), 1359-1378.
- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103-118.
- Burke, R. J., Koyuncu, M., Fiksenbaum, L., & Tekin, Y. (2013). Antecedents and consequences of work engagement among frontline employees in Turkish hotels. *Journal of Transnational Management*, 18(3), 191-203.
- Chen, M., Lyu, Y., Li, Y., Zhou, X., & Li, W. (2017). The impact of high-commitment HR practices on hotel employees' proactive customer service performance. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 58(1), 94-107.
- Guerrero, S., Bentein, K., & Lapalme, M. E. (2014). Idiosyncratic deals and high performers' organizational commitment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 29(2), 323-334.
- Hornung, S., Rousseau, D. M., Glaser, J., Angerer, P., & Weigl, M. (2010). Beyond top-down and bottom-up work redesign: Customizing job content through idiosyncratic deals. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(2-3), 187-215.
- Paek, S., Schuckert, M., Kim, T. K., & Lee, G. (2015). Why is hospitality employees' psychological capital important? The effects of psychological capital on work engagement and employee morale. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 50(September), 9-26.
- Rank, J., Carsten, J. M., Unger, J. M., & Spector, P. E. (2007). Proactive customer service performance: Relationships with individual, task, and leadership variables. *Human Performance*, 20(4), 363-390.
- Raub, S., & Liao, H. (2012). Doing the right thing without being told: Joint effects of initiative climate and general self-efficacy on employee proactive customer service performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(3), 651.
- Rofcanin, Y., Berber, A., Koch, S., & Sevinc, L. (2015). Job crafting and I-deals: A study testing the nomological network of proactive behaviors. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(22), 2695-2726..
- Rosen, C. C., Slater, D. J., & Johnson, R. E. (2013). Let's make a deal development and validation of the ex post Ideals scale. *Journal of Management*, 39(3), 709-742.
- Rousseau, D. M., Hornung, S., & Kim, T. G. (2009). Idiosyncratic deals: Testing propositions on timing, content, and the employment relationship. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74(3), 338-348.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzales-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3(1), 71-92.

- Shi, J., Chen, Z., & Zhou, L. (2011). Testing differential mediation effects of sub-dimensions of political skills in linking proactive personality to employee performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26(3), 359-369.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009a). Reciprocal relationships between job resources, personal resources, and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74(3), 235-244.
- Zhao, H., Peng, Z., & Sheard, G. (2013). Workplace ostracism and hospitality employees' counterproductive work behaviors: The joint moderating effects of proactive personality and political skill. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 33(June), 219-227.

GETTING TOO CLOSE? HOW GUEST ATTACHMENT STYLES IMPACT THE DESIRE FOR RELATIONSHIP CLOSENESS WITH HOSTS IN HOSPITALITY

Srikanth Beldona

Hemant Kher

Suresh Sundaram

University of Delaware, USA

Extant research is increasingly recognizing the importance of customer attachment styles in relationship marketing (Mende & Bolton 2011; Mende, Bolton & Bitner 2013; Paulssen & Fournier 2007; Thomson & Johnson 2006). In hospitality-based experiences (HBEs), this is significant given the importance placed on host-guest interactions and relationship marketing (Beldona & Kher, 2015). This study examined the impact of guest attachment styles and their desire for relational closeness using perceived hospitality as a mediating variable. It tested these relationships across groups namely, the types of hotels being patronized, the level of annual hotel patronage and the level of sacrifice endured to consume the service.

The central hypotheses of the model were:

H1: Perceived hospitality will be positively related to the desire for relational closeness with hosts in HBEs.

H2: Attachment anxiety will be positively related to desire for relational closeness.

H3: Attachment avoidance will be negatively related to desire for relational closeness.

H4: Perceived hospitality will mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and the desire for relational closeness.

H5: Perceived hospitality will mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and the desire for relational closeness.

Data were collected from a sample of US lodging consumers. Using a sample of 307 respondents, the hypotheses were tested using Partial Least Squares with SmartPLS 3.2. Measures for customer attachment anxiety and avoidance were adapted from Mende and Bolton (2009), perceived hospitality from (Beldona & Kher, 2015). For the measure for the desire for relational closeness, a two item construct was developed using a synthesis of the extant literature.

Apart from perceived hospitality having a significantly positive impact on the desire for relational closeness, this study found that guests with higher levels of attachment anxiety seek closer relationships with hosts as opposed to those with higher levels of attachment avoidance, who spurn efforts towards relational closeness. It was also determined that in upscale hotels & B&Bs, high levels of perceived hospitality enhance the proclivity of guests with high attachment avoidance to seek relational closeness with hosts. Also, the mediating effect of perceived hospitality is significant only under conditions low levels of guest sacrifice (monetary, emotional and effort). Lastly, perceived hospitality's mediating impact on the attachment avoidance → desire for relational closeness relationship will be significant only with guests who use hotels less as opposed to more in relative terms.

The study provides insights over the type of guest that is likely to spur or conversely, be receptive to relational overtures and the conditions under which this relationship prevails. Findings show a unique perspective of the host-guest relationship, which in turn can be used towards a more meaningful interpretation of guest evaluations, and the crafting of tailored and effective customer relationship management. An improved understanding of hospitality and relationship development is critical to today's rapidly evolving hospitality sector, which includes firms in the sharing economy such as Airbnb and HomeAway. The study's focus was only individuals seeking leisure travel. Also, the study did not control for first-time and repeat visitation.

THE EFFECTS OF WORK SOCIAL SUPPORT AND WORK ENGAGEMENT ON FLIGHT ATTENDANTS' CRITICAL JOB OUTCOMES

Niusha Talebzadeh

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

Osman M. Karatepe

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus Via Mersin 10,
TURKEY

The notion that flight attendants play a crucial role in the provision of quality services to passengers and successful solutions to passenger complaints is highlighted in a number of studies (e.g., Chen & Kao, 2014; Ilkhanizadeh & Karatepe, 2017; Kozak, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003). Coworker support or supervisor support enhances flight attendants' work engagement (WE) that enables them to perform their tasks effectively (Chen & Chen, 2012; Chen & Kao, 2012; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). WE is a motivational construct and is composed of three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Flight attendants high on WE also display higher job satisfaction (Lu, Lu, Gursoy, & Neale, 2016). The extant literature delineates evidence about the effects of work social support and WE on employee outcomes such as quitting intentions, career satisfaction, absence intentions, service recovery performance, and job performance (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Lu et al., 2016). However, a recent study calls for more research about the association between WE and multiple performance constructs (Reijseger, Peeters, Taris, & Schaufeli, 2016). Such additional research is likely to answer the question of *why* engaged employees perform better than non-engaged employees (Reijseger et al., 2016). Gauging these relationships among flight attendants using time-lagged data as well as multiple sources of data is likely to enhance the understanding about why engaged flight attendants perform better than non-engaged flight attendants.

In light of the information given above, our study tests the impacts of coworker support, supervisor support, and WE on job satisfaction, in-role performance, creative performance, and extra-role performance. Our study utilized a time-lagged survey design and obtained multiple sources of data to test these relationships. Data came from flight attendants and their pursers in the private airline companies in Iran.

Our study proposes twenty-two hypothesized relationships. Nineteen out of 22 relationships are supported by the empirical data. Broadly speaking, the findings from structural equation modeling

illustrate that both coworker and supervisor support enhance flight attendants' WE and extra-role performance. As expected, supervisor support fosters flight attendants' job satisfaction and in-role performance. In line with the study prediction, coworker support activates flight attendants' creative performance. The findings further show that WE stimulates flight attendants' job satisfaction, in-role performance, creative performance, and extra-role performance. However, the empirical data do not lend any credence to the effect of coworker support on job satisfaction and in-role performance and the influence of supervisor support on creative performance.

Based on the findings of the Sobel test, WE fully mediates the influence of coworker support on job satisfaction and in-role performance, while it partly mediates the influence of coworker support on extra-role performance and creative performance. WE also acts as a full mediator of the influence of supervisor support on creative performance, while supervisor support positively influences job satisfaction, in-role performance, and extra-role performance directly and indirectly via WE. The findings collectively indicate that both coworker and supervisor support boost flight attendants' WE that in turn engenders high levels of performance outcomes. This is also valid for job satisfaction as an attitudinal outcome. That is, sufficient support surfacing from coworkers and supervisors (pursers) enhances WE that in turn gives rise to higher job satisfaction.

Key Words: flight attendants; job outcomes; work engagement; work social support

REFERENCES

- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2016). Job demands-resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000056>
- Chen, C-F., & Chen, S-C. (2012). Burnout and work engagement among cabin crew: Antecedents and consequences. *The International Journal of Aviation Psychology*, 22(1), 41-58.
- Chen, C-F., & Kao, Y-L. (2012). Moderating effects of work engagement and job tenure on burnout-performance among flight attendants. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 25(December), 61-63.
- Chen, C-F., & Kao, Y-L (2014). Investigating the moderating effects of service climate on personality, motivation, social support, and performance among flight attendants. *Tourism Management*, 44(October), 58-66.
- Ilkhanizadeh, S., & Karatepe, O. M. (2017). An examination of the consequences of corporate social responsibility in the airline industry: Work engagement, career satisfaction, and voice behavior. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 59(March), 8-17.

- Karatepe, O. M. (2012). Job resources, work engagement, and hotel employee outcomes: A time-lagged analysis. *Ekonomika Istraživanja-Economic Research*, 25(4), 1127-1140.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Olugbade, O. A. (2016). The mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between high-performance work practices and job outcomes of employees in Nigeria. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(10), 2350-2371.
- Kozak, N., Karatepe, O. M., & Avci, T. (2003). Measuring the quality of airline services: Evidence from Northern Cyprus. *Tourism Analysis*, 8(1), 75-87.
- Lu, L., Lu, A. C. C., Gursay, D., & Neale, N. R. (2016). Work engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions: A comparison between supervisors and line-level employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 737-761.
- Reijseger, G., Peeters, M. C. W., Taris, T. W., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2016). From motivation to activation: Why engaged workers are better performers. *Journal of Business and Psychology*. DOI 10.1007/s10869-016-9435-z
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzales-Roma, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 5(1), 71-92.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Heuven, E., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Working in the sky: A diary study on work engagement among flight attendants. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 15(4), 345-356.

THE MAIN PROVISIONS OF THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGIC DEVELOPMENT OF GASTRONOMIC TOURISM

Angelina Irina

SO HPE «Donetsk National University of Economics and Trade named after Mykhayilo Tugan-Baranovsky », Donetsk, DPR

Mikula Yana

SO HPE «Donetsk National University of Economics and Trade named after Mykhayilo Tugan-Baranovsky », Donetsk, DPR

ANNOTATION

A conceptual approach to the development of gastronomic tourism is presented in the form of a complete concept of strategic development of gastronomic tourism.

This concept defines: the purpose (the formation and development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic), tasks (allocated in blocks, namely environmental, economic and social), the object (a set of questions of theoretical and methodological nature on the formation and development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic), subjects, state regulation system, problems of strategic development of gastronomic tourism (problems of the industry in general, the problem of the development of gastronomic tourism) and the indicators of success of the implementation of the strategic development of gastronomic tourism concept.

Indicators of the strategic concept of development, determine the main factors that contribute to the development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic (increasing the number of food enterprises, providing services of gastronomic tourism; the preservation and development of cultural heritage, fishing (national cuisine), professional development of staff; increasing number tourists visiting the Donetsk People's Republic, the increase in revenues of the Donetsk People's Republic, expanding the range of gastronomic tourism services).

Keywords: tourism, gastronomic tourism, indicators of concept, stages of development, the concept of strategic development of gastronomic tourism.

INTRODUCTION

With changing demand for tourist destinations and tourist services, interest for the new and innovative

forms of tourism increases. Culinary or gastronomic tourism can be attributed to such innovative forms. In order to study this type of tourism we should study objects, subjects, problems and prospects for the strategic development and as a result, offer a conceptual approach to the development of gastronomic tourism.

Tourism resources for the development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic are rich and unique. They are: historical monuments, museum exhibitions, picturesque natural places and, of course, the unique cuisine [1].

Gastronomic tourism is one of the newest types of tourism. The history of its development notes gastronomic tourism for about 19 years and its popularity is yet to come. From Fig. 1 Stages of development of this type of tourism [2].

Stage I - the emergence of gastronomic tourism. The term "culinary tourism" was firstly coined by Lucy Long - associate professor of popular culture at Bowling Green State University (Bowling Green, United States).

Stage II - the output of gastronomic tourism to the world stage. The first article on culinary tourism and after that the first book "The International Organization of culinary tourism" appeared, written by an American writer Eric Wolff.

Stage III - the introduction of gastronomic tourism management structure: the base of the International Association of gastronomic tourism (The International Culinary Tourism Association) by Eric Wolf in 2003. Stage IV - Improvement of basic definitions. The International Association of gastronomic tourism has replaced the term "culinary tourism" to "gastronomic tourism" in 2012, as the majority of potential tourists believed that culinary tourism was created only for the elite.

Stage V - the introduction of gastronomic tourism in the world tourism regions. The widespread development of gastronomic tourism has led to the formation of travel agencies specializing in international gastronomic tourism, such national companies as «Gourmeton Tour» (USA), «The International Kitchen» (Great Britain), «Gourmet Getaways» (Italy), "Cheese Village" (Altai, Russia), etc.

By examining the content of the basic definitions of gastronomic tourism [3, 4] basic concept of strategic development of gastronomic tourism was defined.

The concept of strategic development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic includes the following components: goals, objectives, subject, subjects, system of state regulation,

problems of strategic development of gastronomic tourism and the indicators of success of the strategic concept development of gastronomic tourism.

The aim of the concept is the formation and development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic.

The objectives of the concept are divided into blocks, namely environmental, economic and social.

The subject of the concept is a set of questions of theoretical and methodological nature on the formation and development of gastronomic tourism in the Donetsk People's Republic.

The existing problems of the development of gastronomic tourism were analyzed.

The main problems were identified. They are: lack of effective public policy in the region, the unresolved issues of gastronomic tourism at the legislative level, inadequate protection of the rights of the sides, imperfection of taxation and high tax industry, unresolved certification services, semi-legal sector status, without a clear organizational structure, growth of the load in recreational areas; pollution of natural resources, inadequate investment in the sector, solvency of the population decline, insufficient to attract investors, gastronomic tourism braking problems, conducting anti-terrorist operations in the the region, threat to life, destruction of infrastructure, the problem of timely delivery of perishable goods, the poor state of the local roads and restrictions on the use of international routes, the threat of a stable district heating, energy supply and water supply, inadequate development of communications, social and technical infrastructure in many of the possible centers of gastronomic tourism, unattractiveness and complexity for tourists, as a result of the low standard of quality products, services and lack of technical availability, limited choice of leisure activities and opportunities for active recreation, dangerous investment environment, lack of investment in the creation of new jobs, the impossibility of lending, low motivation to work, lack of training centers for training and retraining of managers, guides for gastronomic tourism, lack of agreed routes for gastronomic tourism, low quality of services due to the insufficient level of training, lack of public awareness for the possibility of such a form of recreation, low level of the quality of information and marketing activities, lack of high - quality advertising, the lack of information in the media.

Thus, the basic provisions of the strategic concept of tourism development in the Donetsk People's Republic is represented as an interconnected system comprising the object, purpose, objectives, problems of strategic development in the region the problem of inhibition of the industry in general, the problem of braking the development of gastronomic tourism, regulatory impact and as a result of the indicators of the strategic development of gastronomic tourism concept in the People's Republic of Donetsk.

REFERENCES

- Zhelezova OR Ethnic gastronomic tourism and its role in the preservation of national culture and identity of peoples // Young scientist. - 2013. - N°5. - S. 855-858.
- What Is Food Tourism? [Electronic resource]: The official website for World Food Tourism Association - Access: <http://www.worldfoodtravel.org/what-is-food-tourism/>
- Angelina IA The basic definition of gastronomic tourism / IA Angelina, YD Mikula // Problems and prospects of tourism development in the Southern Federal District: Sat. scientific. tr. - Simferopol: IT "Ariana", 2016. - 380 p. ISBN 978-5-906877-33-8.
- Shpenkova KS, Sychev VO Terms of gastronomic tourism in Russia and in the world // Concept. - 2014. - N° 07 (July). - ART 14198. - 0,4 l n.. - URL: <http://e-koncept.ru/2014/14198.htm>. - State. reg. E FS number 7749965. - ISSN 2304-120X

MARKETING PRIORITIES OF INDUSTRIAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Angelina Irina

SO HPE «Donetsk National University of Economics and Trade named after Mykhayilo Tugan-Baranovsky», Donetsk, DPR

Antonets Viktoriia

SO HPE «Donetsk National University of Economics and Trade named after Mykhayilo Tugan-Baranovsky», Donetsk, DPR

ABSTRACT

Tourism, including industrial, is one of the leading and fastest growing sectors of the global economy. In modern conditions tourism is considered to be a catalyst for regional economies, allowing not only to use the entire range of recreational resources, but also the most efficient use of the production and socio-cultural potential of the territory. The research revealed marketing priorities of industrial tourism development for the region, tourists and industries.

Key Words: marketing priorities, industrial tourism, development, region, tourists, industries.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial tourism opens up new opportunities for the region, industrial enterprises and tourists. For regions with a large production base industrial tourism offers interesting possibilities in the field of direct and indirect employment, and an increase in arrivals and a variety of tourist product. In regions that have highly specialized industries, or regions, that have historically formed the sectoral production structure, there is a chance to express themselves, to advertise their potential via tourism. Besides, industrial tourism gives new possibilities in terms of income and as a management tool for individual enterprises.

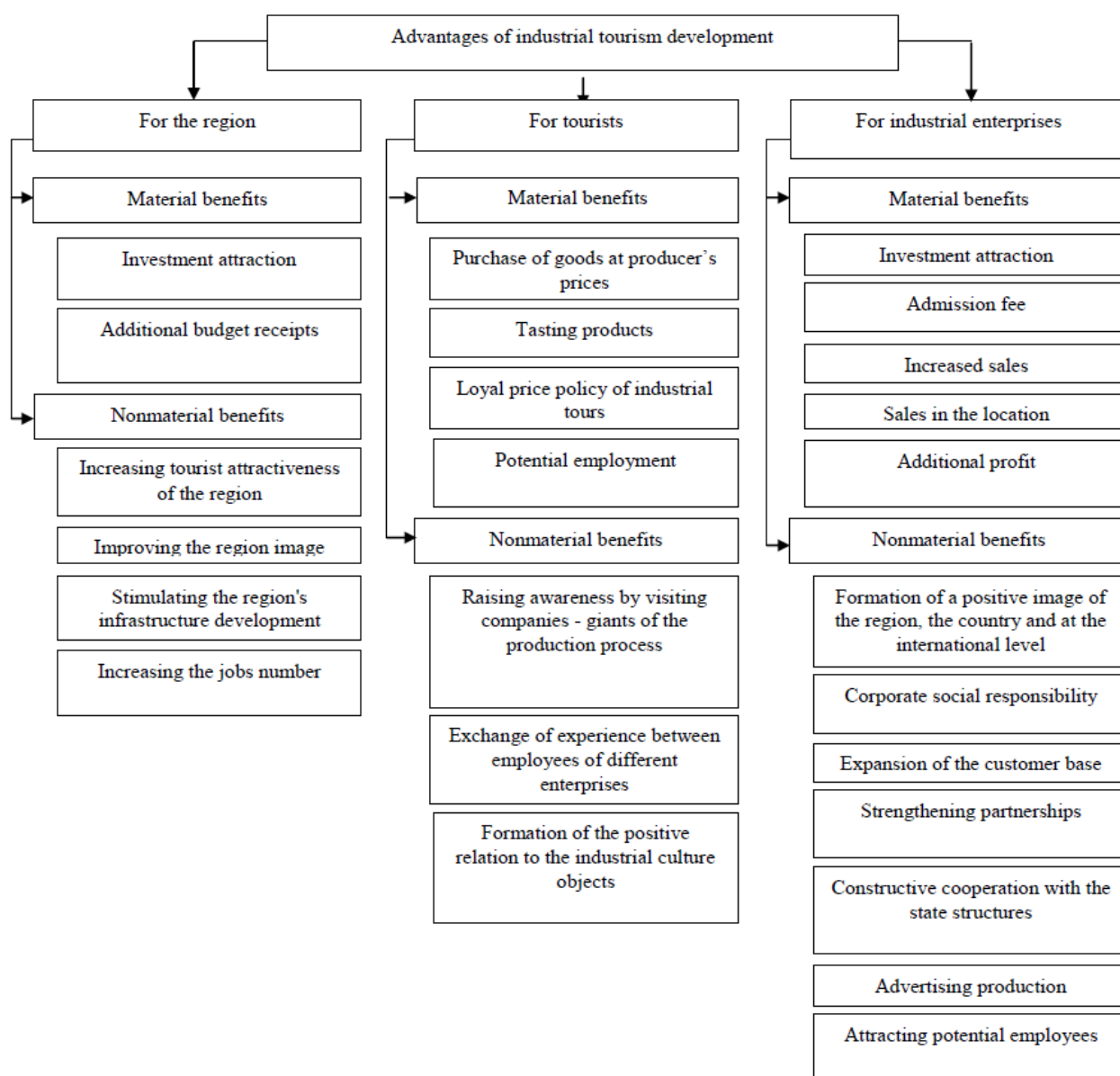
For enterprises, the introduction of tours and excursions is an original way to introduce products, improve the image of the company and the industry as a whole. And for tourists it is an opportunity to see with their own eyes the production capacity, to learn about industry history and find out what happens to the products they are familiar with before they hit the shelves.

One of the most effective tools of the regional economic development is the development of marketing strategies aimed at increasing the competitiveness of the territory. The use of the tourism potential of strategic importance as the direction for sustainable development, based on the maximum use of local resources, at the same time practical introduction to the industrial cities of the tourist

regions requires an assessment of their capabilities, establishing feasibility and tourism business development needs.

The need to overcome the limitations of the industrial regions development prospects requires the search for new areas of activity, including the services sector. Therefore, identification of the marketing priorities of industrial tourism development is significant. Marketing strategy of industrial tourism development involves the main principles of the long-term comprehensive program of activities aimed at achieving the objectives and priorities of the development of tourism-related activity in industrialized regions or enterprises, to meet the cognitive, professional, business interests, without performing profit-related activities in the place of temporary residence. The role of marketing in the formation of a strategic framework for industrial tourism development in the region is as follows: firstly, marketing helps consumers to define the industrial area, identify their interests and expectations; secondly, marketing provides a baseline for the development of strategic plans, helping to identify opportunities and threats to the market, as well as to evaluate the potential of the industrial area; thirdly, marketing helps to develop a strategy and implement the objectives set in the strategic plan [1]

Free access to enterprises to get familiar with technological processes, industrial visits to specialized museums have not only informative purpose, but also offer the opportunity to attract potential investors. [2] The main advantages of the industrial tourism development are presented in scheme 1. The industrial tourism development contributes to the rise of not only the economy, but also the company's image as an industrial tourism is quite beneficial for most businesses.



Scheme 1. Advantages of industrial tourism development

Corporate social responsibility is a concept that makes organizations consider the interests of society by taking responsibility for the impact of their activities on customers, suppliers, employees, shareholders, local communities and other stakeholders of the public sphere. There are some key benefits for companies that implement corporate social responsibility as a part of its strategy. One of the key benefits is the potential improvement in reputation management.

Corporate social responsibility leads to an improvement of the market position and competitiveness as well. Thus, the company has a number of benefits: the expansion of the customer base, strengthening partnerships; constructive engagement with government agencies; the ability to attract / retain highly qualified specialists in the state of the enterprise; high ranking position in the domestic and international markets. When visitors enjoyed the tour at the company, it is likely to become an oral advertising (word of mouth). As a result, more and more people have a positive view of the

company, which offers a tour [3]. It should be noted that the company, whose products or production processes are being questioned due to environmental problems, the construction of the image is particularly important. Therefore, such a company should offer "perfect" tours. It is important because if the company with these problems does not offer commercial tours, its image will not improve. It requires considerable expenditures on infrastructure development for industrial tours, but it's worth it, as the improvement in the company's image in the long term will lead to an increase in sales of products or services.

Non-material benefits of the tourism industry development for the enterprise can be attributed to attract potential employees. This process occurs even among primary and secondary school children. It is important to create a positive image of the company among children and youth, because they are the future workforce. When young people are aware of the positive image of the company, it is profitable from a different perspective. On the one hand, a positive image of the company becomes attractive as a potential employer. In addition, a positive image helps to increase sales target groups - for example, young people in particular, if a company sells goods or services that are attractive to them.

In addition to nonmaterial benefits of the tourism industry, the company can also receive material benefits. Admission fee. Sometimes companies will be charged for a visit to their businesses. Admission can be used to differentiate between different target groups. For example, discounts for groups of more than a certain number of people (school classes) or discounts for people who have reached a certain age (45+). Further differentiation among the visitors is possible through the development of a variety of tours for different visitor groups. Tours for school classes should be different from travel to business customers. In this regard, the company is able to differentiate the entrance fee for different visitor groups. In addition to the admission price, the company may start selling in place to increase the material benefits from organizing tours. For example, the company may open a business unit - a souvenir shop. In addition to attempts to achieve additional benefits as a separate company, the company has the ability to collaborate with others. For example, catering and gift shop deals with outside companies and the company is fully focused on the organization of the tour. A possible drawback in this case is that profit has to be shared with another enterprise [4].

The industrial tourism development contributes to the emergence of new brands, it improves the investment climate. Trips to industrial enterprises have a positive effect on the local infrastructure. Therefore, industrial tourism is a niche for the cooperation development between regional authorities, business and local tour companies. Each side can get the benefits: promotion of tourist potential, customer loyalty, broadening the range of tourism products.

REFERENCES

1. Li, L. and Soyeze, D. 2006. Industrial tourism destination management in Germany: A critical appraisal of representation practices, in: Community Tourism and Border Tourism, edited by BAO Jigang, XU Honggang and Alan Lew. Beijing:China Travel Publisher, pp. 408-29.
2. Boros, L.Industrial tourism - trends and opportunities. / Boros, L.,Martyin, Z., Pal, V. , 2013.- Forum geografic, XII(1).
3. Florentina C. [Tourist Capitalization of Industrial Heritage Elements: A Strategic Direction of Sustainable Development. Case Study: The Petrosani Depression"](#) / Stoica, Ilinca-Valentina //GeoJournal , May 2010/
4. Otgaar A. Industrial Tourism. Where the public meets the private:- Rotterdam, Erasmus univ, september 2015.

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND TOURISM IN GHANA

Kotoua Selira

Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Eastern Mediterranean University, Box 95,
Gazimagusa, via Mersin 10, Turkey Kotoua.selira@gmail.com

Mustafa Ilkan

School of Computing and Technology, Eastern Mediterranean University, Box 95, Gazimagusa, via
Mersin 10, Turkey mustafa.ilkan@emu.edu.tr

Abstract

The combination of information technology and tourism in Ghana has become important because the country wants to attract a large number of local and international tourists to travel to the destination. Ghana is aspiring to become a new destination market to tourism in West Africa because of her tourism products. This study focuses on the use of information technology to promote and strategize to entice potential tourists to visit Ghana as a tourism destination market. Ghana has natural beauty, rich historical sites and cultural heritage. Above all the country is stable in terms of peace. People in Ghana are very friendly and tourists can enjoy both natural beauty and cultural sites. The main selling points include the golden beaches, the castles of the coast, the forests, the game reserves, rivers and lakes that includes cultural events.

Most international tourists that visit Ghana come from Europe, most especially in the United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands, the United States of America and Spain. The Use of the information technology to intensify promotions in this environment is of paramount importance to the destination marketing. The local tourists who come from various countries in Africa can also be targeted using a similar strategy. Quantitative research method is used to examine the understanding of tourists' behaviour and expectations related to online travel websites as destination marketing. Ghana may not be a popular destination among tourists as Kenya and South Africa but the destination is growing gradually in reputation. Ghana profile as a country has been enhanced considerably in recent years and it is viewed as a destination that is safe, friendly and varied which makes it an ideal place for first time tourists to the African continent. Based on these attributes of the country information technology can be used to attract more adventurous tourists. The (WTTC, 2016) predicts that by 2024 the tourism sector in Ghana will increase in growth yearly by 4.5% which is in line with the economic growth of the country. It was also predicted by the (WTTC, 2016) that Ghana is likely to increase growth and boost the GDP by 3%. However, with more promotions and the use of information tools as a strategy more tourists can be enticed to holiday in Ghana. Local tourism is also

known as domestic tourism, internal tourism or national tourism. This type of tourism involves tourists from one location to another within the nation. Many countries encourage local tourism because it strengthens the economy of the country through tourism income multiplier. Ghana encourages the local people to take at least one domestic vacation during the year. There are many beautiful attractions and resorts attract Ghanaians to travel domestically.

Keywords: Ghana, tourism, information, technology, travel

THE IMPACT CORRELATION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AMONG COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE, HOTEL PERFORMANCE AND MARKET ORIENTATION IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Mehmet Necati Cizrelioğulları

Eastern Mediterranean University, Tourism Management Research Assistants in Computer Center
Gazimağusa, KKTC

Mehmet Veysi Babayigit

Eastern Mediterranean University, English Language Teaching

Gazimağusa, KKTC

ABSTRACT

This research focuses on knowledge management as an element to create competitive advantage in the hotel industry. The gaps of the research also entail the organizational role of this concept with respect to its strengths and utilization in hotel management. In order to understand the competitive aspect derived from knowledge management, the discussion is classified into technical and social resource utilization, and used accordingly in an industry. The research includes terms and definitions from various sources to develop a better understanding of the concepts included in this research and as a result of which how they can be practically applied in the industry being targeted. Also the research is a combination of technical and theoretical knowledge attained carefully and with the utmost validity and reliability. Being a primary research the course carries a lot of importance and brings significant results which have not previously known. With a diversified set of concepts related to the research and respondents of the questioners, the data collected is from several hotels in the North of Cyprus and attempts to draw the impact knowledge management on the hotel industry and its performance as a result of its implementation. The results pinpoint that there is a positive perspective of the impact correlation of knowledge management among competitive advantage, hotel performance and market orientation in hospitality industry.

Keywords: Knowledge Management, Competitive Advantage, Market Orientation, Hotel Performance and North of Cyprus

PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM IMPACTS AND SUSTAINABILITY CONCEPT: INSIGHTS FROM KYRGYZSTAN

Jyldyz Djakypbay KYZY

Master of Science in Tourism Management Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University
Famagusta, Northern Cyprus (TRNC)

Ali ÖZTÜREN

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University Famagusta, Northern Cyprus (TRNC)

ABSTRACT

Tourism development is mainly dependent upon socio-cultural, economic and environmental factors. This study explores the perceptions of environmental, socio-cultural and economic impacts of tourism development by the representatives of government officials, the academicians and the private sectors in Kyrgyzstan. In this scope, all three dimensions (economic, socio-cultural and environmental) need to be identified whether it has negative impacts such as cost of living, environmental degradation, pollution or imitation of foreign behaviors and culture or the positive impacts such as job creation, increased willingness to understand the different cultures and protection of nature and wildlife. Thus, if it is not planned, managed, or monitored competently, the outcome could bring fundamental consequences and it will not only hinder the further development of tourism but also might damage the residents' lifestyle.

In order to achieve the aims and objectives of the thesis, a qualitative approach was used by applying a semistructured interview for the data collection process. The research has revealed that current tourism development in Kyrgyzstan has both negative and positive impacts on economy, culture, and environment. Furthermore, in the light of the collected data, the main tourism development stimulators were identified such as the promotion of cultural identity and pride, enhancement of environmental quality and new perspectives to improve the quality of life.

Social exchange theory was an appropriate theoretical framework to apply for this study as the sustainability concept encompasses the three dimensions of tourism development and sustainability recognizes the importance of the participation of all stakeholders in tourism development. Moreover, the residents are identified as the imperative stakeholders in tourism planning and development. Therefore, it is expected to be aware that sustainable tourism development recognizes and emphasizes that local residents are important stakeholders. The subject of sustainability has taken attention of

many researchers in the recent years, however, these investigations were taken extensively in some developed countries rather than developing countries. Therefore, in addition, the study attempts to explore the awareness of sustainability concept of the experts and practitioners in Kyrgyzstan. The results showed that there is a lack of understanding of the concept particularly among the government officials and the private sector representatives. Moreover, the sustainability concept seems to remain invisible in the practice despite the fact that respondents had some awareness of the subject.

Key Words: Sustainable Tourism, Tourism Development, Economic Impacts, Socio-cultural Impacts, Environmental Impacts, Kyrgyzst

AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF THE ANTECEDENTS OF VISITORS' LOYALTY IN A FESTIVAL SETTING

Georgiana Karadas

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

Hasan Kiliç

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

Cathrine Banga

Eastern Mediterranean University Faculty of Tourism Gazimagusa, North Cyprus, via Mersin 10,
Turkey

ABSTRACT

Festivals are arranged themed celebrations (Cheng, Shih, & Chen, 2016) and a means of brand destination which can be used to create an identity that appeals to consumers and motivates them to visit (Bruwer & Kelly, 2015). Festival organizers consider the quality of festivals programming a critical phase as an effective planning of events is required in order to ensure visitors' satisfaction and loyalty (Yan, Zhang, & Li, 2012). The quality of festival programming is known as the process that deals with designing various festival programs, including its products and features, in order to attract visitors and provide them with great experiences (Ralston, Ellis, Compton, & Lee 2007). Yan and his colleagues (2012) indicate that the quality of festival programming " includes both technical dimensions concerned with what festival visitors can obtain from the festival program and functional dimensions relating to the manner in which organizers present the festival program to visitors"(p.656).

The quality of festivals is another key factor that leads to competitive advantage and which is shown to enhance visitors' satisfaction and loyalty (Tzetzis, Alexandris & Kapsampeli, 2014; Wong, Wu, & Cheng, 2015). Festival- related studies find the investigation of the relationships between festival quality, satisfaction and loyalty to be critical for festival planners and organizers (Yoon, Lee, & Lee, 2010). Considering that the associations between service quality, satisfaction and loyalty have been largely investigated in the service marketing literature, they are still acknowledged as essential topics

which require further research in tourism literature especially within the event and festival domain (Tzetzis, Alexandris, & Kapsampeli, 2014; Yoon et al., 2010).

Previous studies demonstrate that programming quality and festival quality have direct and indirect effects on loyalty via festival satisfaction (Son & Lee, 2011; Tzetzis et al., 2014; Yan et al., 2012; Wong et al., 2015) which indicate that festival satisfaction and festival loyalty are two consequences of festival quality that require further investigation. Due to the lack of research on festival programming (Yan et al., 2012) as well, the present study aims to test the impacts of two antecedents of festival satisfaction and loyalty, specifically quality of festival programming and festival quality.

Festival organizers also need to consider how image congruence influences visitors' behavior. Image congruence denotes the subjective evaluation of the relationship between any two image objects (Huang, Mao, Wang, & Zhang, 2015). Research in hospitality industry focused on particular self-concepts such as social self-image and ideal social self-image (Han & Back, 2008; Han & Hyun, 2013). These studies demonstrate that image congruence has positive effects on tourist satisfaction, intention to revisit and loyalty (Back, 2005; Huang et al., 2015). Nevertheless, there is scarce empirical evidence regarding these relationships within the festival settings.

Loyalty or behavioral intention (indicator of customers' loyalty) denotes consumers' "...willingness to continue patronizing a business over a long term, purchasing and using its goods and services on a repeated and preferably exclusive basis, and voluntarily recommending the firm's products to friends and associates" (Lovelock, 2001, p.151). Whereas festival satisfaction is described as the "overall festival value evaluated by the composite of quality dimensions" (Yoon et al., 2010, p. 337).

Researchers and practitioners underline the benefits festival loyalty denote for festival planners (Wong et al., 2015) in developing strategies to enhance festival quality and satisfaction (Yoon et al., 2010). Therefore, testing the antecedents of festival loyalty such as: festival quality, quality of festival programming, satisfaction, and image congruence, we intend to provide further understanding regarding these relationships within the festival literature.

The present study contributes to the festival literature in several ways by investigating (a) the direct effects of festival quality, quality of festival programming, and image congruence on visitors' satisfaction and loyalty; (b) the positive influence of visitor satisfaction on their loyalty (behavioral intentions) and (c) the mediating role of festival satisfaction on the above mentioned relationships. The sample consists of visitors attending the Jameson Festival which is a three day event that takes place in the Victoria Falls, (the 7th Wonder of the world "The Majestic Victoria Falls"), Zimbabwe.

Key Words: festival programming quality, festival quality, image congruence, satisfaction, loyalty,

REFERENCES:

- Back, K. J. (2005). The effects of image congruence on customers' brand loyalty in the upper middle-class hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 29(4), 448-467.
- Bruwer, J., & Kelley, K. (2015). Service performance quality evaluation and satisfaction in a USA wine festivalscape Buying behavioural effects. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 6(1), 18-38.
- Cheng, J., Shih, H., & Chen, C. (2016). Festival revisiting intention and quality: The case of Taiwan's Lantern Festival. *Universal Journal of Management*, 4(10), 575-580.
- Han, H., & Back, K. J. (2008). Relationships among image congruence, consumption emotions, and customer loyalty in the lodging industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 32(4), 467-490.
- Han, H., & Hyun, S. S. (2013). Image congruence and relationship quality in predicting switching intention: Conspicuousness of product use as a moderator variable. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 37(3), 303-329.
- Huang, H., Lunhua Mao, L., Wang, J., & Zhang, J. J. (2015). Assessing the relationships between image congruence, tourist satisfaction and intention to revisit in marathon tourism: The Shanghai International Marathon. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 16(4), 46-66.
- Lovelock, C. (2001). *Service Marketing: People, Technology, Strategy*. 4th ed.. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ralston, L.S., Ellis, G.D., Compton, D.M., & Lee, J. (2007). Staging memorable events and festivals: An integrated model of service and experience factors. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 3(2), 24-38.
- Son, S. M., & Lee, K. M. (2011). Assessing the influences of festival quality and satisfaction on visitor behavioral intentions. *Event Management*, 15(3), 293-303.
- Tzetzis, G.,Alexandris, K., & Kapsampeli, S. (2014). Predicting visitors' satisfaction and behavioral intentions from service quality in the context of a small-scale outdoor sport event. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 5(1), 4-21.
- Wong, J., Wu, H. C., & Cheng, C. C. (2015). An empirical analysis of synthesizing the effects of festival quality, emotion, festival image and festival satisfaction on festival loyalty: A case study of Macau Food Festival. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 17(6), 521-536.
- Yan, Q., Zhang, H., & Li, M. (2012). Programming quality of festivals: Conceptualization, measurement, and relation to consequences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(4), 653-673.
- Yoon,Y., Lee, J., & Lee, C. (2010). Measuring festival quality and value affecting visitors' satisfaction and loyalty using a structural approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(2), 335-342

TESTING THE ROLE OF TOURISM GROWTH IN ENERGY CONSUMPTION: THE CASE OF NORTHERN CYPRUS

Setareh Sodeyfi

Assistant Professor of Finance Department of Banking and Finance Faculty of Economics & Administrative Sciences, University of Kyrenia Karakum, Kyrenia, Northern Cyprus Via Mersin 10, Turkey Tel: +90 533 848 8840 Email: setareh.sodeyfi @ gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Searching the link between energy consumption and environmental degradation has been very popular in the energy economics literature of the last decade. However, searching the link between energy consumption, environment, and particular sectors of the economy deserves attention from researchers. That is, the effects of economic sectors on energy and environment remains as a gap in the literature. With this respect, this study investigates the relationship between tourism development and energy consumption in Northern Cyprus through time series analysis. Results reveal that tourism sector and energy consumption are in long-term equilibrium relationship; energy consumption converges towards long-term paths as contributed by tourism development. The effects of tourist flows on the level of fuel oil consumption as a proxy for energy consumption are positively significant revealing that growth in tourism sector leads to increases on the levels of fuel oil consumption thus deteriorates environment through generating additional energy (fuel oil) demand and consumption. Thus, the major finding of this study is that tourism development exerts deteriorating effects on environment in the case of Northern Cyprus.

Keywords: Tourism; Energy Consumption; Environment; Cyprus.

THE MOTIVATION FACTORS AND THE PERCEPTIONS OF RESIDENTS IN NORTH CYPRUS TOWARDS MEDICAL TOURISM IN TURKEY

Tugce Kurtulus

Ali Ozturen

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Medical tourism (MT) is one of the fastest-growing tourism sectors in the world, and many countries are currently planning to involve in this market legally and practically. Medical tourism is a contemporary tourism market in developing countries also we can call MT as a new global niche market and it has been recently and instantly boomed.

"Medical tourism is a particular form of patient mobility, where patients travel across borders or to overseas destination to receive treatments including fertility, cosmetic, dental, transplantation and elective surgery" (Lunt, Horsfall, & Hanefeld, 2016).

Turkey has a huge potential for MT and it is expected that Turkey will be the country of opportunities for International investors in tourism sector as well. "The number of tourists that visited Turkey is around 40 million in previous year, 2015. Turkey's health care system has already started to compete with other European countries' health services" (<http://www.invest.gov.tr/en-US/sectors/Pages/WellnessAndTourism.aspx>)

The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors related to perceptions of and possible participation in medical tourism by the North Cyprus residents in Turkey. Main aim is to examine the factors and the perception of Turkish Cypriots who travel to Turkey to have medical treatments and their pursuit of medical tourism in the future. In this research, Medical tourism is which people visit a destination to experience medical services (including health care and wellbeing programs) and touristic activities.

This research is contributed to the existing literature by investigating the perceptions of North Cyprus residents towards Medical tourism in Turkey. Also results are contributed for the North Cyprus's Ministry of health as well as Turkey's ministry of health and Ministry of Culture And Tourism Of Turkey and Investment Support and Promotion Agency of Turkey. Also there are few researches have been carried out to understand the nature of the industry and it is contributed for future research.

According to the purpose of the study, methodology of this study is Quantitative research because

this type of research technique is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. Also questionnaires are used to collect information's from wider group of people. Data is collected from the residents in North Cyprus in order to gain better understanding their perceptions for medical Tourism in Turkey by using non probability sampling method, convenient technique.

In the results of this research, we found out that most of the residents in North Cyprus has a positive and significant relationship with Medical Tourism in Turkey due to lack of quality and opportunities in North Cyprus. Also the results shows that most of the respondents are travelling Turkey to have eye, dentist, esthetic surgery and for oncology treatments. Quality and modernization of the hospitals and knowledge of the doctors are playing huge roles in motivating North Cyprus residents to travel Turkey for treatment.

KEY WORDS: Medical Tourism, Perceptions of North Cyprus Residents, Turkey, Motivation Factors

REFERENCES

Lunt, Neil, Daniel Horsfall, and Johanna Hanefeld. "Medical Tourism: A Snapshot Of Evidence On Treatment Abroad". *Maturitas* 88 (2016): 37-44. Web.
<http://www.invest.gov.tr/en-US/sectors/Pages/WellnessAndTourism.aspx> Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Turkey, Mevlut ÇAVUŞOĞLU

QUALITY VS QUANTITY: WHAT EDIRNE'S TOURISM MANAGEMENT IS MISSING?

Atila Yuksel

Department of Food and Beverage Management, Tourism Faculty, Adnan Menderes University,
Aydin, Turkey

Aydemir Ay

Advisor to the Mayor, Edirne Municipality, Edirne, Turkey

Aril Cansel

Department of Real Estate Management, Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey

Erdogan Ekiz

Faculty of Tourism, King Abdulaziz University Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Tourism development is inevitable. It has long been associated with changes in landscape, attraction of mid to big scale investments and attempts to attract high volume of promising and profitable markets. Several cases around the world have further evidenced that a sustainable tourism development without involvement of local social fabric almost always remains as a far-fetched dream (Bai et al., 2014). But success rarely follows even the best interactively and collaboratively developed plans for development! This paper intends to discuss the reason why failure in such plans is inevitable and to bring forward the contrasting worlds of visitors and hosts, as authorities and locals.

A preliminary analysis of interviews with representatives of several local associations and authorities, along with local people surprisingly indicate that tourism as a product has been somewhat envisaged wrongly. A debatable yet widespread assumption present in the answers is that attraction of high volume of visitors should be the ultimate goal, as it is taken as a tangible, measurable, comparable indicator of success. The majority of interviewees seem to have been hypnotized by the possibility of drawing ever growing demands of a high flow of visitors without accordingly getting organized. Attraction of big volumes without management strategies designed to locate and understand main obstacles holding actors back from delivering memorable experience to visitors would be deceptive, and the bubble of initial success would burst down eventually (Getz and Page, 2016).

The preliminary analysis shows that there is a clear failure in understanding of what visitors are really after of, and this is like a time bomb. In contrast to what interviewees think, the real product which visitors are there to consume is neither buildings of hotels, restaurants, cafes, their architecture, the

nature, nor the climate, rivers, caves, foods, historical places, etc. The pursued product is the holistic ‘memorable experience’ drawn from sights, tastes, scents, touches and sounds (Mahdzar et al., 2015). What has been suggested and debated by interviewees in general contrast with what the ultimate beholder ‘the visitor’ thinks, wants and enjoys.

In addition to interviewees’ statements, an additional review of visitors’ comments accessible online was undertaken. Reading what Edirne offers from the eyes of independent visitors tells a different story. For instance, the local dialect has been found very amusing in the eyes of visitors: “While I was taking the shot of a car, the old Romans sitting in the cafe were giggling with their own dialect saying out loud “what the heck is happening? I was very fascinated by the old Roman elderly who approached me and said in his own dialect “we are all Roman here” “mahallede epicigimiz romaniz bea”. My mother’s side is from Karaagag and the father’s side is from Trabzon, and I am most amused by these two dialects. It is not because of my origin, because they are funny (Ozkaya & Ozkaya, 2016, p. ?)”. It is also strange not to see experiencing of multi-nationality while strolling in the streets of Edirne and the serenity that Edirne offers to its visitors in the statements of interviewees. Enchanting, fascinating, magnificent, surprising, art, unique, different world are the frequent words that are apparent in the comments of visitors and these adjectives are not sufficiently exploited by authorities. It is very clear that while thinking about present shortcomings, problems and how future can be brighter, Edirne Tourism Management team is omitting their own strengths. Development requires not only finding out problems and bringing smart solutions, but also being aware of current strengths and their future sustainability.

Key Words: Tourism Development, Management, Qualitative and Quantitative Methodologies, Edirne, Turkey

SAMPLE REFERENCES

- Bai, Y., Kou, X., An, S., Ouyang, Y., Wang, J., and Zhu, X. (2014). Integrated Planning of Tourism Investment and Transportation Network Design, *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research*, 2(3), 91-100.
- Getz, D., and Page, S. J. (2016). Event studies: Theory, research and policy for planned events. Routledge.
- Mahdzar, M., Shuib, A., Herman, M. S., & Ramachandran, S. (2015). Perceive quality, memorable experience and behavioral intentions: An examination of tourists in National Park. *Hospitality and Tourism 2015: Proceedings of HTC 2015* (Malacca, Malaysia, 2-3 November 2015), 25.
- Ozkaya, N. O. and Ozkaya, O. (2016). Gunubirlik Edirne Gezimiz. Published on June 8, 2016, Retrieved from <http://www.gezgincift.com/gunubirlik-edirne-gezimiz>.

SENIOR TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR IMPROVING THE CUSTOMER EXPERIENCE OF AN EVOLVING MARKET SEGMENT

Maria Adela Balderas and Elena Urdaneta
Basque Culinary Center, Spain

ABSTRACT

Population ageing is a well-known phenomenon in most developed countries, where the proportion of older people has been steadily growing over the past century (Harper and Leeson, 2008). The United Nations (2015) has recognised the fact that the numbers of the older population are growing rapidly, and it has estimated that over two billion people will be aged 60 years and over by the year 2050, which will account for 22% (or one out of five) of the world's population, compared to 10% in 2000. These demographic shifts will be seen across all continents (United Nations, 2000). But becoming old does not necessarily restrict seniors' desire to travel; in fact the opposite is occurring and this will have a great impact on the tourism and hospitality industry. Understanding what type of tourism seniors want to do in the future, their motivations and behaviour, and accounting for these changes in a proactive way will not only provide exciting opportunities for research but it will also have practical implications for the hospitality industry, public policy makers, industry practitioners and travel marketers. Meta- analysis, an evolutionary analysis of the literature and a total of 82 in depth and semi structured interviews were conducted in two different countries in an attempt to shed light on the different variables that affect senior tourism consumption, and to analyse and determine if the tourism behaviour of seniors is common from a global and international perspective.

This presentation outlines (1) how hospitality industry needs to respond to seniors changing needs, wants and expectations; (2) the changing sociodemographic trends and (3) concludes with a discussion of key considerations for the hospitality industry regarding customer experience for senior travellers.

Keywords:

Seniors, tourism, hospitality, customer experience, market segment.

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP AND SUPERVISOR TRUST IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Magdaline Enow Mbi Tarkang Mary, Huseyin Arasli and Ruth Yunji
Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North Cyprus

Abstract

Purpose - The aim of this paper is to develop and test a conceptual model that investigates the effect of ethical leadership on affective commitment and organizational deviance. Also it tries to measure the mediating role of supervisor trust between ethical leadership and work outcome in five star hotels in north Cyprus.

Design/methodology/approach - The primary data used in this study were gathered from the full time employees within a period of two months. The data was run on SPSS version 20 and AMOS in analyzing the data via descriptive statistics, factor, correlation and regression analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and CFA to test the relationships. The construct ethical leadership was treated as an independent variable, supervisor trust as a mediator variable and affective commitment and organizational deviance as dependent variables. Judgmental sampling was used in the data collection process. A self-administered survey was prepared and distributed face to face

Findings - Results of this study showed that ethical leadership positively affected affective commitment and negatively affected organizational deviance. The results also showed that trust mediated the positive relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment and the negative relationship between affective commitment and deviance. The results reported in this study further suggest that employees are very committed when they perceive good ethics in their leader thus they will not involve themselves in deviance actions. Also when employees trust their leaders, they become committed to their jobs.

Practical implications - Management of these hotels should continue to train and motivate their hotel leaders to be ethical in their behaviors and so that their employees should have trust in them and become more committed to their jobs. By doing this they will avoid any form of work place deviance that will bring down the reputation of their hotels. They should also maintain their standards by hiring professionals' employees who know the ethics of hotel jobs. Managers should give their employees

especially frontline employees the opportunity for a resourceful work environment where they will be offered training, empowerment, rewards and career opportunities that will motivate them to be committed to their jobs

Originality/value -A good number of studies have been done on ethical leadership and affective commitment in the hospitality industry but just a hand full has been done in small micro states like north Cyprus but, the extant leadership literature points out that the studies relevant to supervisor trust as a mediator is sparse in the hotel industry.

Key words: ethical leadership, trust, affective commitment, organizational deviance.

EFFECT OF JOB STRESSORS ON EMPLOYEES WORK OUTCOME THROUGH BURNOUT

Nazanin Naderiadib Alper and Huseyin Arasli
Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

The present study investigates the relationship between hindrance stressors and frontline employees' job search behaviour through the mediating role of burnout. Respondents, who were selected by means of convenient sampling method were given a self-administered survey. Pilot Data were gathered from 70 full-time frontline employees in the five-star hotels in North Cyprus and were subject to further analysis in SPSS and Amos programs.

According to the literature there are two different types of job stressors which have different work outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). These stressors are classified as challenge or hindrance stressors among which two hindrance stressors (lack of job autonomy and job insecurity) have been examined in this particular study since both of them were among neglected stress constructs in the literature. As part of the impairment process, burnout has been added to the model to see to what extent it can mediate the effect of abovementioned stressors on frontline employee's job search behaviour in the organizations.

The proposed model of this study has been tested using job demand resource theory. According to the theoretical models of stress and well-being job demands have been often seen as factors that increase work-related strain (Demerouti, 2001; Karasek, 1979; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

However, there is a lack of clarity in how these job demands play a role as job stress (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). This lack of clarity is perhaps the main reason for the uncertainty in some research findings where the relationships between job demands and well-being are positive (e.g., workload, job responsibility and mental overload has been related positively to engagement over time; Karatepe et al., 2014; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007) or negative (e.g., Role conflict and lack of social support has been related positively to burnout over time (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008; Ventura et al., 2014). One possible reason for this is that job demands have not been evaluated correctly. Therefore, recent researches like (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005) indicate that demands do not necessarily have to be factors that increase strain, but rather it depends on how they are perceived, that is, whether they are seen as challenges or hindrances (Ventura et al., 2014).

This study will focus on hindrance stressors due to the contextual factors. Employees who experience hindrance stressors feel threatened and do not show enough motivation while doing their jobs and as a result, their performance will reduce and they may start to search for a new job. Organizations that can better manage and control hindrance stressors while promoting challenge stressors will likely attract more number of loyal employees, with greater support perceptions, which might lessen some of the tension of working into today's unsettled environments. Extended theoretical implications as well as management implications will be discussed in the main article.

Key Words: Job Stressors, Job Outcomes, Hotel Employees, Burnout, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.

PARTIAL LEAST SQUARES STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (PLS-SEM) FOR HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM RESEARCH

Mehmet Mehmetoglu

Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Norway

Sergio Venturini

Università Commerciale Luigi Bocconi, Italy

Abstract

Tourism and hospitality research contains a large share of consumer behaviour orientated studies using multidimensional constructs (exogenous/endogenous). Accordingly, scholars have mainly made use of a two-step approach that can be referred to as PCA-MLR (principal component and then ordinary least squares multiple linear regression analysis) to examine the relationships among exogenous and endogenous constructs in a statistical model. Although this two-step approach has contributed to the advancement of tourism and hospitality research, it still suffers from a number of drawbacks which can readily be overcome by a so-called second generation statistical tool, namely partial least squares approach to structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM).

The current work, using the *plssem* package programmed by the authors in Stata, explains and illustrates (with an application to tourism data) the advantages (e.g. several layers of estimations, suiting small sample sizes, model-based clustering etc.) of PLS-SEM both from a statistical and practical point of view. An elucidation is also provided for suggesting PLS-SEM as an alternative to PCA-MLR instead of COV-SEM (Covariance-based structural equation modelling). However, despite the fact that PLS-SEM and COV-SEM are viewed by the authors as complementary approaches, the current work refers also to cases in which PLS-SEM is suggested to be considered as an alternative to COV-SEM itself as well.

BULLYING IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE ENEMY UNDER ICEBERG!

Elham Anasori

Eastern Mediterranean University North Cyprus elanasori@yahoo.com

Huseyin ARASLI

Eastern Mediterranean University North Cyprus araslih@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Hospitality organizations are experiencing a very severe competition due to the mushrooming number of identical service institutions around. The customer expectations and attitudes while increasing and becoming vital in the survival or growth of these labor intensive organizations; at the center of this process, frontline employees with his delivery, responsiveness, assurance and emphatic attitudes and behaviors toward customers and co-worker support and corporation among are having a considerable role. The arena, no need to say that have a climate which is stressful and keeping and retaining frontline employees is not so easy. The turnover is about to 60% to 70% and the problem is very costly in terms of recruitment, training, and orientation; as well as, threatening the sustainability of service quality and its associated loyal guests. Although different stressors on full-time employees have been examined with turnover intention in the literature ie., role ambiguity, work overload, job responsibility, family work conflict etc. recently in the industry, this study focused on examining the relationship between workplace bullying and intention to quit behavior of front-line employees in the hospitality industry. Before conducting the main survey, a pilot study on 100 employees in four(50) and five-star hotels(50) have been chosen along with their supervisors by judgmental sampling method in spring period of 2016 in north Cyprus Data have been collected from full-time frontline staff and their supervisors. The study outcomes show that bullying as a job stressor has an intense and significant negative effect on employees' intention to quit the job. The results of this study provide unique and applicable implications to the hospitality industry. It may be helpful to hotel executives, owners, researchers, and academics.

Keywords: north Cyprus; Bullying; turnover intention, front-line hotel employees; job outcomes

SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF TOURISTS TO THE PERIPHERAL DESTINATIONS: THE CASE STUDY OF ISFAHAN, IRAN

Habib Alipour, Farzad Safaeimanesh, Shahrzad Safaeimanesh and Aghdas Zaghian
Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Isfahan is a well-known city in Iran that attracts domestic and international tourists alike. Its historical and cultural attractions are the envy of many other tourist destinations. Isfahan has been designated as a World Heritage City by UNESCO, possesses wide variety of Islamic architecture, ranging from 11th century to the 19th century (Amirkhani, Okhovat, & Zamani, 2010). Some of the main unique attractions are vernacular tile-works, wall paintings and decorations, the outstanding architecture and ornamentations of the mosques, impressive palaces, Naghsh-e-Jahan Square, old colorful houses, fascinating bazaars, minarets, pigeon towers, wonderful old bridges and tourist, beautiful natural attractions of the Zayandeh Rood river, to name a few. Inhabitants with many religions have lived in the city for centuries. Nevertheless, it has become a tourist magnet in a region with various towns and villages as well as attractions. It is the birth place of grand theologists, numerous artists, poets and masters in different fields of science and knowledge and manifest glorious fine arts, world famous Persian rugs and great varieties of handicrafts. The Zayandeh Rood river (life giving river) runs through the city, which great civilizations grew besides that. Isfahan is well known as tourist pole and as a multi-function city (Seifolddini-Faranak, Fard, & Ali, 2009). Forasmuch as tourism is a worldwide socio-economic phenomenon, the growth of tourist industry need for planning. According to Ranjbarian, Ghafari, and Emami (2011), tourism planning composes a process based on the study and appraisal of resources that are available in the area and the alternative solutions, in order to optimize tourism's contribution to human prosperity and environmental quality. This planning should perform based on important criteria such as tourist distribution, which spatial planning by using GIS can virtualize tourist activities and cumulative pressure of environment and the potential conflicts with the others (Kokkali, Vassilopoulou, & Panagiotidis, 2016). This study aims to develop a model for the purpose of dispersing tourists in the region. The study aims to utilize Central Place Theory (CPT) (Daniels, 2007; King, 1984) as a framework and generate a tourism model that will contribute to tourists' spatial distribution to achieve the following outcomes. The methods of research will be based on qualitative research and data collection will be through focus group interview and content

analysis. The study hypothesizes that by spatially distributing tourists, the economic impact will be the trickle to the peripheral communities. Spatial dispersion of the tourists will result in the higher length of stay. Spatial distribution will reduce the concentration of tourists in the city and consequently will reduce the social and environmental impacts. Last but not least, the spatial distribution of tourists and its positive economic impact will reduce the quantity of migration from periphery to the city. It is assumed that this will narrow the economic gap between the metropolitan area and the periphery. In the context of regional tourism planning, regional disparities have always challenged planners and policy makers. Nowadays, tourism has become a socio-economic force that can play a significant role in achieving regional development goals. The abovementioned issues are of utmost importance that most of the developing countries are facing. The main contribution of this study is its policy implications for regional planners and tourism sector to overcome some of the severe economic problems in the peripheries of main urban areas as Isfahan.

Keywords: tourism impact, tourist distribution, spatial planning, case of Isfahan

REFERENCES

- Amirkhani, A., Okhovat, H., & Zamani, E. (2010). Ancient pigeon houses: Remarkable example of the Asian culture crystallized in the architecture of Iran and central Anatolia. *Asian Culture and History*, 2(2), 45-57. Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.674.1727&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Daniels, M. J. (2007). Central place theory and sport tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 332-347. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.09.004>
- King, L. J. (1984). *Central place theory*. SAGE Publications. Retrieved from http://rri.wvu.edu/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/1_CentralPlaceTheory.pdf
- Kokkali, A., Vassilopoulou, V., & Panagiotidis, P. (2016). Tourism assessment as part of a marine spatial planning initiative in a region of central-western Greece. Retrieved from <https://oceanos-dspace.hcmr.gr/handle/123456789/1269>
- Ranjbarian, B., Ghafari, M., & Emami, A. (2011). Typologies of inbound tourists who visited Isfahan. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(11), 1404-1408. Retrieved from <https://www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/20123030773>
- Seifolddini-Faranak, M., Fard, S., & Ali, H. (2009). Distribution and determining of tourist attractions and modeling of tourist cities for the city of isfahan-iran. *Am. J. Econ. Bus. Admin*, 1, 160-166. Retrieved from <http://docsdrive.com/pdfs/sciencepublications/ajebasp/2009/160-166.pdf>

Enhancing the Social Wellbeing of Elderly through Engagement with Temple

Wen-Ching Chang and Levent Altinay

Providence University, Taiwan

Oxford Brookes University, United Kingdom

Non-Technical Summary

This study aims to understand how elderly people engagement with temple activities organized by temples, such as day trip or pilgrimage activities, could help them become more socially connected with the rest of the community and enhance their social wellbeing. The project brings together three constructs, namely customer engagement, social connectedness and social wellbeing, as exploited by management and marketing, psychology and healthcare and sociology researchers respectively. Customer engagement and its relationship with customer satisfaction and revenue generation as business outcomes have been investigated by management and marketing researchers in the past. However, the social outcomes of customer engagement have yet to be investigated. In particular, there is a dearth of studies investigating the role of customer engagement in facilitating social connectedness and enhancing social wellbeing among the elderly. Likewise, psychology, healthcare and sociology researchers investigated the relationship between social connectedness and wellbeing without taking into consideration the role of religious commercial activities in helping the elderly themselves to engage in tackling this social problem. Through examining the interface between customer engagement, social connectedness and wellbeing, this study will offer insights into how temples can facilitate customer engagement with elderly customers thus helping them to reduce social isolation and improve wellbeing. The study will also demonstrate that social wellbeing as a social issue can not only be tackled by healthcare and psychological interventions but also with the help of religious commercial activities oriented towards experiential consumption.

The study will employ a mixed methods approach. In the first phase of the project, quantitative data will be collected through structured interviews with 300 people aged 65+ years in five highest ranked cities on loneliness index in Taiwan. The study will adopt the scales developed by Vivek (2009), Toepoel (2012) and De Jong Gierveld and van Tilburg (2006) to measure customer engagement, social connectedness and loneliness respectively. The study will involve performing factor analysis and multiple regression analysis to first identify different dimensions of customer engagement, social connectedness and loneliness and then assess the significance of the relationship between these

constructs. These analyses will inform the second phase of the data collection. In the second phase, ten focus group interviews will be conducted in order to strengthen the contextual understanding of the relationship between the constructs and make the project practically more relevant and meaningful. Each group will consist of a mix of temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple, elderly customers and policy makers. These focus group interviews will aim to explore i) the enablers and disablers of elderly customer engagement and their social connectedness, and ii) understand how best customer engagement and social connectedness could be facilitated through the co-creation of consumption activities by involving elderly customers into the process of production and consumption and encouraging their social interactions both with the service providers and other customers. Dissemination and engagement will be achieved through workshops and presentations to the temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple, and policy makers and, sharing the results through the media and various websites. The findings will also be presented to the temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple, as guidelines providing strategic and operational recommendations on how to facilitate elderly customers' engagement with temple activities.

Aim and objectives

Aim: To evaluate how elderly customers' engagement with temple activities influences their social connectedness and helps them to improve social wellbeing.

Objectives:

To identify how customer engagement influences social connectedness and loneliness.

To examine how elderly customers' engagement with temple activities influences their social connectedness.

To understand how social connectedness gained through engagement impacts on the loneliness of elderly customers.

To explore with elderly customers, temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple, and with policy makers what policies, strategies and tactics could be developed to facilitate the social connectedness of the elderly and help them to overcome their loneliness.

To develop guidelines and recommendations to temples and policy makers on how to address the problem of loneliness and thus contribute to the social wellbeing of the community.

This project uses three key constructs, namely customer engagement, social connectedness and social wellbeing. The first objective of the study will involve updating and expanding the review of the

literature in these areas and establishing the linkages between these constructs. The review will lead to the development of a framework and formulation of the research hypotheses to be tested.

The second objective of the study will involve collecting data for the first phase of the fieldwork. In the first phase of the project, quantitative data will be collected through structured interviews with 300 people aged 65+ years living at home in five highest ranked cities on loneliness index in Taiwan. A stratified random sampling technique will be used to select the sample of respondents based on a sample of postal codes. The study will adopt the scale developed by Vivek (2009) (later published, Vivek et al., 2012) to measure elderly customer engagement. To measure connectedness, the study will adopt the scale developed by Toepoel (2012) that enables the measurement of both objective and subjective connectedness. The Loneliness Scale developed by De Jong Gierveld and van Tilburg (2006) has proven to be a reliable and valid measurement instrument for overall, emotional, and social loneliness and will therefore be adopted by this study.

The second and third objectives of the study will involve performing factor analysis and multiple regression analysis to first identify different dimensions of customer engagement, social connectedness and loneliness and then assess the significance of the relationship between these constructs. These analyses will inform the third objective of the study.

The fourth objective of the study will involve conducting focus group interviews with a mix of temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple, and elderly customers and policy makers, such as councilors, from different regions of Taiwan. The emerging results from the first phase of the fieldwork will be the basis for focus group interviews and will aim to explore i) the enablers and disablers of elderly customer engagement and their social connectedness in different temples activities and ii) understand how best customer engagement and social connectedness could be facilitated through the co-creation of temple activities by involving elderly customers into the process of production and consumption and thus facilitating their social connectedness.

The fifth objective of the study will involve dissemination of the findings and engaging the beneficiaries in order to make the project practically meaningful and relevant and thus more influential in terms of its impact. Dissemination and engagement will be achieved through workshops and presentations to the temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple and policy makers and, through sharing the results through the media and various websites. Findings will also be presented to the temple attendance in charge of incense in a temple as guidelines providing strategic and operational recommendations on how to facilitate elderly customers' engagement with temple activities.

CURRENT PRACTICE OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN A HOTEL CONTEXT: A CASE STUDY

Cihan ALPHUN and Mine Haktanır

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

Today, competitiveness has reached its peak point as a result of the removal of borders in the world. One of the industries that is exposed to such rivalry is the hospitality industry, which continues to grow day by day. Northern Cyprus as a developing island attaches importance to the tourism and hospitality industry as a major revenue contribution to the island's economic development. One of the main constituents of the hospitality industry is the hotel sector. There is no doubt that, if hotel operations are maintained in a successful and sustainable manner, will yield positive performance outcomes and increased revenue. At this point, organizations need good management systems of which critical success factors (CSFs) play an important role as they are the determinants of hotels' performance outcomes. Hence, the aim of this research is to review issues on critical success factors in the hospitality sector. The study's research objective is to identify current range of CSFs particular to this industry by carrying out a single case study in a selected five star hotel in Famagusta region of Northern Cyprus. Additionally, the paper aims to examine CSFs in the light of contextual factors surrounding the chosen hotel through qualitative data collection method.

Since the 1990s, tourism industry has usage of CSFs and still is a popular research topic in this industry (Marais et al., 2017). They are also referred as key performance indicators, or key success factors. According to the extant literature, critical success factors have an utmost importance on the organization's performance level. Earlier CSFs defined as "the limited number of areas in which satisfactory results will ensure successful competitive performance for the individuals, departments, or organizations" (Bullen & Rockart 1986, p. 385). CSFs is being involved at all levels of an organization in order to extract most notable information needs of the top management (Li, Wong, & Luk, 2006). Organization executives need CSFs in order to understand main areas of operation and performance outcomes related to them. Once these areas are known, executives establish their missions accordingly and then direct their operational activities towards attaining their missions. Therefore, CSFs play an influential role on the firm and its competitive position in the market. There are several characteristics of success factors. Firstly, they can be generic or context specific. While generic factors are common for businesses, contextual ones are shaped according to specific situation

in which business is being operated (Brotherton, 2004b). Furthermore, different industries have different attributes, even companies within the same industry can have varying focuses and targets. Thereof, CSFs are shaped according to the industry/business specific features. These factors are shaped by company's internal and external environment. Internal environment is controllable and involves firm's goods and services, business processes, and people; whereas, external environment is less controllable and is related with company's rivalry and market conditions (Brotherton, 2004b).

With respect to the hospitality industry, there have been numerous published studies in the literature. To begin with, CSFs are intensely researched by famous author in this topic, Brotherton (2004a; 2004b). Other hospitality CSFs studies are done by Geller(1985), Haktanir and Harris (2005); Harris and Mongiello (2001).

Very recently a literature review study on CSFs in the tourism industry has been done by Marais et al., (2017) who demonstrated that human resources, quality and finances are the factors which are used very frequently. Moreover, Avcikurt et al. (2010) made a research in small hotels and found that service quality, marketing, financial performance, and internet usage were fundamental CSFs for this sector. In addition, CSFs of China's budget hotels were found as quality of service, price, location of hotel, physical products and promotions (Hua et al., 2009).

Therefore, the current study is believed to contribute in identifying the key factors utilised in hospitality industry, together with its role in the overall performance measurement of hospitality businesses.

Key words: Critical Success Factors, Hospitality, Case study

REFERENCES

- Avcikurt, C., Altay, H., & Oguzhan Ilban, M. (2011). Critical success factors for small hotel businesses in Turkey: an exploratory study. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52(2), 153-164.
- Brotherton, B. (2004a). Critical success factors in UK budget hotel operations. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 24(9), 944-969.
- Brotherton, B. (2004b). Critical success factors in UK corporate hotels. *The Service Industries Journal*, 24(3), 19-42.
- Geller, A. N. (1985). Tracking the critical success factors for hotel companies. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 25(4), 77-81.
- Haktanir, M., & Harris, P. (2005). Performance measurement practice in an independent hotel context: A case study approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(1), 39-50.
- Harris, P. J., & Mongiello, M. (2001). General Managers' Actions and Hotel Chain Performance Profiles. A research into European properties. In *British Accounting Association Conference*,

Nottingham.

- Hua, W., Chan, A., & Mao, Z. (2009). Critical success factors and customer expectation in budget hotel segment—A case study of China. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(1), 59-74.
- Li, S. C., Wong, M. C., & Luk, S. T. (2006). The importance and performance of key success factors of international joint venture hotels in China. *Chinese Economy*, 39(6), 83-94.
- Marais, M., du Plessis, E., & Saayman, M. (2017). A review on critical success factors in tourism. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 1-12.
- Rockart, J. F., & Bullen, C. V. (1986). A Primer on Critical Success Factors" published in *The Rise of Managerial Computing: The Best of the Center for Information Systems Research*, edited with Christine V. Bullen, Homewood, IL: DowJones-Irwin.

EXPLORING TOURISTS' DESTINATION IMAGES OF CULTURAL HERITAGES: THE CASE STUDY OF NORTH CYPRUS

Elham Anasori Eastern Mediterranean University North Cyprus elanasori@yahoo.com

Farzad Safaei Manesh Eastern Mediterranean University North Cyprus f.safaeimane.sh@gmail.com

Habib Alipour Eastern Mediterranean University North Cyprus Habib.alipour@emu.edu.tr

Abstract

The aim of this study is to determine the factors that influence tourist perception of North Cyprus. Tourists' perception of this island shed light on strong and weaknesses of features of North Cyprus in general and cultural heritages specifically. Furthermore, this study tends to explore tourist revisit intention to North Cyprus. In order to conduct our research, we have done a survey with one hundred international tourists who the majority came from Britain and Germany. Based on the results of the study the strong and weak points regarding North Cyprus cultural heritages have been manifested. The study indicated that pleasant environment of cultural heritages, accessibility to cultural heritage sites and having warm and friendly staff of cultural heritage sites were the strong features of these sites in North Cyprus. However, the weak features were the lack of instructions and information about these sites to read and also uncleanness of some part of these sites were among the weak points of tourists' perception of these sites. This study also has some notable implications for managers and individuals who are responsible in this regard. Moreover, limitations and recommendations for future research will be discussed in the paper.

Keywords: cultural heritages, tourists' perception, North Cyprus, revisit intention

TRAVELERS' PERCEPTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION CAUSED BY UNSUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN PUBLIC TOURISM RESORTS: EVIDENCE FROM CASPIAN SEA REGION, IRAN

Hamed Rezapouraghdam, Raheleh Hassannia and Bahareh Hassanzadeh
Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

The Caspian Hyrcanian mixed forests and their coastlines of the periphery in Iran have always been of the most popular tourism destinations for both the domestic and international travelers, so at the same time, a victim of environmental degradation caused by unsustainable development and irresponsible behavior of stakeholders. Drawing on the theory of common-property resources, this study evaluates the perception of visitors about the environmental problems in this unique and pristine area. Employing a stratified random sampling, structured surveys in Likert-type scales were administrated to 328 tourists in public recreation resorts and camps of Mazandaran province over peak season in 2015. Respondents rated to what degree they believed that environmental degradations have negatively influenced their recreational activities including camping, swimming, sightseeing and walking. The majority of the participants (63%) who were from diverse educational, occupational and age groups outlined that environmental problems in public resorts have been very evident in surroundings and a major obstacle disturbing their vacation. The result of study presumed that if the present mode of unsustainable development goes on, the ecological existence of natural resources in Caspian Sea region will be at real risk. Such a situation not only will threaten the viability of the tourism industry in the studied area but the well-being of any other engaged stakeholder in near future as well. To overcome this issue, firstly a clear sustainable tourism master plan in which the role and right of every single stakeholder have been considered is required. Additionally increasing the public awareness through different mechanisms such as social media about the causes and consequences of the activities that lead to natural degradation will be effective. Finally, the return of tourism benefits directly to the local communities will enhance the desire of the indigenous people to preserve such public resources too.

Key word: Tourism; Caspian Sea; unsustainable development; common-property; environmental degradation

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY: AN OBSERVATION THROUGH THE LENSE OF LEGITIMACY

Huseyin Arasli, Hamed Rezapouraghdam, Elaheh Behravesht and Amin Shahgerdi
Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

The increased customers' awareness and their pressure on hospitality organizations have forced tourism firms to focus beyond their own business and economic returns to care more about the responsibilities they have towards societies; what is termed as "Corporate social responsibility" (CSR). Therefore the hotels as a major part of tourism industry try to ensure their practices are accountable to societies. There are three major methods of measuring organizations' CSR: expert assessments, single or multiple indicators, and surveys of management. However, few attentions have been paid to characterizing the CSR performance of hotel companies through the perception of their employees. Underpinned by legitimacy theory the current study aims to fill this gap by assessing the extent to which CSR is practiced in the hotels they work. This theory refers to a generalized perception that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs. Employing a judgmental sampling, 214 front-level employees of five-star hotels in Mashhad, a famous religious tourism destination in Iran, participated in this study and answered self-administered survey questionnaires whose on top a general description of CSR was provided. Based on the descriptive results and mean score of each question it was identified that out of 12 attributes of CSR questioned in this study, the employees asserted the presence of 7 items in their workplace. For instance: providing a friendly work environment and respecting the rights of customers. However, the attributes like the demonstration of commitment to sustainable development and deriving a positive public relation from CSR received below than average ratings. The findings of this study revealed that the hotels in the study area are engaged in CSR activities but they need to demonstrate their commitment to CSR more holistically. For instance, they should focus more on the sustainable developmental activities in favor of the community. Moreover, as one of the important stakeholders of hotels, the employees should be participated in and informed about the CSR performance of their workplace in details.

Key words: Tourism; hotel; employees; corporate social responsibility

THE ROLE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN TOURISM EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS

Mustafa Ilkan
Mobina Beheshti
Sima Rahimizhian
Erim Atalar

Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

Tourism education is introduced as a formal program of study which enhances the economic contribution of the tourism industry to both public and private sectors. The ICT is one of the success tools in tourism in the future and the way it enhances the destinations of tourist. The proposed research aims to represent the impacts of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), as a pedagogical support tool, in tourism teaching, at Eastern Mediterranean University, school of Tourism and Hospitality Management (THM). Nevertheless, ICT is still considered as a limited tool to be integrated as an instructional tool. Based on the recent research, very limited academic research has been carried out on tourism subject at universities particularly in Northern Cyprus. The aim of this study is to find the perceptions of both instructors and students regarding to use technology in tourism education. The research is designed as a quantitative study. The undergraduate students are participating in this research along with tourism instructors. Data will be accumulated with close-ended questions during this study. Learners' positive and negative perceptions regarding ICT in tourism education will be evaluated.

Keywords: Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), Tourism education, ICT in education, ICT in Tourism Education

COMPETITIVE AND COMBATIVE ADVERTISEMENTS: A CASE STUDY IN HOSPITALITY BUSINESS

[Mahmood Khan](#), Virginia Tech (NCR), USA, mahmood@vt.edu

[Maryam Khan](#), Howard University, USA

[Kalpagam Ramasubramanian](#), Virginia Tech, USA

Abstract

This case study is based on a critical assessment of the competitive and combative advertisements particularly in the hospitality business. Specifically, this case focuses on the latest breakfast advertising battle between McDonald's and Taco Bell. Recently, fast food chains are competing the growing breakfast market. A combative strategy was used by Taco Bell against its competitor, which received a very unique response. This response is evaluated in this case study, giving similar examples from other corporations such as Mercedes versus Jaguar and Samsung versus Apple. Taco Bell started a promotion directly going after McDonald's in various advertising campaigns, the response proves to be an effective marketing strategy. The case further illustrates how competitive and combative advertisements can have a positive or negative impact.

Keywords: Competitive advertising, Combative advertising, McDonalds, Taco Bell, Breakfast, advertisements, Marketing, promotion strategies

THE ROLE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN ENVIRONMENTAL KUZNETS CURVE: EVIDENCE FROM TOP AND BOTTOM TOURIST DESTINATIONS

Sami Fethi
Elif Şenyücel

Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

The search for interactions between energy consumption, environmental pollution, an economic growth has garnered considerable attention from researchers. However, the relationship of energy consumption and environment quality with particular segments or sectors of the economy deserves attention, and tourism development is one of those segments. International tourism has only been investigated as an engine of growth in some countries. Tourism development not only contributes to an economy, but it also contributes to the other segments. Tourism growth leads to a growth in energy capacity, but on the other hand, expansion in tourism leads to an increase in the level of pollution. An increase in tourism activities comes with an increased demand for energy for various functions such as transportation, catering, accommodation, and the management of tourist attractions. As also mentioned in the literature, hotel buildings are reported in many countries as one of the most energy intensive building sectors. In this respect, an investigation of the relationship between international tourism and pollution is of great interest to both policy makers and practitioners in tourism and would be a contribution in tourism literature.

The empirical link between environmental pollution and energy consumption has been extensively investigated in the energy economics literature. Although the vast majority of studies confirm the existence of an empirical relationship between pollution and energy consumption, the direction of causality between them still remains unclear. On the other hand, recent studies have also tested the validity of the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) hypothesis, which investigates the relationship between environmental pollution and real income growth as well as Tourism development. This study empirically investigates the role of tourism development in Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) of both top 10 and 10 bottom tourist destination countries. Panel data on annual basis that range from 1995 to 2015 have been used through employing the latest available econometric

procedures. Results reveal that tourism development exerts significant long-term effects on the EKC. Carbon emissions in the EKC model converge towards long term equilibrium path significantly through tourism development.

Keywords: Tourism, EKC, Energy Consumption

HOW PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL INFLUENCES ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE?

TESTING THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

Orhan Uludag

Hale Ozgit

Cyprus International University, North Cyprus

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to investigate the influence of psychological capital and student engagement on academic performance. Additionally, student engagement is treated as mediating variable between psychological capital and academic performance. Tourism and Hospitality students enrolled to undergraduate programs were selected as the sample for this study. The data were collected (n=501) from six major Tourism and Hospitality Schools in Northern Cyprus. The hypothesized relationships were drawn from the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR). Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test the hypothesized relationships. Results revealed that psychological capital had a direct positive influence on student engagement and academic performance. Furthermore, student engagement had also a positive impact on academic performance. In order to test the mediating effect Sobel, Aroian, and Goodman tests were conducted. Results depicted that student engagement fully mediated the effect of psychological capital on academic performance on all three mediating tests. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was employed to assess the issue of multicollinearity. The test has revealed no inflated results. Harmans' Single Factor test was also carried out to check for the signs of Common Method Bias (CMB). The result of CMB yielded a value well below the cut-off benchmark. Limitations and implications are also discussed.

Keywords: Psychological Capital, Student Engagement, Academic Performance, Higher Education, Tourism and Hospitality Students

THE ROLE OF SUBJECTIVE PERSON-JOB FIT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED ORGANIZATION SUPPORT AND JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG EMPLOYEES OF TOURISM PLANNING ORGANIZATION

[Nahid Malazizi](#)

Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

This study aims to examine the subjective person-job fit of employee as a mediator of the effects of perceived organizational support on the subsequent positive performance of their job. Two theories of organizational support and personality-job fit theory applied to develop the conceptual model of this study. Data will be gathered from a sample of employees working in the cultural heritage, handicraft and tourism organization (tourism planning organization) located in Ahvaz and Isfahan, Iran. Hierarchical multiple regression will be conducted to test the effect of variables on the job performance. It is assumed that the implication of this study can be helpful for the cultural heritage, handicraft and tourism planning organizations' managers with a high tendency for improving the performance of their employees.

Keywords: Subjective-person job fit, organisational support, job performance

NATION BRANDING AND STRATEGIES FOR COMBATTING TOURISM CRISES AND STEREOTYPES TOWARDS DESTINATIONS

Eli Avraham

Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

Nearly every country and its people are associated with both positive and negative generalizations and stereotypes. As can be expected, these perceptions serve as a key mechanism to categorize and deal with the enormous quantity of information that flows from a wide range of sources regarding all of the world's countries. But how do marketers and national leaders react when these stereotypes constitute a barrier to tourists, investors and international status? This issue is even more frustrating and challenging in cases where such officials feel that the negative perceptions of their destination—as “dangerous”, “primitive”, or “gray”, for example—has no connection to reality. Despite of the fact that stereotypes can be a serious barrier to the arrival of tourists, comprehensive studies, focused on strategies that countries' leaders and marketers have chosen to deal with the stereotypes, have rarely been conducted to date.

The “theory of image repair” is one of the central theories in crisis communication through which organizations, companies and brands can analyze efforts to restore their image. Despite the variety of strategies mentioned in the image repair models—such as denying, reducing offensiveness, bolstering and redressing—the use of most of them might be problematic when seeking to restore a nation's image. Avraham and Ketter (2016), on the other hand, in their “multi-step model for altering place image”, suggest twenty-four strategies to restore place image, divided into three the broad categories of source, audience and message (SAM strategies). Using this model the aim of this study is to examine the strategies that countries around the world have chosen to deal with stereotypes and negative perceptions towards them. Three main research questions are examined in this study: 1. What kinds of stereotypes are the focus of the campaigns? 2. What are the most popular strategies used by countries seeking to change stereotypes or negative perceptions and how are these strategies used in the campaigns? 3. Do the strategies used to change negative perceptions differ either according to the continent where countries are located or according to the type of political regime? This examination made use of quantitative and qualitative analysis of 70 ads, that were uploaded to

YouTube, produced by 47 countries.

The quantitative analysis was done using a coding page that contained 15 variables, including name of the country/continent, kind of advertising, stereotype's field/type, target audience, strategies used, and kind of regime. In the qualitative analysis, several specific case studies that used the strategies were analyzed. The analysis shows that marketers were creative in fighting such stereotypes. We mainly saw the use of three kinds of marketing strategies: source (such as personal testimonies, "Come see for yourself", blaming the media for the distorted image), message (expanding the image, celebrities, confessing to the stereotypes, opposite message to the stereotypes, turning negative to positive, ridiculing the stereotype, promising a great future, softening the hard image, and association to prestigious places), and audience (target audience values and changing the target audience).

Keywords: Nation branding, destination marketing, combatting national stereotypes, image restoration, tourism crisis

References

Avraham, E., & Ketter, E. (2016). *Marketing Tourism for Developing Countries: Battling Stereotypes and Crises in Asia, Africa and the Middle East*. Palgrave-McMillan

**AN EXAMINATION OF SOCIO-POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC IMPACT OF
ECOTOURISM IN HOST COMMUNITY-(A CASE OF AGBOWA-IKOSI AREA OF
LAGOS STATE)**

Metilelu Olumide Olusola
Lagos State Polytechnic, Nigeria

Abstract

The inability of the Nigerian economy to diversify into other areas such as tourism will continue to create social and economic problems in the country. The weak political structure, poor economic strategy to alleviate the poverty level of the Nigerian people, suggests that exploring ecotourism as an appropriate alternative strategy will not only attract the needed foreign exchange but also create employment opportunity. Ecotourism is gaining wider attention globally and the need to ensure sustainability of the environment is germane in sustaining economic benefit of the host community. The focus of this study is to examine the Socio-Political and Economic Impact of Ecotourism in Agbowo- Ikosi Area of Lagos State Nigeria. The study argues that there is a strong potential for ecotourism market opportunity in Agbowo-Ikosi Area but problems due to poor infrastructures, lack of accurate database, inadequate funding and poor government policy implementation strategy have affected the development of Ecotourism in the study area. The study concludes that managers of ecotourism need to explore the potentials of ecotourism and ensure participatory engagement between the host community and tourists in order to facilitate increase travel to well managed protected areas.

Keywords: Ecotourism, Socio-Political, Host community

ANTECEDENTS OF CULINARY ART CAREER CHOICE AMONG VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS: A CASE OF NORTH CYPRUS

Kurtulus Özbaşar, Furkan Araslı, and Huseyin Araslı
Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

Attracting and maintaining promising talent is a major issue in the tourism sector today. Over the past decades, northern Cyprus has experienced the rapid and fast development of its hospitality sector. On the other hand, many high school graduating students have difficulties in finding and choosing the right career to enter.

Maybe one of the biggest problem for the touristic organization owners is to employ the promising employees who fit best to the sector needs. However; no research has focused on the factors that influence students in choosing tourism and tourism – related professions in north Cyprus.

Therefore, this study aims to be a first and contribute to the existing literature by investigating the relationship between personal traits, sociocultural background, culinary art intention and career art choice of final year high school students in vocational schools in north Cyprus.

A total of 270 questionnaires were distributed to the students who were in their final year studying in vocational schools. Out of the 270 questionnaires, 215 were collected. The sampling technique used for this study was judgmental sampling.

This study has revealed that personality traits, socio – cultural background and culinary art intention all have a significant and positive relationship with culinary art career choice. Furthermore, limitations and directions for future research are presented at the end of the paper.

Keywords: Personality Traits, Socio-Cultural Background, Intention, Culinary Arts, Cyprus

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL DEGRADATION IN TURKEY: AN ASYMMETRIC ARDL FRAMEWORK

Uchechukwu Ukeje, Hatice Imamoglu and George Ike
Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

Abstract

This paper empirically investigates the Environmental Kuznets Curve model while controlling for tourism and financial development in the case of Turkey. It's important to access the relationship between tourism development and CO₂ emissions in order to ascertain whether or not the tourism development process is in line with best practices as regards to environmental preservation and reduction of global warming. The relationship between carbon dioxide emission, tourism development and other usually included control variables was examined using time series data for the period 1960-2013. The results suggested income, energy consumption, financial sector development and tourism development where cointegrated with CO₂ emission. Tourism development, financial development, economic growth, and energy consumption had a positive and statistically significant impact on CO₂ emissions in the long run. Our results provide empirical evidence to validate the EKC hypothesis and also shows that environmental friendly policies for tourism development should be pursued and encouraged.

Keywords: CO₂ emissions, Environmental Kuznets Curve, Financial Development, Tourism Development, Turkey

RESIDENTS' QUALITY OF LIFE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NORTH CYPRUS

Zeynep Sarıgül and Ali Oztüren

Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

ABSTRACT

Tourism has become one of the largest and fastest growing economic sector in the world. However, the development and changes of a tourism destination have a number of effects, especially for people who are living there. Tourism is related with social, economic, and environmental benefits (Kuvan & Akan, 2005) and according to this, the quality of life (QOL) of the local people has many connections with the development of tourism.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of the residents' attitudes towards tourism development on their QOL perceptions. The first contribution of this study is the extent to which different domains, demographic structures and residential statuses are influencing on the development of tourism. Also, it will investigate different groups of attitudes in this tourism society and whether local people in different groups have different attitudes about the distinctions in the domains of tourism and quality of life (TQOL). For the sustainable development of tourism, it is significant to obtain the support of the local population and people's QOL can affect their attitudes towards tourism development.

In general, QOL refers to the general well-being of individuals and communities and also contains negative and positive characteristics of life (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013). There are two common types of indicators that are used for assessing QOL: Objective and Subjective indicators (Liang & Hui, 2015). In tourism research, subjective indicators are commonly implemented (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kim et al., 2015). Subjective indicators can provide a direct measure (McCabe & Johnson, 2013) and they have a complementary structure to the quality of life indicators (Sirgy et al., 2006). Also tourism and quality of life (TQOL) calculation which improved by Cummins (1996) suggests to focus on subjective well-being (SWB) theory (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006) in order to identify residents' life domains. The perception of tourism development and the residents' quality of life in a society can be considerable in two fields. The first, it supports to determine the perception

and attitudes of residents towards tourism, and second, it contributes to the investigation of local people's support for the development of tourism (Perdue et al., 1990). In order to obtain more accurate results, the new form of TQOL scale which further improved by Andreck and Nyaupane (2011) and modified by Liang & Hui (2015) was used. This research is based on quantitative research method. The local residents of the Northern Cyprus are the population of the study. The sample was selected by using a quota sampling method. The survey instrument was selected from a valid and reliable instrument developed by Liang and Hui (2016).

The findings of this research have shown that different domains of TQOL positively influenced on residents' attitudes about the development of tourism. Furthermore, the demographics and residential status are seen as an important determinant on the attitudes of local people's support for the development of tourism.

Keywords: Tourism and quality of life, Tourism development, North Cyprus, Resident Attitudes

References

- Andreck, K. L., & Jurowski, C. (2006). Tourism and quality of life. In G. Jennings, & N. P. Nickerson (Eds.), *Quality tourism experiences* (pp. 136-154). London: Elsevier.
- Andreck, K. L., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2011). Exploring the nature of tourism and quality of life perceptions among residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3), 248-260.
- Cummins, R. A. (1996). The domains of life satisfaction: an attempt to order chaos. *Social Indicators Research*, 38(3), 303-328.
- Kim, H., Woo, E., & Uysal, M. (2015). Tourism experience and quality of life among elderly tourists. *Tourism Management*, 46, 465-476.
- Kim, K., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism Management*, 36, 527-540.
- Kuvan, Y., & Akan, P. (2005), 'Residents' attitudes toward general and forest-related impacts of tourism: The case of Belek Antalya', *Tourism Management*, 26: 691-706.
- Liang, Z. & Hui, T. (2016). Residents' quality of life and attitudes toward tourism development in China. *Tourism Management*, 57, 56-67.
- McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: subjective wellbeing and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, 42-65.
- Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1990). Resident support for tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 586-599.
- Sirgy, M., Michalos, A., Ferriss, A., Easterlin, R., Patrick, D., & Pavot, W. (2006). The Quality-of-Life (QOL) Research Movement: Past, Present, and Future. *Social Indicators Research*, 76(3), 343-466.

CONJUNCTURAL FLUCTUATIONS-TOURISM INCOME RELATIONSHIP: EU COUNTRIES AND TURKEY EXAMPLE

Efe Can Kılınç

Kırıkkale University/Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences/Department of Econometrics Kırıkkale, Turkey

Nazan Şahbaz Kılınç

Kırıkkale University/Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences/Department of Economics, Kırıkkale, Turkey

Mustafa Kartal

Selçuk University/Beyşehir Ali Akkanat Faculty of Business Administration/Department of Banking and Insurance, Konya, Turkey

ABSTRACT

With the acceleration of financial liberalization after the 1980s, the frequency and duration of conjunctural fluctuations in the world has increased; the right assumptions about the periods of recession and expansion have become more and more important in terms of countries. Cyclical fluctuations that are moving along with a large number of macroeconomic variables undoubtedly affect the tourism sector, which is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world since the middle of the last century. On the other hand, the concept is used not only in economic but also in diplomatic and political events. Therefore, the 2011 European debt crisis and the recent political developments between Turkey and the EU countries are events that may affect the economic conjuncture. In this study, the relationship between conjuncture fluctuations and tourism incomes is analyzed using panel data methods specific to EU countries and Turkey for the period 1995-2015.

Keywords: conjunctural fluctuations, tourism income, panel data methods.

DOES MONEY WORK? THE IMPACT OF MONETARY INCENTIVE ON RE-SHARE INTENTION IN ONLINE TRAVEL COMMUNITY

[Qinqin Zhao](#), Southwest Petroleum University, China

[Meng Zhang](#), Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

[Xiaorong Fu](#), Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

[Si Shi](#), Southwestern University of Finance and Economics, China

Abstract

The academia has paid much attention on how to motive knowledge sharing in online virtual communities. Past studies mainly focused on how one type of incentive impact on knowledge sharing, while the interacting effects of monetary incentives and spiritual incentives have received little attention. This study employed the self-determination theory to investigate the mechanisms through which monetary incentives and spiritual incentives interact to influence users' re-share intention in online travel communities. Through scenario-based experiment, we found that while there is spiritual incentive, low level of monetary incentive works better than high level of monetary incentive in motivating re-share intention. Moreover, low level of monetary incentive has greater impact than no incentive on re-share intention. This study also examined the mediating effects of self-efficacy and benefits perception on the relationships between two types of incentives and re-share intention. This study contributes to the motivation theory of knowledge sharing, and has implications for designing the incentive system in online virtual communities.

Keywords: Monetary incentive, Spiritual incentive, Self-determination theory, Re-share intention

TREND OF OUTBOUND TOURISM EXPNEDITURE MODELING: A REVIEW STUDY

Javaneh Mehran, Eastern Mediterranean University Famagusta, TRNC, North Cyprus

Hossein GT Olya, Sejong University, Seoul, South Korea

Habib Alipour, Eastern Mediterranean University Famagusta, KKTC, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Due to its significance of tourism expenditure in national and international level, the growing number of scholars attempts to find how policy makers in the host countries can increase inbound tourism expenditure as an service export promotion and manage outbound tourism expenditure as an important mean. A wide range of indicators was employed to predict complex phenomena of tourism expenditure. This review study aims to uses narrative-analysis and systematic analysis to excavate the reasons of differentiation between results and to address the need for consideration of tourism expenditure concerning the current tourism world issues. This review study evaluates the antecedents and methods of 40 articles which were published in 15 top Business, tourism and hospitality journals from 2010 to 2017. The main findings of this study is that future trend of outbound tourism expenditure does not merely depends on the feature of destination counties or and psycho-demographic properties of tourists. Some sorts of socio-cultural and socio-political conditions contribute in formulating the complex behavior of tourists in terms of their expenditure during outbound travels.

Key Words: tourism expenditure, complex phenomenon, narrative-analysis, systematic analysis, outbound travel.

INTRODUCTION

The interest toward tourist expenditure modelling simultaneously began with evaluation of tourist market after eighties (Brida & Scuderi, 2013). Tourism as one of the service industries has attracted

plenty of attention last decades due to enormous contribution in economic growth (Martins, Gan, & Ferreira-Lopes, 2017). As far as, socioeconomic, cultural, environmental (e.g., climate), sociodemographic, psychological, and trip-related variables identified as conspicuous indicators of expenditure (Olya & Mehran, 2017), it is important to have a outperform configurations modelling to forecast to what extent these antecedents for each country can lead to high level and low level of outbound tourism expenditure. The key objective of this study is, therefore, to investigate whether there are any new sub-indices/configurations emerging recently in the outbound tourism expenditure modelling literature and to propose new instructions for future studies based on new category variables identified in the study. Predominantly, the review addresses two questions: What insights does the current literature offer regarding outbound tourism expenditure modelling? Have studies on tourism expenditure modelling contributed to the tourism research from a methodological or specific subindicies perspective?

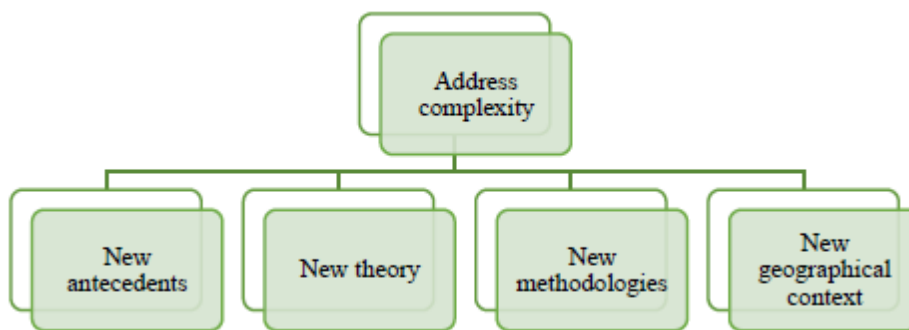


Figure. 1 Addressing the Complexity of tourism expenditure

REFERENCES

- Brida, J. G., & Scuderi, R. (2013). Determinants of tourist expenditure: a review of microeconomic models. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 6, 28-40.
- Martins, L. F., Gan, Y., & Ferreira-Lopes, A. (2017). An empirical analysis of the influence of macroeconomic determinants on World tourism demand. *Tourism Management*, 61, 248-260.
- Olya, H. G., & Mehran, J. (2017). Modelling tourism expenditure using complexity theory. *Journal of Business Research*, 75, 147-158.

**EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED JOB VALUE FIT AND EMPLOYEE-ORGANIZATIONAL
VALUE FIT ON JOB PERFORMANCE: MEDIATING ROLE OF INTRINSIC
MOTIVATION IN HOTELS INDUSTRY**

[Fatih Gorgun](#), Akdeniz Karpaz Universitesi

[Elham Ansori](#), Doğu Akdeniz Universitesi

[Furkan Araslı](#), Doğu Akdeniz Universitesi

Abstract

This paper explores the role of perceived job value fit, employee-organizational value fit and the intrinsic motivation of the front line employees working in the hotel industry of Northern Cyprus with regards to job performance. The study analyses the likely mediating influence of intrinsic motivation in the relationship of the aforementioned dimensions and job performance. While very few studies might have investigated similar relationships, research on this topic for the hotel industry in Northern Cyprus is scarce. Data for this research was obtained via a questionnaire study conducted with 151 front line employees and their line managers in four hotels in Nicosia and Kyrenia region. The results provide evidence in line with studies done by other scholars, in that employees' perceived job value fit and the employee-organizational value fit has a profound effect on their job performance. To follow, intrinsic motivation of employees plays a significant mediating role in this relationship. Conclusive recommendations are provided from managerial perspectives in order to highlight the importance of these dimensions in practice to uphold and improve job performance in the hotel industry.

Keywords: Employee Organisational value fit, Perceived Job value fit, Self- Development Theory and Organismic Integration Theory, Intrinsic Motivation and Work performance.

AN EXAMINATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL INSTITUTIONS AND CO-MANAGEMENT TOWARD ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION: THE CASE OF TRNC

Habib Alipour, Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, TRNC, PO Box 99628, Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Tahereh Arefipour, Faculty of Tourism, Eastern Mediterranean University, Gazimagusa, TRNC, PO Box 99628, Via Mersin 10, Turkey

ABSTRACT

“Co-management” theory, which is also, used interchangeably with “co-production” offers a useful and practical framework for illuminating the environmental institutions’ approach to environmental issues and challenges. One of the main ingredients of co-management, if it is going to succeed, is power sharing between institutions and the resource users. In a way, power sharing becomes a balancing act between communities and institutions where the domain of co-production (e.g., the environmental protection) requires change through common ground while setting aside each other’s differences. The aim of this research is, to explore extend of ‘co-management’ in the case of TRNC, which is facing a great task and challenge regarding the environmental protection and sustainability of the resources. To investigate the conditions of co-management in this case, a qualitative research approach, based on an in-depth interview, with various parties in the relevant institutions, NGOs and academicians was conducted. The result showed that notwithstanding awareness of environmental challenges and an urgency to tackle those challenges, there is no awareness of ‘co-management’ and its practicality.

Keywords: Co-management – Adaptive co-management– Institutions

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF DESIGN AND PLACE FEATURES: A STUDY OF THE MADNES FESTIVAL IN THE NETHERLANDS

Mark Leenders
RMIT University, Australia

This research investigates the relative influence of festival design and place features on satisfaction and intention to revisit a festival. Literature on customer equity, place intimacy and hedonic consumption is used for the theoretical framework. Data are collected among visitors (N=186) of the MadNes Festival, a relatively small surf, skate and music festival on an island in the Netherlands. The results shows that the design and place features – more than value features and relationship features - are most important for the success of the festival in terms of satisfaction and intention to revisit the festival. The intimate atmosphere of the festival and the positive emotions that visitors experience in getting to the remote island play an important role. At the level of the value features, the ticket price and the location are important. Marketing and hospitality implications for festivals are discussed.

INDIRECT CITY-BRANDING THROUGH THE HYPERREAL REPRESENTATION OF THE CITY IN ADVERTISING – THE EXAMPLE OF VENEZIA

Anne-Flore Maman Larraufie
SémioConsult, France

City-branding is usually a topic that practitioners, official bodies and academic researchers have approached from the marketing perspective, i.e. the deliberate strategy set to better “sell” a city-location to various stakeholders, from tourists to investors. The idea is to shape the city image which, as any location image, is a multidimensional phenomenon involving cognition and emotions. It has been defined as the aggregate of impressions, expectations and thoughts related to a definite place (Kotler et al., 1999; Ulaga et al. 2002). However, some scholars have found that places are “like a blank canvas upon which a series of representation are layered producing a place that is uniquely identifiable” (Staiff, 2014). Such representations include poetry, painting, film, travel writing, postcards, novels, maps, guide books and advertising. They build some imaginary of the place with physical buildings as metonymic characteristics of it, producing in the end some hyperreal meaning of the city, an iconic one (Ellul, 1988; Staiff, 2014). Therefore, studying the successive ways of staging a city in advertising, one should be able to identify the iconic elements of the city, the overall city-image implicitly built (and congruent categories of products) and in the end the culturally-built current visual imagery of the city, i.e. the one being currently promoted by city-branding marketing strategies. Moreover, comparing what is done by ‘traditional’ advertising vs. tourist-oriented ads could bring interesting results about how there is a match or not in-between both representations, and hence about how each one is respectively shaping the other one.

We use Venezia as the field of study. Our objective is to show the hyperreal nature of the current city-image, with the disappearance of distinctions between signified and sign (Baudrillard, 1994), thanks to the successive reproduction of preceding reproductions of reality in ads using Venezia as a setting. To do so, we use semiotics, building some analytic grid. Particularly, we study: the general impression/feelings when observing the ad; denotation; iconic semiotic analysis including gestalt elements; lexicographic analysis of the text present on the ad; enunciation and emitter’s position; whether the ad is opaque or transparent; the connotations that derive from all previous; and the ultimate classification of the ad depending on its ideology (Floch, 1990). More than 140 ads from

1896 to 2016 have been coded, also paying attention at the category of product that is represented. Now we are in the process of coding ads targeting tourists only. The final results will be ready by the time of the conference. Some interesting trends already emerge, for instance the regular empowering nature of the city for human beings represented in the ad, or the transparent nature of the ad depending on the moment of emission.

Besides from providing interesting conclusion on Venezia per se, we believe the added value of the research is also in the methodological approach that could be used by official entities to understand how their city is iconically represented and craft consistent city-branding strategies, esp. to communicate with tourists.

Keywords: hyperreal; city branding; semiotics

DETERMINANTS OF CORPORATE CASH-HOLDING LEVELS IN TOURISM INDUSTRY-AN EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM UNITED KINGDOM

Wisal Ahmad and Cahit Adaoglu
Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

This study examines the determinants of corporate cash-holding levels in tourism industry. The study is based on a panel data set obtained from 66 publicly traded United Kingdom (UK) firms of travel & leisure industry for a span of 10 years between 2005 and 2014. UK is ranked as among the top ten tourist destinations all over the globe. This study is unique in the manner as it will determine the most imperative factors of tourism industry that have not yet been explored, thereby filling the gaps in the literature of financial management research. Cash management is vital for firms in this industry as it is volatile and sensitive to global and business cycles. The study covers further six sub-industries of travel and leisure viz airlines, gambling, hotels, recreational services, restaurants & bars and travel & tourism, affirming it to be an extensive comparative study. The model of the study includes determinants such as liquidity ratio, firm size, leverage and leverage ratio, investment opportunities, growth opportunities, liquid asset substitutes, profitability, z-score and dividend payout as a dummy. The data is obtained from Thomson Reuters Datastream and Worldscope and the estimation methodology of the study is the panel data Generalized Methods of Moments (GMM) system.

Keywords: Cash-Holding levels, Tourism Industry, Cash Management, Generalized Method of Moments (GMM)

DIVIDEND POLICY OF TRAVEL AND LEISURE COMPANIES IN WESTERN EUROPE

Mahboubah Bahreini and Cahit Adaoglu
Eastern Mediterranean University, North Cyprus

In this study, we examine the dividend payout behavior of travel and leisure companies in five western European countries which are ranked among the top 10 tourist destinations worldwide; namely, France, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom and Spain. The study focuses on the determinants of dividend policy for a time period of 2005 - 2015. We analyze the industry as whole and furthermore, we carry out a comparative analysis for the subsectors namely, gambling, hotel, airline, recreational services, restaurant and bar, and travel and tourism industries. The results of the panel data Tobit estimation methodology show significant positive effects of profitability, size, investment opportunity, and firm maturity. We also find significant negative effects of leverage ratio and asset growth on the dividend payout of travel and leisure companies. The results of subsectors comparative analysis demonstrate that, determinants differently affect the dividend payout decision across the six tourism-related industries. In the case of profitability, a negative effect on dividend payout in gambling industry, and also a negative effect of firm size in airline industry, is inconsistent with proposed hypothesis.

Keywords: Dividends, Determinants, Comparative, Travel & Leisure Industry, Western Europe

**LECTURERS' ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS' INVOLVEMENT IN INTERNSHIP AND
ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF CURRENT
STUDENTS AND GRADUATES OF THE HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT DEGREE
PROGRAMME (HMDP): INFORMING FUTURE COURSE DEVELOPMENT**

Clare Johnson

Dublin Institute of Technology, Ireland

Professional and motivated graduates are recognised as a prime source of sustainable advantage in high performance hospitality organisations. The hospitality industry in Ireland is acknowledged as having the potential to contribute to the national economic recovery from the recent recession. This paper focuses on the perspectives, concerns and aspirations relating to the Hospitality Management Degree Programme (HMDP) of the academic and professional staff, for students' involvement in the internship component of the course and its contribution to the preparation of graduates' on entering professional employment in the Irish hospitality industry. The primary aim is to inform current and future direction of the programme, offered by the School of Hospitality Management and Tourism, Dublin Institute of Technology (DIT) in Ireland.


The findings presented in this paper are based for the most part, on analyses of two focus group discussions, with both the academic and professional teaching staff. A qualitative approach was deemed most appropriate because the primary aim of the focus group discussions was to elicit in-depth information and gain insights pertaining to the investigation. In addition, a qualitative methodology would provide a comprehensive exploration of the perceptions of lectures towards students' involvement in the internship component and its development of their professional capabilities, skills and attributes. While the lecturers' attitudes and experiences of the issue under investigation may be partially independent of their membership of the HMDP programme team, they are more likely to be revealed within the social gathering and the interaction of focused group participation. Despite the importance of the HMDP and tourism to the Irish economy, relatively little research has been carried out to date on the education in this area. For this reason and to initiate the development of base line data in the subject, the current study was undertaken. Due to the scope of the study it was recognized that it would not be possible to draw conclusions from the findings.

A profile of the lecturers that participated in each of the focus group discussions are outlined and a detailing of the key topic areas discussed with both groups are presented. The perspectives, concerns and aspirations relating to students' experiences on internship of the academic and professional staff are discussed together with the implications for the future direction of the course.

Lecturers have a shared instinctive view of the importance of involvement in the professional internship component of the HMDP and how it contributes to the professional development of students, for their first position of employment in the hospitality industry. Findings include the significance of the professional internship module to students' professional development. It is important that the college ensures that the host hospitality organizations selected for students provide the best possible learning experiences. There was a view that students obtain more experience of a variety of functional areas including marketing and human resources in four or five star hotels, as they exemplify best practice in management. In addition there was a consensus among the lecturers that the professional internship module has a major influence on students' perception of the hospitality sector. Lecturers voiced concern however, regarding the limited amount of time that the college mentors have at their disposal for visiting students on their internship. There was agreement that students' that choose to gain exposure to the international hospitality industry by electing to travel abroad for their professional internship experience had an advantage.

An extrapolation of the key findings have implications for the future direction of the course within the context of an indigenous hospitality industry. Future curriculum development of the HMDP needs to take cognizance of these findings, in order to design a course of study that meets the needs of a dynamic Irish hospitality sector within the context of a global hospitality industry.

Keywords: Lecturers' perceptions, Students' internship experience, informing course direction



ADVANCES IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT CONFERENCE (AHTMM)



WASHINGTON STATE
UNIVERSITY



Faculty of
Tourism | **Eastern
Mediterranean
University**
"For Your International Career"

