

**8th World Conference for Graduate Research
in Tourism Hospitality and Leisure**

24 - 29 May 2016, Bodrum, Turkey

Proceedings Book

**4th Interdisciplinary Tourism Research
Conference**

24 - 29 May 2016, Bodrum, Turkey

Edited by

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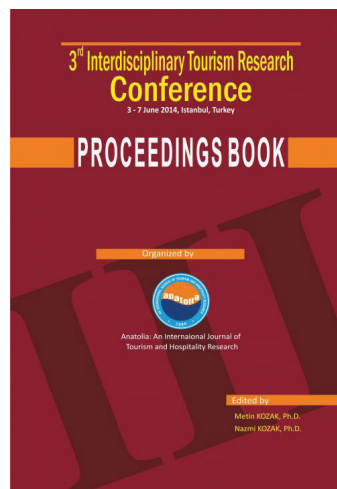
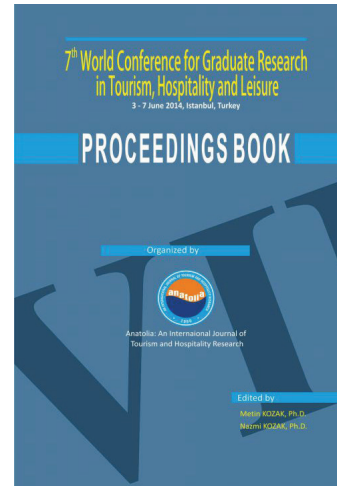
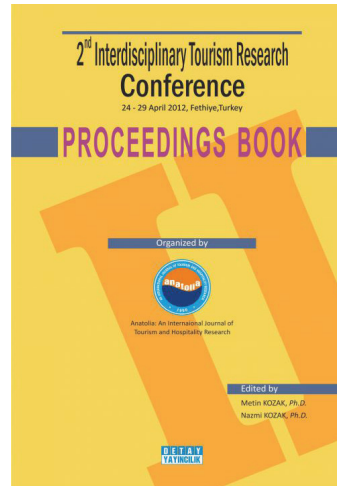
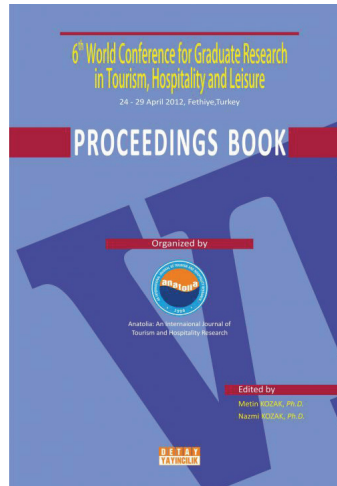
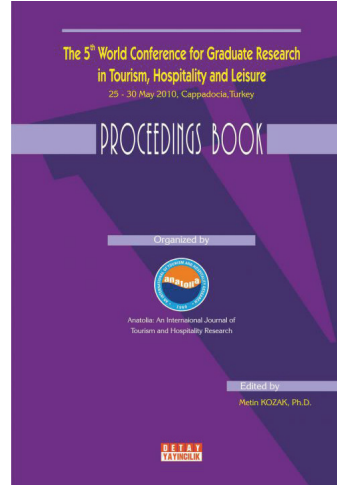
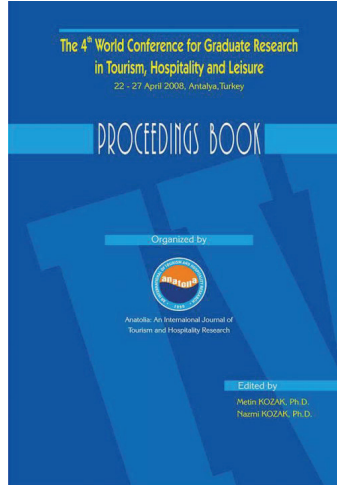
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Preface

This is to offer you a friendly welcome to Bodrum (Halikarnassos) with the purpose of participating in the *8th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure*, and *4th Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference*, 24-29 May 2016...

First, let us begin refreshing our minds about the mission of this conference organisation that appears to be an academic commitment with the host of *Anatolia*, an internationally well-respected journal of tourism and hospitality research (<http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/RANA>). Almost 14 years ago, we launched these conferences series to provide a forum for research collaboration and mentoring of emerging tourism researchers in order to share their research experiences. Through our journey within this period, both the graduate students and faculty members in the entire world have been inspired to contribute to the conference where the interdisciplinary aspects of tourism and hospitality areas have also been emphasized. Authors have been invited to submit papers across a wide spectrum not only in tourism, travel and hospitality but also in other relating fields on the condition that they have a close proximity with these subjects.

Going back to little earlier periods, the last two decades of the 20th century saw developments not only in tourism education but also in the tourism industry itself. New destinations were established. The number of tourist arrivals boomed, and the capacity of destinations increased (Kozak, 2003). However, some additional problems emerged, such as the shortage of a qualified labour force at all levels (Baum, 2015). In response to these problems and their consequences, much attention was paid to the development of tourism education and the advancement of tourism research, in both developed and developing countries. Beginning in the early 1990s, the number of tourism departments and tourism began to increase, reaching its peak in the early 2000s. In addition to a large number of tourism and hospitality businesses, there are now many worldwide centres with a specific focus on research, education, and training despite the fact that many institutions have no longer contact with the practice, unlike the progress in the first and second periods.

As to the research perspective, there is no doubt that tourism literature has significantly enlarged both qualitatively and quantitatively due to the contribution of outsiders over the years. The early 1970s constitutes an historical horizon in tourism studies and education. This period marked the beginning of a rapid rise in the numbers of publications and a shift in approach to tourism studies. As suggested by Goeldner (2011), tourism literature had been predominantly descriptive until the 1970s, though some research was more quantitative-oriented. However, the evolving structure of tourism studies has become more research-oriented, and there has been a tremendous shift from more descriptive books and articles

towards the introduction of empirical findings using either qualitative or quantitative research techniques, and sometimes both in the same paper.

Though tourism academicians widely view tourism as an independent discipline (Kozak & Kozak, 2011), there is much debate concerning the interdisciplinary position of tourism research and teaching. For instance, as tourism can be hardly described as a discipline in its own right (Tribe, 1997; Xiao & Smith, 2005) and also lacks a substantial theoretical underpinning (Barca, 2012), it has progressed as a multi-disciplinary field (Jafari, 2003; Tribe & Xiao, 2011; Xiao & Smith, 2006). As a result, tourism research has become a part of social-oriented disciplines that requires an emphasis both on industrial training and academic education. From the perspective of education, giving a practical example from both undergraduate and graduate programs, it is clear to see that there are much courses integrating tourism with many others, e.g. sociology, psychology, geography among others.

Still, although tourism benefited greatly from other fields such as economics, sociology, geography, planning, and management until the 1990s, recent evidence indicates that tourism has created its own foundations and instruments, such as schools, degrees, journals, conferences, and associations, to strengthen its self-confidence and the existing networks within its own community. As suggested by Xiao and Smith (2006), tourism research has recently become a mature field, accumulating its own body of literature that provides a platform for those seeking to exchange knowledge within the field.

Such developments have allowed tourism to stand on its own two feet and even to export its knowledge into other fields. In contrast, in the past it imported extensively (and still imports to a lesser extent). For instance, empirical evidence suggests that the proportion of citations from tourism journals into tourism journals increased significantly from the 1980s up to the present, while the proportion of non-tourism journals has remained much smaller (Crouch & Perdue, 2015). Tourism journals have become a significant source target for non-tourism journal citations (Wardle & Buckley, 2014). Similarly, as suggested above, there is clearly a huge increase in the number of tourism scholars on the editorial boards of top-tier tourism journals. Finally, from the early 1990s onwards, an extensive number of scholars have made their academic career in tourism, and have published their research in both in tourism and non-tourism journals.

Just as we had hoped and envisioned, both *World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure* and *Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference*, under the leadership of *Anatolia*, have grown into a robust dialogou platform that now brings representatives from myriad nations accross the globe. This year, the enrollment exceeds 115 participants from more than 20 nations. Since the beginning of these two conference series, we have attracted approxima-

tely 800 people from over 70 countries, with participants taking part in peer reviews, productive debates and provocative discussions. We are convinced that this trend will continue and the entire community of tourism scholars and practitioners will be following these discussions, arriving at new search topics or solutions etc.

In addition to the earlier three award categories (best paper, best thesis, and best dissertation), commencing from the previous conference we have launched an additional best paper award specifically given in recognition of an internationally well-respected scholar who has made a lifelong contribution to the dissemination of tourism research. In addition to Professors Jafar Jafari, Charles G. Goeldner, Abraham Pizam, John Urry and Brian Archer as the first five presenters of this category respectively, the organizing committee decided to nominate the best papers of this year's submissions for the recognition of Professor Kaye Chon (Hong Kong Polytechnic University, SAR China), and Professor Josef Mazanec (Modul University, Austria), who have made a lifelong contribution to internationally enlarging the border of tourism research, broadening the network of tourism researchers and enriching the dimension of academic tourism literature. We are truly thankful to Professors Chon and Mazanec for their positive response to become the additional nominees in this category. Further, as we currently celebrate the 27th year of the journal *Anatolia*, an additional "silver award" will be given to a winner in recognition of the contribution of *Anatolia* to tourism research.

In this volume, you will find the proceedings including extended abstracts of those thesis and dissertations as well as of research papers (no more than 2,000 words) that have been accepted for both oral and poster presentations at the conference and dealing with a wide range of aspects related to tourism, hospitality, and leisure. Out of 160 submissions, 87 papers were remained in the conference program for an oral presentation. The conference also received the interests of scholars affiliated with a large academic and geographic diversity representing over 20 countries, e.g. Australia, Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Greece, Hong Kong, Iran, Italy, Malaysia, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain, Slovenia, Thailand, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, UK, and USA, among others.

We are proud to emphasize that the methodologies of the contributing authors include both qualitative and quantitative methods of the scientific inquiry ranging from survey methods to case studies. With this collaboration, tourism and its major components are analyzed by both an institutionally and geographically diversified group of prospective and potential researchers affiliated with many institutions from west to east. It is really stimulating that we have received very positive feedback from the panel of our reviewers regarding the quality of submissions for presentation at both conferences in terms of their diversity in scope and levels for nurturing the existent body of tourism knowledge.

From an academic perspective, as it did earlier, we certainly believe that this conference will enable academically-young scholars to meet their mature counterparts to share experiences in order to advance their research knowledge and contribute to the dissemination of tourism research in wider settings. We hope that the conference attendants will return to their academic institutions and home countries feeling intellectually enriched and will also continue contributing to this growing field by making further progress in producing much richer research outputs to open new horizons for future generations of both the academia and the industry. From the social and cultural perspective, in addition to various activities, the best paper, thesis and dissertation are awarded with a package including books and journal subscriptions with the courtesy of our sponsors.

Finally, we are very grateful for the contribution of many colleagues, speakers, track chairs, authors, reviewers, attendants and other staff and institutions who have contributed to this conference in different ways. We acknowledge the significant contribution of our invited speakers (namely Kaye Chon, Jafar Jafari, John Tribe, Eduardo Fayos-Sola, and Ana Maria Munar), our lecturers delivering a seminar on various methodologies of undertaking research and postgraduate studies (namely Antonia Correia, Stephen Pratt, and Maheshvari Naidu), all those who have submitted their papers, and those who have participated in the conference by sharing their knowledge with others.

Last but not least, attempts to organise any kind of academic events would not be a fact without having a logistic support. As such, we are profoundly grateful to Eylin Babacan (Pamukkale University), Duygu Babat (Mustafa Kemal University) and Leyla Şişik (Istanbul University) for their enthusiastic help, patience and hardwork. In addition, we would like to express our gratitudes to Kartacatur (Fatih Günay, Senem Eski, Firdevs Tugen), Springer (Christian Rauscher), Detay Yayıncılık (Hüseyin Yıldırım, Hasan Gülsaçan), La Blanche Island Bodrum, Routledge and GMC Organisation, as our main partners and sponsors, for their generous support. Also, an extensive list of our reviewers (74 reviewers in 40 countries altogether) should be honoured for their dedication to complete the review procedure in a very short period of time without reporting any complaints. Without the unlimited support of the above all, we would not have been able to achieve our mission.

In sum, we hope that the output of this conference would provide prosperity for scholars to expand their horizons and understand the significance of tourism research as the catalyst of other research fields and as a tool to become more interrelated in the future.

We wish you success and fruitful discussion and collaboration.

Metin Kozak, Ph.D.
Nazmi Kozak, Ph.D.

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Research Papers

Social Media Usage among European DMOs

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INTRODUCTION

In today's highly competitive travel market, destinations are adding new digital tools to their traditional marketing practices to attract visitors. In recent years, social media has emerged as a powerful and low-cost marketing tool with global reach. Although social media platforms have demonstrated a reciprocal and growing interest in the tourism industry (Chan & Guillet, 2011; Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica & O'Leary, 2006; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010) research on the use of social media in the tourism sector remains limited. Review studies focusing on social media in tourism and hospitality have identified this gap in research (e.g., Leung, Law, van Hoof, & Buhalis, 2013; Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014). Extant research on the use of social media in tourism has focused mainly on two areas: (1) the use of social media by tourists (the user/tourist-generated content) and (2) the adoption of social media practices by tourism enterprises. Hence, the type and extent of social media use by destination marketing organizations (DMOs) responsible for the marketing and management of tourism in particular geographic areas, remains largely unknown. Little research has examined how DMOs use social media to market their destinations (Dwivedi, Yadav & Venkatesh, 2011; Hays, Page & Buhalis, 2013; Munar, 2012; Stankov, Lazić & Dragičević, 2010). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to investigate DMO usage of social media in select European countries. Preliminary findings from a study on the DMO social media usage of European countries are presented in this paper.

METHODOLOGY

DMOs of European countries comprise the target population of this study. The rationale behind selecting European destinations is simply that they account for 51% of all international tourist arrivals (a total of 582 million arrivals in 2014) and 41% of tourism receipts (US\$509 billion in 2014) (WTO, 2015). In addition to being the world's most visited region, Europe includes many of the world's largest and most mature destinations that have well-established national level DMOs. A sample of seven European countries (*France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Turkey, Russia, and United Kingdom*) was selected using purposive sampling. These seven countries were selected for the following reasons: (1) each is among the top 10 tourist destinations in terms of international arrivals and/or receipts, (2) each has a well-established DMO responsible for marketing the destination, and (3) each has been using at least one of the most popular social media platforms for a minimum of three years.

Content analysis was used to evaluate social media postings of European DMOs because it allows the researcher to "use a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text" (Weber, 1990). While previous research on social media in tourism and hospitality has focused mainly on the two most common social media platforms (*Facebook* and *Twitter*), the present study includes two additional social media platforms (*YouTube* and *Instagram*) in the analysis.

Data collection began with an initial scan of official web sites of the selected destinations to obtain the links of their DMOs' official social media accounts. This screened out any unofficial accounts that might be administered by individuals or other organizations as part of a country's promotional activities. Additionally, some DMOs have multiple accounts in each social media platform that promote different regions of a country, which were not included in this study. Only the official and the national level social media accounts operated by national level DMOs were included. Those included are the France Tourism Development Agency, the German National Tourist Board, the Italian National Tourist Board, Russian Federal Agency for Tourism, Tour Spain (TURESPAÑA), the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, and Visit Britain. All postings on the four social media platforms (*Facebook, Twitter, Instagram* and *YouTube*) between September 1 and November 30, 2015 were analyzed. Two researchers conducted the analysis separately to minimize the possibility of personal bias. Due to the dynamic nature of social media and continual updates of DMOs on their accounts, some statistics changed rapidly even during data collection. To address this, data were collected in December, 2015 using a retrospective approach.

RESULTS

Facebook

Germany emerged as the earliest adopter among selected countries, as a result of its establishment of its Facebook page in 2008 (Table 1), followed by UK and

France, respectively. Conversely, Russia was found to be the last adopter, having waited until 2015 to establish its official Facebook page. The popularity of a Facebook page or postings is represented by the total number of “likes.” Although Turkey did not establish its official Facebook page until 2014, it has gained the greatest number of “likes” (4.45 million) among all seven destinations.

During the three-month study period (9/1/2015 - 11/30/2015), the number of Facebook postings of DMOs ranged from 29 to 162, indicating a combined average number of one daily post across all DMOs. Italy and Spain, with 1.6 and 1.2 daily posts, respectively, were the only destinations that posted more than one Facebook post daily. Turkey was found to be the most photo-sharing destination on Facebook with an average of 14.3 photos in a single post, followed by Italy (averaging 2.3 photos) and Spain (averaging 1.8 photos). In contrast, throughout the three-month study period, Russia posted only one photo. The results indicate that DMOs share videos less frequently than photos on Facebook. While UK shared 12 videos during the study period, all the others posted fewer than 10. The most frequently used “hashtag” by each destination was also examined. “Hashtag” is a keyword preceded by a hash mark (#) that makes the post searchable in the related social media platform. Each destination’s most frequently used hashtag is illustrated below in Table 1. It is interesting to note that Russia is the only country that did not use any hashtag on Facebook.

Table 1. Facebook statistics for selected destinations.

Destination	Member since	Total likes *	Posts **	Photos **	Videos **	Popular hashtag **
France	2010	1.24 million	61	147	3	Rendezvous in France
Germany	2008	1.19 million	62	77	8	Join German Tradition
Italy	2012	352,570	142	322	2	I Like Italy
Russia	2015	5,945	34	1	0	n/a
Spain	2013	1.58 million	105	190	6	Visit Spain
Turkey	2014	4.45 million	29	415	8	Turkish Cuisine
UK	2009	3.07 million	51	99	12	Home of Bond
Combined			484	1,251	39	

* From start of membership to November 30, 2015

** Between Sep. 1, 2015 and Nov. 30, 2015

Twitter

Findings related to DMOs’ Twitter accounts are presented below in Table 2. Germany, Spain, UK and France have had Twitter accounts for over five years. Although Turkey is the latest destination to join Twitter—not until February 2014—

it has over 470,000 more followers than its closest competitor, the UK, which joined Twitter in January 2009. While Spain posted the most frequently on Twitter during the three-month study period with an average of 14.7 daily tweets, Russia tweeted only once during this period. In the study period, all destinations except Russia enhanced their Twitter accounts by posting photos or videos. As with their Facebook postings, Italy, Spain, Turkey, and the UK used the same hashtag on Twitter, whereas, France and Germany used different hashtags. In the case of Twitter, Russia once again did not use any hashtag.

Table 2. Twitter statistics for selected destinations.

Destination	Member since	Total tweets *	Followers*	Tweets **	Photos **	Videos **	Popular hashtag **
France	2009	3,789	20,610	189	61	1	Wine Wednesday
Germany	2008	8,521	33,873	473	197	1	Germany
Italy	2011	12,383	79,211	274	96	9	I Like Italy
Russia	2012	42	769	1	0	0	n/a
Spain	2008	22,249	191,878	1,342	1,960	12	Visit Spain
Turkey	2014	1,885	791,464	319	281	17	Turkish Cuisine
UK	2009	36,300	313,034	825	798	42	Home of Bond
Combined				3,423	3,393	82	

* From start of membership to November 30, 2015

** Between Sep. 1, 2015 and Nov. 30, 2015

Instagram

The membership period for Instagram accounts are somewhat clustered, as illustrated in Table 3 below. All DMOs except Russia joined Instagram between 2013 and 2014; Russia waited until December 2015 to do so. In terms of both the total number of posts and followers, Turkey ranked first (1,055 posts, 232,000 followers) among the seven destinations. It is important to note that Italy posted only nine photos during the three-month study period and France posted roughly once a day. The average number of daily photos posted by other destinations was a little more than one. Although Instagram is a popular photo-sharing social media platform, it also allows users to post short videos that are 3 to 15 seconds long. None of the selected destinations posted a video during the study period. Additionally, the most frequently used hashtags on Instagram included the names of the destinations.

Table 3. Instagram statistics for selected destinations.

Destination	Member since	Total posts *	Followers *	Photos **	Videos **	Popular hashtag **
France	2014	341	2,526	88	0	Rendezvous in France
Germany	2013	973	54,745	137	0	Join German Tradition
Italy	2013	313	15,748	9	0	I Like Italy
Russia	---	---	---	---	---	n/a
Spain	2014	579	85,395	100	0	Visit Spain
Turkey	2014	1,055	232,000	241	0	Istanbul
UK	2014	853	187,520	140	0	Love Great Britain
Combined				715	0	

* From start of membership to November 30, 2015

** Between Sep. 1, 2015 and Nov. 30, 2015

YouTube

Dates on which destinations established their YouTube accounts range from 2005 (Spain) to 2014 (Turkey), as noted in Table 4 below. Even though it was the latest adopter in the group, Turkey ranks first in terms of both total number of views (68 million views) and subscribers (14,968 subscribers). Russia posted the most videos on YouTube; however, the videos reached less than half a million views. During the study period, DMOs of the seven countries uploaded a combined total of 90 videos. Postings varied greatly, with 34 for the UK and only one for France. Hashtags posted on YouTube were not included in the analysis because they are confined to the comments section alone. In other words, unless a DMO does not leave a comment with hashtags on its own post, it does not achieve what it intends to.

Table 4. YouTube statistics for the analyzed DMOs

Destination	Member since	Total posts (videos) *	Subscribers *	Posts (videos) **	Total views *
France	2011	75	215	1	168,000
Germany	2009	73	2,553	11	1.87 million
Italy	2011	384	4,033	2	1.42 million
Russia	2011	417	442	11	455,000
Spain	2005	371	9,849	23	5.79 million
Turkey	2014	104	14,968	8	68 million
UK	2012	178	5,805	34	10.7 million
Combined				90	

* From start of membership to November 30, 2015

** Between Sep. 1, 2015 and Nov. 30, 2015

CONCLUSION

Results confirm that social media is of interest to DMOs of top European destinations. For six of the seven destinations in our sample, their DMOs have an official presence on *Facebook*, *Twitter*, *Instagram* and *YouTube*. Russia's DMO does not have an official presence on *Instagram* but it has official accounts on the remaining three platforms. Although the dates on which DMOs have created their social media accounts vary, Germany emerges as the only destination that is an early adopter of all four platforms. Other earlier adopters of social media are UK, France and Spain while Turkey and Russia joined social media later. Nevertheless, the membership period does not directly correspond with some statistics, which are used to measure success in social media, such as "audience size" (e.g., total number of likes on Facebook, followers on Twitter and Instagram, total views on YouTube). In other words, the length of time on social media is not a predictor of success or activity. Accounts operating for a longer period of time might have fewer followers or likes than an account operating for a shorter period of time or vice versa. Across all platforms, Turkey is the most obvious example of this; it ranks first in terms of total number of likes, followers and views. When total number of posts during the study period is considered, *Twitter* is found to be the most commonly used social media platform, followed by *Facebook*, *Instagram* and *YouTube*. *Twitter's* popularity is explained by the fact that its users generally update their status more frequently than they do in *Facebook* (Hays, Page, & Buhalis, 2013). Additionally, despite its popularity as a social media platform, the less frequent use of *YouTube* by selected destinations' DMOs might be explained by the fact that more time and other resources are required for recording promotional videos, hence the lower level of its use over other platforms. The study also revealed that DMOs generally use hashtags that are familiar in their traditional advertising campaigns (e.g., I Like Italy, Visit Spain, Love Great Britain) rather than using hashtags that represent the unfamiliar or unique characteristics of their destinations. In conclusions, future research on this topic can extend this content analysis into a longer time frame and a larger sample size in order to gain insight into the complex social media marketing practices of tourism destinations.

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A Critical Debate on the Tourism Academia and Industry Collaboration within the Neoliberal Paradigm

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INTRODUCTION

In this study, we discuss the pitfalls of “tourism academia” and “tourism industry”—hereafter academia and industry—meetings or collaborations in producing tourism knowledge within the context of neoliberal paradigm. Our inspiration of this study departs from the fact that tourism scholars in Turkey have invested several attempts to increase the academy-industry collaboration. Of these, first, almost all expressions both at formal and informal settings touch upon the importance of the academy-industry meetings. In lectures, the teaching staff emphasizes the value of improving the practical skills in the industry to become an expert in one’s future professional career. Second, the theme of academic conferences or panels is occasionally devoted to investigating the possibilities and benefits of the academy-industry meetings or collaboration. Finally, the industry people loudly speak about the lack of practical issues in the university’s curriculum that is supposed to be not enough for seeking professionalism in the industry. All these efforts simply indicate how the tourism academia is characterized to be more passive or more “industry-oriented” while the industry becomes more dominant in shaping the borders of the academia. Having said that, in this study, first, we discuss that tourism knowledge production is not value and interest free, and argue that the production of tourism knowledge should be not restricted within the context of the academy-industry meetings or collaboration.

TOURISM KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION WITHIN THE NEOLIBERAL PARADIGM

From a general perspective, the scholars acknowledge that social inquiries do not reflect the world as it is. Social inquiries are “performative”; thus, they are enacted, and “(help to) *make* social realities and social worlds” (Law & Urry, 2004, pp.390-391). Law and Urry (2004) underline that the performative of research practices do not reflect “relativism” (p. 395) but emphasize the existence of different social worlds that appear within diverse research practices and arrangements (p. 397). Since tourism inquiries are also enacted, tourism “knowledge system” is not innocent but represents certain interests, values, practices and represses others (Tribe, 2008; Tribe et al., 2015; Tribe & Liburd, 2016). In tourism, research practices and discourses determine “what counts as knowledge and what does not and further who speaks with authority and who does not” (Tribe & Liburd, 2016, p. 46). Within these practices, such elements as tourism publics—state, academy, industry and community— produce tourism knowledge and make certain tourism worlds with certain interests and values (Hollinshead et al., 2009; Tribe & Liburd, 2016; Law & Urry, 2004). There have been several scholars who clearly note that tourism knowledge largely depends on neoliberalism and managerialism (Ayikoru et al., 2009; Franklin & Crang, 2001; Tribe et al., 2015).

The neoliberal tourism knowledge production system enacts and addresses the tourism world within research practices that privilege managerialism, entrepreneurship, professionalism, competition, free markets, individual responsibility, service quality, consumerism, and growth (Ayikoru et al., 2009; Tribe, 2007; Tribe et al., 2015). Within today’s neoliberal contemporary world that is characterized mostly by the era of knowledge production and consumption, several scholars note that universities become depoliticized (Butcher, 2015), and subject to interventions of capital, governments, national and international organizations to bring income and produce projects depending on the enactment of competition and entrepreneurship (Feighery, 2011; Hall, 2010; Tribe & Liburd, 2016). Several external institutions tend to produce the league tables indicating the performance of universities in such output measures as teaching, research, projects, publications, ability to get the graduates employed in the industry etc. The contents of teaching have become more practitioner-oriented indicating how they might be of value for the sake of businesses to make more profits and satisfy their customers. For the academics, these factors are more likely to hinder dealing with the big risky social issues but engage with safe topics that can easily be published and funded (Hall, 2010). Thus, within the neoliberal tourism world, the knowledge system serves the interests, priorities and problems created and supported by the industry, and do not criticize the market logic and managerialism in tourism (Tribe, 2007; Feighery, 2011)

Why the Academia and Industry Want to Come Together?

In light of the above debate, one can suggest that the academia and the industry co-exist in the same neoliberal tourism world. The academia-industry collabora-

tion is not such difficult because it addresses similar tourism world where various terms such as competition, entrepreneurship, customer-focus, and service quality abound. Within the academia-industry collaboration, the consequences of such collaboration may have mutual benefits; for instance bringing neoliberal tourism growth to the industry, and grants, tenures and publications for the academia (Cooper, 2015; Feighery, 2011; Thomas, 2011). Therefore, “tourism knowledge management” studies aim to eliminate the gap between the academia and industry worlds by producing, and benefiting from relevant tourism knowledge for managerial purposes (see Cooper, 2006; 2015; Pyo, 2012; Scott & Ding, 2008; Xiao & Smith, 2007). Despite limited, knowledge management studies in tourism have similar neoliberal or managerial wor(l)ds, since they remark the necessity of relevant knowledge production/management for competitiveness, innovation, service quality, customer satisfaction, and sustainable development (see Cooper, 2006; 2015).

Although tourism knowledge management studies address both organizational and destination levels, they privilege the business process of developing innovative products, gaining competitive advantage, and meeting the needs of suppliers and customers (Cooper, 2006). As a consequence, these studies explicitly privilege publics, who can use tourism knowledge for managerial purposes and benefit from this process, such as tourism businesses and customers (see Cooper, 2006; 2015; Pyo, 2012). They also tend to avoid the inclusion of tourism publics who are not directly involved in tourism, and do not need to use tourism knowledge. Moreover, the above-referenced studies depend on the naïve assumption that tourism knowledge management is interest and value free.

Discussion: On What Grounds the Academia Should (Not) Meet with the Industry?

Although the academia-industry collaboration can be justified for producing relevant tourism knowledge, such collaboration should also be critically addressed. Since the production of tourism knowledge is not value and interest free, the academia-industry collaboration may reinforce the mainstream/neoliberal tourism worlds rather than creating new tourism worlds (Tribe & Liburd, 2016); and this can privilege managerial interests and priorities, and marginalizes other publics who are not directly involved in tourism (Feighery, 2011; Tribe, 2007; 2008). Moreover, privileging the industry’s priorities may hinder the value of academic freedom and the industry may prefer taking the control to determine self-oriented questions such as “what is important”, “what should be addressed”, “who will guide whom”, “how should be addressed” within the neoliberal tourism world (Feighery, 2011; Tribe & Liburd, 2016).

To clarify, we do not claim that the academia should definitely stay in an ivory tower; and we agree that most tourism knowledge is desperate to address even the realities of the neoliberal-oriented tourism industry (Butler, 2015). However, as tourism scholars, we argue that our knowledge production should not be re-

stricted to industry's priorities within neo-liberalism, but should engage "critically" with the industry's priorities, and search for the possibilities of other tourism worlds rather than neoliberalism (Tribe, 2007; 2008; Tribe & Liburd, 2016). The restriction within the neoliberal tourism world, as Belhassen and Caton (2011) suggest, hinder "to work on behalf of public good in ways that transcend the promotion of short-term gains in economic productivity" (p. 1390).

CONCLUSION

In this study, our purpose is to problematize the academia-industry collaboration on the ground that such forms of collaboration improperly and unequally serves the neoliberal tourism world, and also restricts a possible existence of other tourism worlds to emerge and gradually become dominant. Our study can be enriched by situated data that are collected through the outputs of academia-industry meetings. Thus, future studies can analyse how the academia-industry partnership or collaboration is likely to be justified or problematized in situ by both parts; and how academics can respond to the expectations or requirements of these meetings in terms of both conformity and resistance within research practices and material arrangements (Feighery, 2011).

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Cultural Tourists in the Mediterranean Regions of Spain: Factors Explaining Their Presence and Behavior

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INTRODUCTION

Cultural tourism is becoming a relevant field of study since researchers and policy makers started to recognise the number of connections existing between culture and tourism. According to Europa Nostra more than 50% of tourist activity in Europe is driven by cultural heritage, and cultural tourism is expected to be one of the most dynamic activities of the tourism sector in the following years (<http://www.europanostra.org>). In the case of Spain tourists travelling for specific cultural motives accounted in 2014 for 24 million people, 13.7 million of domestic travellers (14% of domestic leisure travellers), plus 10.3 million of foreign tourists (17% of international leisure arrivals). Both groups of specific cultural travellers reported a revenue of €7,289 and €9,744 million, respectively. More widely, international tourists engaged in cultural activities represented more than 55% out of 65 million of international visitors arriving to the country in 2014 (AEC, 2015). In this context, cultural tourism is showing a number of characteristics that makes it a very attractive area of research. First, the body of research is still in construction. Second, culture is a very appealing topic for academics, policy makers, and the society, with cultural tourism topics converging in their research focus with other disciplines such as urban studies, innovation research, or even industrial organization studies (Richards, 2011; OECD, 2014). Third, cultural tourism is attracting the attention of outstanding researchers in the tourism sector, becoming a field of study for impact journals (McKercher and du Cross, 2002; Richards and

Wilson, 2006; Richards, 2011). And fourth, culture widely understood is becoming the pivotal asset for the renovation and updating of mature destinations, as well as for the launching of new ones. A good example of this is the salient role that “city tourism” is acquiring in the world tourism market, attracting a big share of new visitors in the EU territory (ETC, 2005). This explains that the European Commission and The Council of Europe have declared “cultural tourism” to be one of the current priorities for tourism sustainability.

In this context, the present paper pursues improving the understanding of the context surrounding cultural tourism. Focusing on the case of the Spanish Mediterranean coast, we start by identifying the factors that increase the probability of becoming a cultural visitor. Further, we seek for understanding the factors determining the behaviour of cultural tourists, in particular those related to their expenditure pattern, and declared level of trip satisfaction. Interesting tourism policy implications emerge from the results of the investigation.

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

We start by analyzing the factors explaining the probability of being a cultural tourist by using a bivariate probit model defined as:

$\Pr(\mathbf{y}_j \neq \mathbf{0} \mid \mathbf{x}_j) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_j \boldsymbol{\beta})$ where Φ is the standard cumulative normal

The set of explanatory variables include characteristics of the profile of the tourist, some on the trip itself, plus time and destination sets of dummy variables for the regions and period of analysis. Particularly, covariates of the model include the following ones:

- Profile of the tourist: Dummy variables for the country of residence of the visitor (EU countries, Canada, Japan, USA, Rest of Europe, Rest of the World). We also include dummy variables for level of studies (primary, secondary, tertiary), age (15-24 years old, 25-44 years, 45-64 years, more than 64 years), income level (high, middle, low), and gender of the tourist.
- Trip characteristics: Dummy variables for first visitors, length of stay (1-3 days of stay, 4-10 days, more than 10 days), type of accommodation (rent house, camping, family house, hotel, second-home, other accommodation), purpose of the visit (leisure, business, studies), season of the trip (four seasons), and for those visitors coming in their own car to the destination, as a way of approaching tourists coming from closer places (greater familiarity with the destination). We also include variables capturing some activities developed on the trip that usually act as a complement of cultural activities (health, gastronomy, gambling), as well as the use of internet for tourists when planning their holidays (for general info, or for booking purposes of accommodation and trip activities).

- Destination dummies: One for each of the five regions of the Spanish Mediterranean (Andalusia, Balearic Islands, Catalonia, Murcia, Valencia), in order to control for all their specificities (image, attributes, concept of place).
- Overall trip satisfaction declared by the tourist: We include this variable in order to see how it influences the probability of being a cultural tourist. It is defined for a 1-10 points likert scale, from least (1-7) to most (8-10) satisfied tourists.

The number of observations are of around 290,000, while the period of analysis include years 2004-2009. In general, the base model behaves quite well, showing some variables to be more relevant than others in explaining the probability of being a cultural tourist. The probability of being a tourist doing cultural visits is shown to increase, in this order, for non-EU tourists, first-time comers, non-second-home accommodated ones, and those non-coming for business purposes. Probability of being a cultural tourist also improves when the duration of stay is not a very short one (1-3 days), when the visitor chooses to do gastronomy consumption, when the regions of visit are prominently those of Andalusia and Catalonia, and with the level of education.

After dealing with the factors determining the probability of a visitor to become a cultural tourist, we seek to disentangle the main characteristics of two pivotal processes linked to the behaviour of cultural tourists, their expenditure pattern and their level of trip satisfaction. Explanatory variables are the same as those employed in the previous analysis, the expenditure model is estimated by OLS robust to heteroskedasticity method, while the satisfaction equation uses count data model with robust corrected errors. Dependent variable for the expenditure model is a continuous positive one, while satisfaction variable ranges between 0-10 interval, being 10 the top value of declared satisfaction by the interviewed tourist.

Results of the expenditure equations for cultural tourists show that main variables explaining the (log of) daily spending of tourists are related to the origin of tourist, level of studies, age, level of income, duration of stay, purpose of the trip activities, use of internet, and region visited. In terms of semi-elasticities ($\epsilon y/dx$), most important variables are those of geographical origin (non-EU visitors), short duration of stay, business purpose of the trip, activities, and visiting Catalonia and Andalusia. For cultural visits, it seems that having a higher level of income, using the Internet for general info, visiting Catalonia, and not having primary level of studies promotes higher daily expenditure than in the general tourists' case. For visitors assisting to cultural events main differences with general tourists arise from shorter (1-3 days) stayers. In general we must remember that cultural visitors spend €88 per day, those in cultural events €99, and other cultural activities €96, while general tourists spend €93 daily in average. By contrast, the mean stay of cultural tourists is of 8.8, 10.9 and 10.7 days respectively, versus 8.3 of general tourists. In this way, total spending is higher for cultural tourists (€664, €969, and

€898, respectively) than for the general ones (€584). As a summary, one can see that cultural tourists, particularly those related to events and spectacles, stay for more time, and spend more in total than the typical general tourist. The country of origin (and its level of relative income), the duration of the stay, the purpose of the visit (business vs leisure), and the gastronomic offer as the leading complement, emerge as pivotal issues in the cultural tourism management policy for these destinations.

Results for the satisfaction equation show the relevance of the following variables as main drivers of overall levels of trip satisfaction of tourists: origin of the tourists (non-EU one, majorly from the Rest of the World), tertiary level of studies, older age, high level of income, woman, long stayer, second or family home accommodated, leisure trip, gambling, using the Internet for planning the trip, and visiting the region of Valencia. In the case of cultural visits, idiosyncratic factors fostering overall trip satisfaction are those of being a visitor from the Rest of the World, having an older age, and coming to Valencia, while for cultural events, salient features are those of not coming from the rest of Europe, having an older age (more than 64 years old), higher level of income, being female, coming with your own car, gambling activities, employing Internet for booking purposes, and visiting Catalonia, Murcia, or Balearic Islands. In general, the origin of the tourist (the capacity of attraction of the destination before the trip, and previous expectations of the (first-time) visitor), the level of studies and income, the age, duration of stay, leisure trips, and the use of Internet appear to be main drivers of highly satisfied tourists. Destination characteristics also appear to be important in the general case (Valencia region), and for cultural tourists (Valencia, Catalonia and Murcia). Female satisfaction is also declared to be higher in all cases, a relevant outcome interesting to be more deeply investigated.

CONCLUSION

Culture and heritage are two of the most relevant assets of Europe nowadays. Cultural tourism in a wider sense has been acting as a powerful engine of the tourism and hospitality industry in the last two decades. This type of tourism not only proportions increasing levels of income to EU destinations, but also allows promoting a high-quality and sustainable development of tourist activities, enriching in this way the quality of life of indigenous residents. This paper has focused on better identifying the factors that promote the presence of cultural tourists at destinations, and variables driving the expenditure and trip satisfaction behaviour of this type of tourists. The empirical work has employed data for one of the main tourist places in Europe, the Mediterranean coast of Spain, with more than 40 million arrivals per year. The first part of the study has allowed to better understand which the factors are explaining the cultural dimension of visitors. The second part has shown which variables ultimately lead two important components of the competitiveness of destinations, the amount of their income receipts and the level of satisfaction of their visitors.

Despite the great volume of results encountered along the investigation, a number of policy issues can be identified. In the case of the sustainability of tourist destinations we have seen that visitors coming for cultural purposes spend more in average than general visitors, stay for more days, and show higher levels of overall trip satisfaction. This type of tourism also promotes new visits from extra-EU countries, first-time visitors, and of those with higher level of studies. All these issues allow enriching the cultural and people's diversity arriving to a destination, and in this way improving the well-being and intangible assets available for indigenous residents. These results suggest that promoting and developing cultural tourism is a desirable policy in itself, given the related outcomes arising for entrepreneurs, authorities, and the society in general. Promoting cultural tourism in distant destinations is always a good policy, as shown by the investigation. Cultural policies should be focused on building on a wide definition of culture and cultural supplies, including infrastructures (museums, fairs, exhibitions), spectacles and events, as well as other intangible assets increasingly attracting the attention of tourists at creative destinations (interdisciplinary courses, monographic workshops, interactive festivals, places of interaction of locals and visitors, sustainable agriculture, country-side activities). Finally, cultural tourism allow to reduce seasonality issues in demand, what is really important for the sustainability and renovation of seaside destinations.

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Sport Hotels Resort: New Offer Facing New Demanding

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INTRODUCTION

The diversification of the tourism activity is essential for a destination if it wants to be competitive. The competitiveness becomes extremely relevant above all in the economies depending upon the tourism sector directly (Taberner, 2007). In a globalized economy as the one we have nowadays, where Internet has created a transformation of the tourism industry, it is necessary for a destination to assure its appealing and make all the experiences offered superior than others competitors. In that sense, Perles (2010) points out “the strategy of products diversification suppose that the entry in new markets with new products being able to be related or not with the products-markets today. For all these reasons, the tourism products specialization through innovation can be a catalyst of a new demand, thanks to the differentiation with the rest of tourism destinations (Buhalis, 2000).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The tourism destination Balearic Islands is in its maturity stage and to avoid its decline (Butler, 1980; 2005) one of the strategies followed is the diversification of its offer. That is promote complementary products to “sun and beach” like the gastronomic, cultural or sports tourism (García, Alemany & Trias, 2015). Today, the sports tourism is an important element of diversification of the Spanish offer since the mass tourism starts to decline (Ramírez, 2013). In the Balearic Islands, according to data of the Federacion Empresarial Hotelera De Mallorca (FEHM) in 2013 the island received 150.000 cyclists. In this way, there is evidence of a solid de-

mand growing each day. The good weather in spring and autumn, topography with big plains with hard slopes in the high mountains and secondary roads net of 675 km. make the island an ideal place to cycle.

So, a lot of cyclists choose Mallorca as a destination to practise this sport. As a result, the mallorquinian hotel offer is adapting itself to this market niche. According to FEHM data, nowadays the island has got 842 hotel establishments, of which more than 150 hotels have specialized, in more or less measure, its product to attend the demands of cycling and other sports as triathlon with the purpose to make longer the season and occupation.

METHODOLOGY

With the aim of go deep in the adaptation of this new trend, it has been considered to study how some of the more emblematic chains of the Balearic Islands have focus on cover this recent demand of the sport tourism, in particular, cycling and triathlon. For that, it has been applied the case method, an investigation methodology used in social sciences and in business management (Yin, 2004) where the description can be used (Eisenhardt, 1989) and data can be collected from different information sources (Chetty, 1996). Also, the investigation is done reviewing recent publications and making interviews to managers of different hotel groups.

RESULTS

In this article is analysed the case of the establishments Viva Blue & Spa and Iberostar Playa de Muro, both 4 star hotels, not only the firsts to attract cyclists to Mallorca, but they are a reference in the hotel adaptation to the sport tourism. Although these hotels in the high season are focused on family tourism, they have adapt its facilities to the cycling and triathlon practice during the low season taking advantage of its excellent location in Playa de Muro. Both hotels are situated at few meters from the sea and in an area with 32 cycle routes. Therefore, it is bet for the sport and a good example of how a hotel establishment can give added value and difference itself from the competitors.

Viva Blue & Spa belongs to the familiar mallorquinian chain Hotels Viva, and manages one of the best equipped sport facilities. The hotel has got a semiolimpic heated swimming-pool of 25m. with 6 lanes to train only, a storage room for bicycles with 400 hooks with individual padlocks. Also it has a whole sport infrastructure to do aerobic, yoga, Pilates, fitness, thanks to its full equipped gym. In addition, it has got a Spa to help the sportsmen to recover. It should be noted that Viva Blue & Spa has got a conference room for sportsmen only and the Viva Cycling Station, a space to buy and hire bicycles, brand Cannondale, where the cyclists can also hire guides specialized in cycling and have the service of bicycle transport, replacements, clothes, nutritional supplements.

On the other hand, the Iberostar chain has diversified its tourism offer in Mallorca through the hotel Iberostar Playa de Muro. This hotel has the proper facili-

ties for cycling, swimming, athletics and triathlon. Regarding to cycling, Iberostar Playa de Muro has made maps with the different cycle routes for its clients where it can be found the altitude levels and the difficulty. On the other hand, thanks to an agreement with the Hürzeler Bicycle Holidays, it has the bigger station in Mallorca with a capacity of 1.200 bicycles and a repair shop. It also has a shop where clients can buy or rent high standing bicycles of the brands Cube and Centurion and buy food products and isotonic drinks. The hotel has got a 25m. heated swimming pool, a gym with specific machines for cyclists, a water area to relax after a cycling day and professional specialized in sport massage. Both hotels also take care of a good nutrition of its clients. They have designed diets rich on carbohydrates, having in mind that alimentation influences the sportsmen performance.

Moreover, these tourism companies have gone further than a adaptation of its facilities for the sport tourist. Viva Hotels has created a sub-brand with the aim of increase its notoriety in this segment: Viva Ciclyng. Not in vain, the company knows that the Brand is a vital importance to position in its current and future clients mind. To do this, among other things, organize the Viva Cycling Sportive, a non competitive cycle event with 104 km. Furthermore, this chains have also bet for the sports sponsorship. The Iberostar Playa de Muro hotel is the operations base and sponsors the cycle route M312 and Iberostar Challenge Mallorca. The chain Hotels Viva sponsors the Ironman 70.3 and the Challenge Run & Bike by S'Escapada, a competition that joins two sports events in one: Trail Running and Mountainbike. In this way, the sponsorship becomes a powerful promotion strategy for these companies due to these competitions are an attractive pool for professionals and cycling amateurs.

It should be noted that Viva Blue & Spa and Iberostar Playa de Muro, thanks to its firm commitment for cycling, welcome professional teams as Sky, Astana, Lotto, Leopard or Movistar Team that go to the Island to make its preseason trainings. In this way, the sportsmen are a good claim not only for the potential clients that practice an sport also they help to position Mallorca as a destination not only like a "sun and beach" holidays, but also a place to enjoy a sport tourism.

CONCLUSION

So, in such competitive environment as it is the tourism, every time is more relevant the need to reinvent a tourism destination with the aim to keep the leadership and the competitiveness. The sport tourism, in particular cycling tourism can help Mallorca to a conversion thanks to the sports boom and the change of the consumer habits of the population. Currently most of the Island hotels close some months of the year due to the most popular tourism is seasonal. However, those hotels that have realised more investment to attend sport tourists have been able to make longer the season thanks to the hotel occupation. Finally, in Mallorca the trend is to host international sports events. These sports events are an excellent image campaign for Mallorca.

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Food as a Component in Destination Marketing: A Case Study of Visit England

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INTRODUCTION

The marketing of tourism destinations is an increasingly competitive global phenomenon (Pike and Page, 2014). In particular, from the demand side, tourists enjoy a plethora of choices of available destinations, while from the supply side, destination marketing organisations (DMOs) at all levels are trying to compete for attention in this highly competitive market.

As the competition between destinations becomes increasingly fierce, culture becomes a key differentiator. This is because of recent shift from an era of industrial to one of cultural capitalism (Yeoman, McMahon-Beattie, Fields, Albrecht and Meethan, 2015) as well as the rise of the experience economy and experience marketing (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). For that reason, at the destination level building on the cultural resources and experiences, such as food, becomes an important aspect in contemporary tourism (Yeoman et al., 2015).

However, while food tourism has clearly emerged as a part of the cultural experience within many destinations, little is still known about food and tourism and the academic community has been surprisingly slow to consider the theoretical potential in the context of destination marketing (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). This study therefore aims to critically examine how food is used in the destination marketing in England. In particular, this study applies a qualitative content analysis of the official website of England's National Tourism Board (Visit England.com). The main aim of this study is to gain an understanding of how food is used to market England as a tourist destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the destination marketing literature, each destination should, where possible, attempt to differentiate itself by highlighting its unique features (Pike and Page, 2014). However, it is becoming more and more difficult for destinations

to differentiate against rivals offering the similar attributes and benefits. In particular, from the demand side, tourists enjoy a wealth of choices of available destinations, while from the supply side, DMOs at all levels compete for attention in this highly competitive market.

Destinations, therefore, need to offer a unique and differentiated tourism product in order to remain competitive (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). As such, the marketing of food is seen as a way of developing the distinctiveness and uniqueness of place (Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Macionis, & Cambourne, 2003). However, although there have been numerous studies on marketing tourism destinations, the empirical evidence on how food is used in destination marketing is still limited (Lee & Scott, 2015).

It is only recently that food and food tourism have received growing research interest. Evidence suggests that food can play an important role in tourists' destination choice and food can be a reason to visit and revisit a destination (Getz, Robinson, Vujicic, & Andersson, 2014; Long, 2004). In particular, local food has been presented as the embodiment of culture (Long, 2004).

Food not only differentiates destinations, but also provides opportunity for DMOs to supply tourists with a more meaningful form of experience based on active participation rather than simple and passive consumption (Smith & Xiao, 2008). In the context of the experience economy, the focus of many tourists has changed from the classic "must see" physical sights towards a "must experience" desire to consume intangible expressions of a destination (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). This approach is entirely distinct to the "gaze" perspective which for many years championed a detached stance (Urry, 2002). Consequently, food can provide a unique and multisensory experience that can only be consumed in a destination if one goes beyond the visual.

Arguably food is gathering momentum in destination marketing. This is because food can be viewed as a reflection of the culture of the destination and its people (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). It conveys something indigenous and unique to a specific destination (Smith, 2015). Therefore, it can be seen not only as a way to provide a greater enjoyment of the unique and multisensory nature of place, but also as a source of touristic competitive advantage and as a differentiation factor in destination marketing (Yeoman et al., 2015). However, despite this, empirical evidence on how food is used in destination marketing is still limited and deserves more scholarly attention (Kim, Yuan, Goh and Antun, 2009; Okumus, Okumus & McKercher, 2007)

METHODOLOGY

This study adopts a case study approach which is understood as an inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin, 2013). It is believed that such approach will provide an in-depth investigation and evaluation of how food is used in the destination marketing of England. The decision to

choose this destination was in line with recent growth in food initiatives emerging from this area. What is more, according to the latest statistics (VisitEngland, 2015) food plays a vital role in the marketing of England as a tourist destination. However, to date there have been no studies of food in the marketing of England. This therefore, will make a unique and original contribution to our understanding of this emerging phenomenon.

In January 2016 the official DMO website (www.visitengland.com) was manually scanned to identify food-related content. As a result, "Food and Drink" section was downloaded and saved in a pdf format. This included a total of 387 food-related experience results presented in 8 extant categories.

In order to investigate how Visit England uses food in the marketing of the destination, this study applied a qualitative content analysis with an open coding technique to discover the themes and keep the relevant categories true to the essence of the data (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). In total, 71 pages of textual material and 283 photographs were analysed using NVivo 10. Textual material was examined line-by-line and sometimes word-by-word. Photographs were coded by first describing what the photograph depicted and then allocating it to a category that appeared to represent the photograph. Open coding involved breaking data apart and describing concepts to stand for interpreted meaning of raw data. Some of the research findings are presented in the next section.

RESULTS

Food descriptors

Content analysis of adjectives used to describe food on the website identified a total of 41 food descriptors. Interestingly, the most often used adjective was "local" which shows that there is an emphasis in the use of locally sourced food products. This is not surprising, as according to the literature local food can help differentiate destinations by offering tourists unique and authentic experience. Accordingly, local food can be viewed as a reflection of the culture of the destination and its people (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). It conveys something indigenous and unique to a specific destination (Smith, 2015). As such in the increasingly competitive tourism industry, destinations are keen to market local food as a way to achieve local distinctiveness of place (Ab Karim and Chi, 2010).

Rural/Urban

The marketing of food in rural destinations was mostly based on three themes- "nature", "history" and "tradition". The theme "nature" was the most common theme and within this theme information on food was presented with peaceful and relaxing images of the English countryside. Images of food tended to show only traditional and regional dishes such as for example Melton Mowbray Pork Pie, Bakewell Tart, Wensleydale Cheese.

Food descriptors in rural destinations emphasised seasonality, freshness and locally sourced ingredients. For example, Yorkshire was described as providing best seasonal food- from forest floor to plate. This indicates that in rural destinations the crucial part is played by ingredients, which are locally sourced and unique, and reflect the "terroir" (an untranslatable word that connotes the local spaces and soils) which can be simply defined as the combined effect of environment and the customs and ceremonies of the people who produce local dishes (Hammer, 2011). Therefore, it can be summarised that in rural destinations food is shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions.

Urban destinations on the other hand were presented as modern, exciting and diverse. Images tended to show busy restaurants and positive social interactions, with people smiling and interacting with each other. Photographs of food included diversified dishes representing various cuisines (Caribbean, Chinese, French, Indian, and Italian). There were also photographs of food districts reflecting the multicultural structures of urban destinations.

Urban destinations were described as cosmopolitan with a wide range of food establishments. One of the most interesting findings of this study was to find out that Bradford (an industrial city in the heart of England) has been named England's curry capital five times in a row since 2012. With a long industrial heritage, Bradford was once the wool capital of the world, however nowadays it is one of the most multi-ethnic cities in England. It can be interpreted that Bradford's multicultural community has a major impact on the cultural life of the city which has been recognised and embraced in destination marketing.

As a result, it can be argued that marketing of food in urban destinations reflects the global character of contemporary tourism and it also reflects the multicultural and globalised nature of cities.

CONCLUSION

This paper has aimed to investigate how Visit England uses food in marketing the destination. The qualitative content analysis of both photographs and text indicate a clear difference between marketing of food in rural and urban areas. In particular, substantial differences can be noted between the description and presentation of food and the constrictions of images in urban and rural areas. Rural places tend to present only traditional and local food products reflecting their terroir as a point of differentiation. By contrast, urban destinations have a greater diversity of food products, cuisines and culinary cultures and are perceived as vibrant and multicultural destinations that embrace international cuisines.

Without doubt, the results of this research need to be interpreted within the context for which this research was designed- that of destination marketing in England. It is believed, however, that both the methodological approach and its application mean that the findings should be useful for those responsible for des-

ination marketing both in England and elsewhere as well as for researchers in this field in suggesting further areas of work. Clearly, this research is still at early stages and there is much work still to do. However, it is hoped that this study has *whetted the appetites* of academics interested in examining food as a component in destination marketing.

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Visitors' Perceptions of Museums

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INTRODUCTION

As pointed out by Malde (2013), following budget cuts and increasing competition, museums' need to engage with the tourism market has never been stronger. Today, museums with their strong brands and iconic buildings are trying to attract cultural tourists. However, such assets would quickly turn to cliché by treating the cultural tourism market as undifferentiated. Nevertheless, recent research findings suggest that today's cultural tourists are individuals from a variety of backgrounds and with a variety of interests. Museums of all types are in need to satisfy these tourists. More than just brands and buildings, as great storytellers, museums offer inspiration and information through their collections, exhibitions and events. Today, there is an opportunity for all museums to engage cultural tourists by understanding and connecting with them.

Therefore, framed within the field of cultural tourism, the current research is focused on the case of museums. As pointed out by Kotler and Kotler (1998: 105), museum visitors have a strong link to tourism, since tourists are a part of the audiences and for some museums even a large part of the total number of visitors. Therefore, it is important for museums to understand what kind of visitors tourists are and their relationship with the museum.

In this regard, the aim of this research is to explore visitors' perceptions of the meaning, value and benefits of museum experiences. By examining visitors' definition of a museum, this research aims to understand what museums mean and how they meet the expectations of their current visitors. This research is important in the sense that its findings can help in the development and marketing of cultural heritage-based tourism products and as a consequence contribute to the conservation of the tangible and intangible heritage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Today, museums are increasingly using marketing tools and techniques to achieve greater visibility, to enlarge their offerings, to develop a broader audience and to raise income (Kotler & Kotler, 2000; Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002). In the area of museum marketing, a substantial amount of research focuses on audience research to help managers profile their visiting publics (Harrison & Shaw, 2004).

A large number of citizens are uninterested in museums (McLean, 1995). It was found that one-third of museum goers never enter a gallery; they spend all their time in the museum shop or the café (Thyne, 2001). According to the most recent survey of EGMUS (2007), 58% of the citizens participated in the research (over 26000 individuals) never visited museums or galleries in the last 12 months in 27 member states of the EU. However, as a recent audience research suggests, the growth and future of museums rests in better understanding the behavior of repeating visitors (Yeh & Lin, 2005). As MORI (2005) suggested, 59% of visitors are repeat visitors of a particular museum or a gallery. Of these repeat visitors, almost three quarters (73%) had already visited in the previous 12 months.

Social scientists at Cambridge University find that education and social status are the two most important factors influencing arts participation (HLF, 2012). The probability of visiting a museum increases with age and the extent that people visited museums when they were young. In other words, those who visited museums as children are more likely to visit museums as adults. In fact, this effect is maintained one's entire life (DCMS, 2010).

Regarding perceptions of publics, Arts Council of England (2013) investigated both visiting and non-visiting public perceptions of and attitudes to the roles and purposes of museums in society. By interviewing 90 participants, it was found that there is strong positive emotional attachment to museums by both visitors and non-visitors. It was also found that participants had a relatively sophisticated understanding of museums as shaping our future as well as past. However, Lin (2006) says, the general public perceives museums as places for education and learning thus they are boring and dull places; not suitable for leisure purposes. Such perceptions prevent non-visitors from visiting museums.

On the other hand, segmenting the cultural tourism market, Pulido-Fernandez and Sanchez-Rivero (2010) identified three major segments: 1) *museum culturophiles*, 2) *culturally inactives* and 3) *roaming culturophiles*. While museum culturophiles seem to value museums highly, they do not seem to visit other cultural events. The culturally inactive segment attaches importance to museum offerings but has a low probability of making actual visits. Roaming culturophiles or tourists are likely to make cultural visits during their stay, that is, actually take cultural events into account while making destination choices, but have little interest in museums specifically.

As Stylianou-Lamber (2011) notes, tourists have an increased desire to visit cultural attractions when abroad. There is also evidence that tourists who visit museums when abroad are already predisposed to do so at home. As stated by Kim, Chen, Cheng and O'Leary (2007: 1370), "individuals' experiences in everyday life carry over into tourism arena, which results in a similar pattern of everyday practice and tourism cultural practice".

METHODOLOGY

Results presented in this paper are part of a larger research study that investigated various types of museum visitors and segments. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, face-to-face interviews were conducted with current museum visitors in two main museums in Genoa, Italy. A quota sample of 400 museum visitors who agreed to participate in the research was interviewed by one of the authors, as well as by a graduate student trained and monitored by the author. Interviews were conducted in a range of places, at various times of day and at different periods (between July and August, 2014) so that a representative sample could be obtained. As part of the interviews, participants were asked to define a museum. Among the questionnaires collected, 372 were usable to be analyzed for this paper. The majority of respondents were from Italy (41.9%), followed by France (33.2%) and other European countries (18.5%). Regarding Italian respondents, only 13.2% were from Genoa. We used NVivo for our qualitative data analysis.

RESULTS

While defining the museum in mind, respondents used the following words the most;

- "Place" 189 times
- "Culture/cultural" 94 times, "heritage" 12 times
- "History/historical" 78 times, "past" 46 times, "memory" 20 times
- "Present" 13 times, "Future" 10 times, "new" 16 times
- "Art/artist/artistic/artwork" 73 times, "beauty/beautiful" 26 times
- "Learn/learning" 63 times, "knowledge" 26 times, "discover/discovery" 16 times, "see" 16 times, "wonder" 16 times, "education" 4 times, "information" 4 times
- "Interesting" 28 times, "entertaining/entertainment" only 2 times
- "Boring" 4 times, "death", "sad" and similar negative words only three times in total

Based on these findings, we may claim that respondents mostly associate museums as a place and with culture, history, art and learning. Most frequently cited verbs include "learn", "see" and "wonder".

Among the definitions made by the visitors, the following may be mentioned;

- A world of wonder.
- A place where we can grow and discover other cultures.
- A place to learn a bit of art, a bit of history and a place to have good time.
- Wealth of the soul.
- In the way they are organized they are “places of death” (Umberto Eco) should develop side-collateral activities more “alive”.
- Place of culture, amazement and heritage conservation.
- Place to keep, save cultural, national, historical heritage and knowledge, to make this heritage and knowledge known to people and present it in a way that makes people aware about their importance and beauty to ensure that they are kept for future generations.
- Museums are places where history, art, architecture combine to enrich and excite the visitor and you come out happier than you have entered.
- Place to improve our own culture, learning to know, nourishment for the soul through art and history. To know the past in order to understand the present.
- A window on the world.
- At present only deposits.
- Museums are an open box of beauty, past and future.
- Place of culture in order to learn and understand our past.
- Important place of culture; it would be interesting to propose again openings up to 24 hours.
- A source of culture that brings psychological balance.
- It is a place where you can move in time, try to understand feelings and the way of life of people. It’s entertaining to see the rooms and interiors of other centuries.
- A meeting with the history. It is the way the past can speak to the men of present times.

CONCLUSION

As important cultural organizations in the service of society, museums have been going through a change from being predominantly custodial institutions to becoming increasingly focused on audience attraction (Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002) and with cultural tourists. In order to increase visitation and survive in the long run,

today's museums need to understand their visiting and non-visiting publics. Therefore, this research is designed in a way to understand various publics of the museums and their perceptions of museums. This research is important in the sense that its findings can help in the development and marketing of museums and as a consequence serve for a higher purpose and contribute to the conservation of cultural heritage. Nevertheless, through the enjoyment of cultural heritage, museums can help develop a climate of public awareness of the value of cultural heritage, conservation and protection in people by all ages and socio-economic groups with different life-styles.

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Continuing Value Calculation with Discounted Cash Flows Method: An Application Example for Tekart Tourism Establishment Who's Shares Are Dealt in Istanbul Stock

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INTRODUCTION

In the business world where there is intense competition, it is important to evaluate the material and nonmaterial factors of the firm as calculable and to detect the firm value in the process of rising value of the stock within the deepening financial markets (Aydın, 2012). Each method produced to guess the price and marketing value of the asset investment right should contain validity (Nick, Gabrielli, 2005). Because as long as firm assets can create cash they represent a value, the firm value is tried to be determined by estimating cash flows. Firm value occurs if it makes capital investment in a way that it will provide returns above the capital cost (Copeland, Koller, Murrin, 1996: 96; Önal, Karadeniz & Kandır, 2005). The most common method in the calculation of the value of firms is 'discounted cash flows (DCF)' method (Verginis & Taylor, 2004).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Discounted Cash Flows Method (DCF) is described as the method which reduces cash flows that the firm will create in the future to present value by using the discount rate determined as of the valuation date (Aydın, 2012). Firm value which is one of the variables in the equation of DCF method is formulized as follows (Önal, Karadeniz & Kandır, 2005);

$$\text{Firm Value} = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{(\text{FCFF})_t}{(1+\text{WACC})^t} + \frac{(\text{FCFF})_{n+1} / \text{WACC}}{(1 + \text{WACC})^n}$$

t: Period of cash flows

g: Growth rate of cash flows after the anticipated period

(FCFF)t: Free cash flow to the firm in t period in the future

(WACC): Weighted average cost of capital

Damodaran, (2002, p;303) and Kırılı (2005) formulize firm value as follows;

$$V = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{CF_t}{(1+k)^t} + \frac{\text{Continuing Valuen}}{(1+k)^n}$$

V: Firm value

CFt: Cash flow in t period

k: Reduction ratio

n: Estimation period of cash flows

Continuing value n: Continuing Value at the end of the estimated period of the company

Process Layout in Discounted Cash Flows Method (Copeland at.al. 1996:157)

When the related model is wanted to be used for non-public firms the model is tried to be applied with a comparative method by benefiting from the data of public like of the firm (Aydın, 2012).

CASH FLOWS

One of the methods calculates free cash flows with reference to net profit, the other method subtracts the tax from the earnings before interest and tax (EBIT-t) and calculates free cash flow with reference to this value (Önal, Karadeniz & Kandır, 2005).

WEIGHTED AVERAGE CAPITAL COST

WACC is calculated according to the weights of average costs of different sources used in financing of a firm as follows (Üreten and Ercan, 2000, p.61);

$$WACC = ce(E/(E+D+PS)) + cd(D/(E+D+PS)) + cps(PS/(E+D+PS))$$

ce : cost of equity,

cd : cost of debts,

cps :cost of preferred stocks,

$E/(E+D+PS)$: The market value of equity ratio to total resources,

$D/(E+D+PS)$: The market value of debts ratio to total resources,

$PS/(E+D+PS)$: The market value of preferred stocks ratio to total resources.

Brealy. R, and Myers. S, (1988, p; 451) explain weighted average capital cost with the following formula;

r^* = Weighted average cost of capital

r_D = Market return ratio of the firm shares

r_E = Expected return ratio of the firm shares (dependent on the ratio of business risk and debt of the firm)

T_c = Marginal income tax ratio of the firm

D, E = Market value of equity and debt

$V = D + E$ = Total market value of firm assets

$$r^* = r_D \left(\frac{D}{V} (1 - T_c) \right) + r_E \left(\frac{E}{V} \right)$$

CONTINUING VALUE

According to Continuing Value period (Jennergren, 2006) method, CV is calculated as follows (Copeland, Koller, Murrin, 1996, p.287);

$CV : NOPLAT_{+1} * (1 - g / ROIC) / (WACC - g)$

$NOPLAT_{+1}$: First Year Net Operating Profit Less Adjusted Taxes After the Expected Period,

g : Expected Growth Rate in $NOPLAT$ Value Forever,

$ROIC$: Expected Net Return Ratio on New Invested Capital.

In another method, CV can be calculated as follows (Levin & Olsson, 2000: 17):

$$CV = \frac{FCFF_{t+1}}{(WACC - g) (1 + WACC)^t}$$

$FCFF$: Free cash flow to the firm,

$WACC$: Weighted average cost of capital

t : Period of cash flows,

g: Growth rate of cash flows after the anticipated period

METHODOLOGY

Accordingly, discounted cash flows are found via the following method;

$$DCF = \frac{A_1}{(1+i)^1} + \frac{A_2}{(1+i)^2} + \frac{A_3}{(1+i)^3} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{(1+i)^n} = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{A_t}{(1+i)^t}$$

A_t : Net cash flow in tth year

n: Period used in cash flows estimation

i: Discount rate

In this study, CV of Tek-Art Construction Trade Tourism Industry and Investments inc. which is one of the tourism businesses dealt in Istanbul Stock Exchange (BİST) is calculated according to the discounted cash flows method. In order to determine CV of the firm in question, basic financial statements between 2008-2012 years are used in the analysis. Data related to the firm are obtained from the website of Public Disclosure Platform (PDP). Four years of data of Tek-Art Construction Trade Tourism Industry and Investments inc. taking place in both sector extent are reached and in order for the data to be cleansed from inflation, they are escalated to 2012 year. CPI annual change rates used for that purpose are given in Table 1. Moreover, values are exchanged to ABD dollars through CBT (Central Bank of Turkey) exchange rate. The rate used for that purpose is determined as 2,03 as of the date of 16 December 2013 (<http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/kurlar/today.html>).

CPI Change Rates (%)

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CPI(Change)	12,72	1,23	8,52	11,09	6,09

Source: https://www.asmmmo.org.tr/asmmmo/content.php?content_id=40

*Change rates show annual average with respect to previous December

WACC value used while finding estimated market value of the examined tourism business is calculated with Capital Asset Pricing Model (CAPM) on annual basis, and then it is averaged and assumed that this value will not change for the following years (Önal et.al, 2005). September 2013 dated Treasury bill rate (4,40%)

Net Business Capital	10,739,598	10,739,598	10,739,598	10,739,598	10,739,598	10,739,598
Net Tangible Fixed Assets	60.719.396	60.719.396	60.719.396	60.719.396	60.719.396	60.719.396
Other Assets - Other Debts	2.754.832	2.754.832	2.754.832	2.754.832	2.754.832	2.754.832
Invested Capital for Activities	68.704.162	68.704.162	68.704.162	68.704.162	68.704.162	68.704.162

CV calculation according to DCF method:

CV of DCF= [NOPLAT 2018 x (1- (Growth Rate of Sales / ROIC))] / (WACC - Growth Rate of Sales)

CV of DCF=(724,587*(1-(0/0,0968)))/(0,-0,0968)= 724,587/0,0968=7.485.402,89

Table 2. Value of Firm Activities According to DCF Method, Billion TL

Years	Free Cash Flow	Present Value Factor	Net Present Value
2013	836.977	0,9091	760.895
2014	820.209	0,8264	677.820
2015	800.975	0,7513	601.772
2016	778.914	0,6830	531.998
2017	753.611	0,6209	467.917
CV	7.485.402	0,6209	4.647.686
Value of Activities Previous to Correction			7.688.088
Midyear Correction Factor			2,03
Value of Activities			15.606.818
CV, Billion TL (\$)			
NOPLAT			1.470.911(724.587)
WACC			0,0968
ROIC			0,0968
G(growth)			0
CV			15.195.366(7.485.40)

Value of Activities = 15.195.366

Stocks and Bonds = 767.445

Firm Value= 15.962.811

In accordance with the assumptions and predictions about Tek-Art Construction Trade Tourism Industry and Investments inc., Value of Activities (7.485.402 TL) and Continuing Value (7.485.402 TL) achieved as a result of the calculations made according to DCF method are detected to be the same values. When stocks and bonds are added to the value of activities, firm value is found to be 15.962.811 TL. When looked at the analysis results of Tekart Tourism business, value of activities (15.195.366 TL), firm value (15.962.81 TL) and CV (7.485.402 TL and 7.485.402 TL) are the same values according to DCF method. Moreover, the rate of firm's calculated CV to firm value is detected to be 46,89%. That share of Continuing Value in the company value approaches 50% is a sign that fixed capital investments' converting to company as cash will occur in the following years.

CONCLUSION

As a result of the calculation, present value of cash flows after the period in which estimation will be made will be acquired and firm value will be revealed by reducing it to the valuation day. Consequently, CV has a crucial role in revealing firm value realistically. In this study, analyses are made by using the financial statement data of a tourism business whose share are dealt in İstanbul Stock Exchange; Firm Value and Continuing Value are calculated. In consequence of the calculations, CV of the examined firm is found to be 7.485.402 TL and firm value is found to be 15.195.366 TL. In conclusion, it is understood that CV of the examined firm makes a significant share of 46,89% of firm value. This situation reveals how much CV is important in firm evaluation.

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Advantages of Augmented Reality in Tourism Marketing

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INTRODUCTION

Augmented reality (AR) is a type of technology in which computers generate images, which are superimposed onto any surface to enhance the issue of concern. Augmented reality (AR) allows marketers to have a combination of the physical world and the digital world, which enables both users and brands to connect far before or during and after a product is purchased. AR could as well be used as a new way of advertisement in any printed materials such as tourism catalogues, brochures, pamphlets, flyers and so on. This means that augmented reality may provide a better understanding of what the customer wants to buy, use or benefit from. It may be about accommodation, entertainment or even special events. Indeed, some services are underutilized in tourism and hospitality. In this sense, augmented reality systems may be utilized effectively as an extremely persuasive power and may also provide advantageous opportunities to market services successfully (Yovcheva et al, 2012).

AR is considered highly important for marketing in many industries; however, in the tourism industry there exist relatively few researches and articles despite the fact that tourism could very well benefit from the applications for these practices. Therefore, the main purpose of the paper is to provide an understanding of the advantages and potentials of AR as a marketing tool for the tourism industry.

More specifically, this paper aimed to achieve the following research objectives:

- To determine the potentials of the AR applications in the tourism industry.
- To determine the advantages of AR applications in the tourism industry from the perspective of marketing.

AUGMENTED REALITY IN TOURISM

The wide use of smart phones has led to more and more mobile applications (apps) in consumer technology (Eden and Gretzel, 2012) and respectively AR has

become one of the new advertising and marketing tools (Höllerer and Feiner, 2004). With the help of AR, the users of smart phone and tablet computers point their built-in cameras on these devices at whatever object they want, which then generates a 3D video (Azuma, 1997; Linaza et al, 2012). This object may be a print advertisement or even a coffee cup at a well-known coffee shop. In other words, augmented reality allows businesses to combine the digital world with the real world. This extraordinary function is particularly appealing to younger tech-lovers who generally hesitate to use traditional advertising methods (Craig, 2013). AR, however, does not only look attractive to young population but also old population. This is well explained what ABI Research estimates about the market for augmented reality in the US: \$350 million in 2014, which is much higher than \$6 million in the US market in 2008 (Russell, 2012).

AR enables its users to take digital information such as a current photo and integrate it into a live stream video or into the real time, present environment of the user (Höllerer and Feiner, 2004; Craig, 2013; Berryman, 2012). The software developed for augmented reality is the source of all these possibilities. Smart phones with the AR will make use of GPS technology and the location of the users will be identified to determine the orientation of the device (Taylor, 2013).

Augmented reality (AR) applications are characterized as an overlay of computer graphics to the user's actual field of view (Haala and Böhm, 2003). In augmented reality technology, in very basic terms, reality and virtual world are enhanced or augmented, which assures the users experience the combination of both worlds (Carmigniani et al, 2011). By augmented reality, virtual images are generated by computers and these images could be superimposed onto physical objects in real time. In other words, virtual images are used to interact by the users in a smooth way (Billinghurst, 2002, Azuma, 1997).

Augmented reality has been used in many areas such as marketing, entertainment, sightseeing, industry, fashion and medicine. For instance, AR is used in museums to provide their customers with additional information about an object or current displays. Similar to museums, AR is used in sightseeing to provide information about a destination, a tourist attraction or the reconstructions of ruins in a particular place (Kounavis et al, 2012).

In this sense, augmented reality is a functional system in satisfying the needs of tourists who desire to have easy access to more information, entertainment and guidance at any time and place they want, so it helps tourism businesses build strong connections with mobile consumers. Augmented reality aims at uniting the expectations of consumers with the digital strategy of brands in reality. This may occur even in the advertising phase or during the sales of the products. Augmented reality allows consumers to augment any available objects or images in their surrounding as long as they have a unique visual profile such as logos, catalogues or brochures in general as well as hotel catalogues or brochures, magazine covers

or pages, posters, billboard, retail displays, business cards, signs, symbols, tickets and the like (Carmigniani et al, 2011; Berryman, 2012).

Considering all the opportunities it provides, augmented reality may be very well utilized as a marketing tool in tourism industry. With the help of augmented reality systems, consumers find any information they want regarding their holiday plans. For instance, they can easily reach the previews of their target destination, hotels and restaurants as well as various other information, attractions or facilities about them (Höllerer and Feiner, 2004).

Augmented information systems not only merely provide valuable and crucial information about a tourist attraction or destination but also maximize their experience in their travels and offer entertainment opportunities as well (Kounavis et al, 2012). Augmented reality also has the capability to offer customized content and services to the all users including tourists according to their particular needs. In other words, augmented reality may function upon pre-requests and display content accordingly when tourists are visiting the sites in a destination. Because mobile augmented reality applications support the addition of new layers to their reality, an interactive and highly dynamic experience is achieved (Carmigniani et al, 2011, Kounavis et al, 2012).

The popularity and attractiveness of augmented reality has increased recently. The primary reason for this is the growing use of smart phones that provide location-based services. Yet, there are still many challenges regarding the technology. First of all, AR is a technologically complex service. In addition, there are no standards for AR. This means that every single device and platform has to work for its own individual development because interoperability is not possible yet. Moreover, despite the fact that smart phones support the location-based services, they are not completely accurate in locating the device that is sought for augmented reality. Also, tall buildings may prevent the present GPS systems in smart phones from working properly (it may happen even indoors). More importantly than these technological complexities, augmented reality faces other difficulties as well. This may include privacy issues, ethical issues and user issues (Carmigniani et al, 2011; Berryman, 2012; Russell, 2012).

ADVANTAGES OF AUGMENTED REALITY

Augmented reality is utilized in marketing and advertising sectors as a tool to enhance particular features of a product, which makes it more appealing to the customers and in return increases sales. In 1960s, the first AR like systems developed and yet in the early 1990s, augmented reality was considered as a technology and a separate research area from virtual reality in its own right (Craig, 2013). AR has many advantages for the businesses and customers. These advantages are explained below.

Geo-Targeting: With AR, not only can what people's buying patterns are like be determined via preexisting data, but also GPS data (from smartphones, namely)

can be utilized to immerse users in a brand experience no matter where they are in the world. Finding destinations is not the only function that augmented reality. It is also used to display background information. For instance, Columbia through which the users can reach a database of all restaurants in Morningside Heights, New York City, via an overview 3D map. By using this guide, the users can make decisions among a number of options regarding their preferences. If the users have selected an establishment, they can reach further information via a popup window which describes the restaurant briefly, displays the phone number look at the menu, read the reviews of the restaurant (Höllerer, and Feiner, 2004).

Interactive marketing: Their use in marketing is particularly appealing, as not only can additional, detailed content be put within a traditional 2D advert, but also the results are interactive, cool, engaging and due to the initial novelty - have high viral potential. Consumer react positively to fun, clever marketing and as a result brands become memorable (Singh, Pandey, 2014, Dubois, 2011). Mobile augmented reality applications can also be regarded as social applications because they enable the users to communicate in a large network. (Kounavis et al, 2012).

Personalization: It is possible for the advertiser to personalize the communication as per the user since user is in charge of the navigation. There is no restriction of space or time like the traditional media and the advertiser can fit in more content hence providing sufficient information to the user (Kounavis et al, 2012; Damala, Marchal, Houlier, 2007). Tourists may use mobile augmented reality applications for many things such as searching for information, sharing or exchanging information and useful tips as well as comments on a location or destination with a large network (Russell, 2012). Furthermore, mobile augmented reality applications can help tourists prevent themselves from information overload or irrelevant information by tailoring their needs and adjusting the settings of the applications they are using upon request. Therefore, museums, heritage sites, cities and tourist professionals in general may organize and transmit information in layers or they may provide information upon request, i.e. according to the tailored needs of tourists with respect to their interests, age, occupation, information level and so forth (Carmigniani et al, Berryman, 2012).

Viral marketing: If done properly, an AR advertisement has the potential of going viral. One satisfied consumer would recommend it to his friends; thus, number of scans increases. It gives a richer experience to the user by increasing interaction and engagement. It not only makes a brand more innovative and responsive but also increases its perceived value. AR is available on the mobile and thus becomes very personal, given that the users of smartphones are increasing every day (Singh, Pandey, 2014).

Socialisation: There is the opportunity for customers to share their personalized content with others. For instance, consumers may download the Starbucks Cup Magic application on their smart phones and they can point it to the cup they are holding, which will allow them to produce animations in seconds involving five

different characters (an ice skater, a squirrel, a boy and his dog sledding and a fox), which are illustrated on the coffee cups. They can also interact with these characters and even learn about special offers or send e-cards or e-gifts (Russell, 2012).

Emotional Connection: AR takes marketing strategies to a more immediate and sensory level with customers, allowing greater interactivity in the selling and buying process. AR can create an emotional connection between what the buyer is searching for and what the product can offer. In short, it gives the product a personal feel when consumers can picture it in their own world (Dubois, 2011).

Repeat Engagement: For most brands, engaging customers must come before, during and after you have created a dialogue with them and with AR, brands engage with consumers, both cognitively and their senses. (Dubois, 2011).

Lower cost: An AR application can be developed at a much lower cost than those on other traditional media. Also the advertisers can measure the response to the advertisement in real time. There are analytics available for the purpose which let the advertisers find out how many people have scanned the advertisement, from where and using which handset. Also in some cases the demographic details of the person can also be accessed, which enables the advertisers to understand their customers better (Singh, Pandey, 2014).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A number of applications have been developed based on the augmented reality. Today, many augmented reality applications have been released as pilot applications or research projects, and some of them are commercially used in tourism industry.

Augmented reality delivers tourist information in different languages regarding accommodation, dining, the city's nightlife and sightseeing. Moreover, augmented reality provides tourists with personalized content and services which they are interested in. With the help of AR, tourists create their favorite lists and could use these lists later. AR applications allow tourists to explore the destinations, cities, museums, and historical places by adding new layers to their reality, thus resulting in a new interactive and highly dynamic experience. AR allows tourists to share their experiences on social networks. As a result, a tourism business, destination, city or museum could be marketed on social networks via the things tourists share there.

AR is particularly beneficial for museums, heritage sites, cities and tourist professionals because it is possible to organize and transmit information in layers. The information can also be organized according to the users' requests, which suggests that the users' background, interest, age, occupation and other characteristics may be used to organize the information. Thus, tourists can get customized

services according to their preferences and expectations, which maximize satisfaction they get from their visit (Kounavis et al, 2012).

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The Value of Social Tourism for Chios Citizens: A Theoretical and Sttistical Approach

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INTRODUCTION

The nowadays austerity policy, wages and incomes reductions, rising unemployment rates and the increasing tax burden has led consumers of tourism in many societies to the pursuit of combinations which ensure the lowest holiday prices. Social tourism is giving the opportunity to members of society who are unable for various reasons to meet tourist needs by their own means, to do tourism. Through their participation in social tourism, people feel less excluded from society. It has both a humanitarian character and contributes to social stability.

The value of Social Tourism is not disputed by anyone. Social Tourism programmes contribute to the country's wider economy and sustainable tourism development. The benefits of tourism can be wide ranging, extending to benefits to the economy, social life for people living in destinations as well as personal benefits to tourists (Bureau International du Tourisme Sociale [BITS], 2006; Gilbert & Abdullah 2004; WTO 1999).

In this article the potential alleviation of tourist's social inequality through the application of social tourism programmes will be studied. The article aims to highlight the importance of social tourism which implements holidays for low -income workers, youngsters, unemployed, farmers, large families etc. making tourism the privilege of many and not few. The paper presents findings from application data of Social Tourism to Chios citizens and how these programmes can benefit them by giving them the opportunity to experience a leisure travel.

THE EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL TOURISM IN SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The Beginning of Social Tourism dates in 1920 when the International Labour Organization (ILO) organized the first international conference concerning the advantage of worker's leisure time, recognizing the right of vacation (Kokkosis, Tsartas & Griba 2011; Sfakianakis, 2000; Lytras 1998). The International Bureau of Social Tourism (BITS) was founded in 1963 in Brussels, which is the main institution of Social Tourism. (Lytras, 1993). Yet the study of social tourism as a special form began in 1951, when it was first published by the International Alliance of Tourism (AIT) the research of the pioneer of Social Tourism, Professor W. Hunziker, entitled "Social tourism, nature and problems" where he characterizes social tourism as "the set of relationships and phenomena with touristic elements facilitating the participation of weaker economic classes in tourism" (Huzinker, 1951:1).

In Greece, the vacation allowance was introduced in 1962 but social tourism was first implemented in 1982, initially from the Greek National Tourism Organization (GNTO), the Worker's Social Benefits Organization and the General Secretariat for Youth (Kokkosis, Tsartas & Griba, 2011; Venetsanopoulou, 2006).

Social Tourism contributes to the country's wider economy and sustainable tourism development, helping to extend the touristic season and the regional development. It also conduces to social and financial development (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004).

About social development, the application of Social tourism has a fundamental social and humanitarian content enabling vulnerable groups to participate in tourism (McCabe, 2009; Lytras, 1998, 1993). It enables individuals, families and generally vulnerable groups with low incomes to enjoy the goods of vacation via official agreements, and approval of offers in favor of the financially distressed people. In this way it could be argued that social tourism helps to diminish the phenomenon of social exclusion and social inequality.

The general characterization of the beneficiaries of Social Tourism (in Greece) goes along with low income workers; based on this characterization of the different groups of beneficiaries, participants are divided into the following social categories (Kokkosis, Tsartas & Griba 2011; Gros. 2010; Charalampopoulou. 2005; GNTO 1985):

- Employees and their dependents with low income
- Retired – middle-aged
- Unemployed
- Farmers, both men and women
- Individuals who are insured in Providence or receiving disability or destitution allowance
- People with disabilities over 67% regardless of income
- Large families (four children or more)

Social tourism is of great importance to members of society who are unable for various reasons to afford their vacations by their own means. Through their participation in social tourism, people feel less excluded from society (Mordue 2005). It has both a humanitarian character and contributes to social stability. This humanitarian character of social tourism is the main purpose of this thesis by studying all the factors that shape social welfare conditions and lead to the reduction of social inequality

METHODOLOGY

This research focuses on the investigation of the social and economic characteristics of participants (profile of the participants of social tourism), to the investigation of the satisfaction of social tourists (contribution and benefits) and the proposals for the effective development and improvement of Social Tourism. The investigative tool which was used is the structured questionnaire, which took the final form after successive drafts (Javeau 2000: 94) and followed by pre-checking, this means that it was tested before being used, in a small number of respondents (Aggelis, Dimaki 2011:40). The questionnaire consisted of three sections according to the research objectives and consisted of questions, interrelated, direct and questions with limited answers and Likert scale questions (Petraakis 2006:189). In several questions, apart from the proposed answers is given the possibility of free response preceded by the label “other” in order to obtain additional information. The determination of the sample was based on both the size of the population and the research objectives. Furthermore it was taken into account the level of the precision or the sampling error, the confidence level or risk, and the degree of the variability of the characteristics which are measured (Miaoulis & Michener, 1976). The sampling method which is used is the simple random one where each respondent has an equal chance of being selected in the sample (Siomkos & Mavros 2008:393).

The research was conducted on the island of Chios and addressed to Chios' citizens who had participated in social tourism programs irrespective their insurance agency. It took place in the period, December 2015 to February 2016. For the research needs was distributed 250 questionnaires and 160 were returned correctly completed. Afterwards statistic processing of the information gathered during the stage of local survey took place by using the SPSS23 statistical package and

was made the two main types of statistical techniques, the descriptive statistics and inductive or deductive (inferential) statistics. The quantity elements were coded and listed in the e-base which created (Howitt & Cramer 2009:51). The conclusions which conducted are an integral part of this work.

CONCLUSION

Social tourism is needed more than ever. The holiday is a necessity for all rather than a luxury for few. Thus, the maintenance and strengthening of the institution and the agencies that implement with Social Tourism is one-way street

The contribution of Social Tourism is essential to Chios society and global community, as it aims to eradicate social exclusion and social inequality, by offering the opportunity of vacation to vulnerable social groups. It alleviates seasonality with all the benefits that this can yield in economic and social terms creating programmes covering annual duration trying to promote non-popular tourist destinations.

The research leads to the conclusion that trends of social development are appeared. These results are based to the data which came from the answers of the subjects about their participation in Social Tourism programs which may be more than once. Their participation gives them the opportunity to enjoy many benefits such as relaxation, socialization, strengthening of family ties and psychological reanimation.

The profile of social tourist does not follow the general pattern. In particular, social tourists account for a large part of society and specifically the low and middle income groups, while they are not related to age, educational or other criteria. The main criteria for the participants these programmes is their income and their insurance carrier. The tourists show a relative diversity in age, occupation, education level, etc. Of course they have a common feature that is the income level they belong, which are the low and the middle one.

The Social tourism programs currently being implemented in the country are in a relatively good level without missing the problems and weaknesses. Most of these problems have to do with cutting of the financial resources received by the institutions of Social Tourism in the light of the international economic crisis. Indeed, the proposals made by social tourists - subjects had to do with the dealing of the problems identified so as to improve the overall institution

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Factors Shaping Tourists' Inertia toward Behaving Responsibly

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INTRODUCTION

Social psychological theories (Ajzen, 1985) postulate that attitudes affect behaviour. Despite this, having a positive attitude toward the idea of travelling responsibly is not necessarily a good predictor of actual responsible behaviour. This explains why several studies devoted to responsible tourist behaviour highlighted a distinct attitude-behaviour gap (Budeanu, 2007; Del Chiappa, Grappi & Romani, 2014). Although research into responsible tourism has increased significantly in recent years, few studies have explored the factors that explain why this attitude-behaviour gap exists preventing a digger number of tourists to travel responsibly. This study was therefore carried out on a convenience sample of 837 Italian travellers with the aim of identify the main impediments that mostly generate this attitude-behaviour gap.

LITERATURE REVIEW

When analysing reasons for explaining the attitude-behaviour gap tourism and non tourism-related studies have identified several barriers that usually have been categorize in external and internal. Usually people claims that they have not alternatives to current behaviours, are not willing to renounce relaxation and to stress themselves in adopting responsible practices, have not enough information on where to buy responsible tourist services, distrust any type of label certifying responsible tourist products, they think responsible tourism products have lower quality standard and higher prices when compared to other type of tourism services and experiences, (Bray et al., 2011; Juvan & Dolnicar, 2014; Nicholls & Lee,

2006). All these factors could be considered as external barriers. On the other hand, people refer to the fact that one person cannot make a difference, and that one can compensate his/her irresponsible behaviour when travelling with ethical behaviour in his/her daily life (e.g. Budeanu, 2007); further, sometimes the problem is that individuals have not the knowledge or ability to understand the consequences of his/her behaviours/habits (Budeanu, 2007). Del Chiappa, Grappi and Romani (2014) asked a sample of Italian tourists self-reporting themselves as being responsible to assess the level of importance they give to different responsible practices and then to self-report the extent to which they actually adopt each of these practices; findings showed that the most significant gaps between the ratings of importance and those of consistency were in the areas of denouncing improper and damaging behaviours to competent authorities, favouring small local businesses and environmentally friendly accommodation, and, finally, asking tour operators for written codes of conduct to guarantee good working conditions, protection of the environment, and support to the local community of the host destination.

Despite the fact that a clear and deep understanding of reasons for attitude-behaviour gap in responsible tourism is pivotal for both academia and industry, few very studies are currently devoted to provide a full list of factors that could explain this gap (e.g. Dolnicar, 2014). Further, in our best knowledge no published paper exist so far aim at identifying the underpinning dimensions that could be drawn from this different reasons and to assess how important is each of these factors in shaping tourist inertia toward adopt responsible behaviour when travelling. This is the aim of this study. Specifically, it relies on the idea that behavioral response is the result of a process that starts with cognitive knowledge and goes through an evaluation that determines and shapes the response (Bowlby, 1975).

METHODOLOGY

The survey was divided into three parts. In the first part, the respondents were asked to provide some general socio-demographic information; further, after having provided a definition of responsible tourist, the first section asked respondents to express their level of agreement with the item "I define myself as being a responsible tourist" (9 point likert scale: 1= I complete disagree, 9= I completely agree). In the second part, they were provided with a list of 18 items describing different kind of impediments and asked to tell us the level of influence that each of them exerts in explaining why they do not actually behave responsibly when travelling. The third section asked respondents to self-report the extent to which they adopt a list of different practices commonly used in tourism literature to define responsible tourism behaviour. According with Del Chiappa, Grappi and Romani (2014), in both second and third section answers were provided on a 9-point Likert scale (1= not at all influence, 9 = extremely influence; 1 = not at all, 9 = very much).

Data collection was realized through an online questionnaire and a snowball sampling technique was used (Wrenn, Stevens & Loudon, 2007), thus allowing us to reach a large number of consumers who reside in different areas of Italy in a cheap, fast and efficient way. Allowing for a three-week survey period and after a general recall at the end of this period, a total of 1,152 questionnaires were obtained, of which 837 were properly filled and usable.

RESULTS

Respondents were mostly female (66.5%), single (54.5%), belonging to the 26-35 age bracket (45.9%) or 36-45 (21.4%), employees (31.9%) owing a university degree (45.8%), with a monthly income between 1,001 and 3,000 euro (58.9%) and being member of some association (51.3%)

Following the two-step approach proposed by Anderson & Gerbing (1988), the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using the maximum likelihood method in order to assess the validity and reliability of the constructs of the original model. In this context, a preliminary CFA was triggered and the model fit was assessed through fit indices. As the results of the main adjustment measures did not prove satisfactory compared to the reference values some changes in the model were introduced by observing the modification indices data of the covariance matrix of the standardized residuals. This operation led to the elimination of some manifest variables that play a role in several constructs simultaneously. As a result of this iterative process of adjustment 16 indicators were retained for inclusion in the final model. The final measurement model is illustrated in table 1.

Table 1. Measurement Model

Items			Standardized Regression Weights	S.E.	C.R.	P	R2
Practices, self-reported actual behavior							
Being in contact with the traditions and culture of the local community	<---	Aut.	0,794	0,087	13,998	***	0,631
Being in contact with the real life of the destination	<---	Aut.	0,706				0,498
Asking tour operators for written codes of conduct to guarantee good working conditions, protection of the environment, and support to the local community in the destination	<---	Sup.	0,804				0,647
Favouring environmentally friendly accommodation	<---	Sup.	0,644	0,082	9,08	***	0,415
Limiting the production of garbage	<---	Cons.	0,634				0,402
Limiting the usage of natural re-	<---	Cons.	0,784	0,111	11,634	***	0,614

sources							
Using transport that minimizes the impact on the environment	<---	Sup.	0,686	0,094	8,374	***	0,471
Respecting the natural resources of the destination	<---	Cons.	0,736	0,075	11,265	***	0,541
Impediments							
I feel stressed by the idea of adopting responsible practices when travelling	<---	Unw ell.	0,803				0,645
I think that the most part of people do not travel responsibly, hence I do not believe that changing my behavior can make a difference	<---	Unw ell.	0,762	0,051	22,309	***	0,58
I do have difficulties in make all the changes that are needed to adopt responsible behavior when travelling	<---	Unw ell.	0,833	0,048	24,143	***	0,694
Tourism business and DMO do not guarantee an easy accessibility to responsible tourism experiences	<---	Acess	0,802				0,643
The offer of tourism product with ethic and/or environmental certification is poor	<---	Acess	0,769	0,063	17,309	***	0,591
The actual availability of responsible tourism experiences is poor	<---	Acess	0,641	0,051	16,074	***	0,411
I do not have a high trustworthiness toward the offer of responsible tourism products and experiences	<---	Trust.	0,937				0,878
Tourism intermediaries devoted to responsible tourism are mostly small organization and because of this I do not trust their professionalism and offer	<---	Trust.	0,795	0,036	22,639	***	0,632
Aut. = seeking for authenticity; Sup. = seeking for responsible tourism providers; Cons. =seeking for personal responsible behaviour; Unwill. = unwillingness to change; Acess. = poor accessibility to the offer; Trust. = lack of trustworthiness toward the offer							

After this process the adjustment results improved significantly. In terms of validity and reliability, the final model results show levels that can be considered good or very good: composite reliability (CR) far exceeds the minimum recommended limits ($\alpha \geq 0.70$ and $\rho \geq 0.70$). With regard to the average variance extracted (AVE), the value obtained also clearly exceeds the reference value (≥ 0.50) set in the literature (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (Table 2). According to Hair et al. (2009), the correlation between the variables must be less than 0.95. Based on this criterion it can be observed that all variables comply with the suggested limit. On

the other hand, according to Fornell & Larcker (1981), the AVE can be used to assess discriminant validity. Thus the elements of main diagonal (square root of the AVE) for each construct must show values higher than the correlation coefficients between different constructs (elements of corresponding rows and columns that were not on the main diagonal) (Barclay, Higgins & Thompson, 1995).

The total latent variables satisfy this condition confirming the existence of discriminant validity and suggesting that the theoretical model fits the data well and as such the structural model was performed. The next step was to analyse the relationship between the constructs of the model using the maximum likelihood method (ML). The results of the model's overall fit indices ($\chi^2 = 304.8$, $df = 51$, $\chi^2/df = 2.722$, $p = 0.000$, $GFI = 0.958$, $CFI = 0.959$, $TLI = 0.95$, $RMSEA = 0.045$) are within the reference values based on Hair et al. (2009), confirming the goodness of fit of the model. These results suggest that the proposed model fits well with the empirical data.

Table 2. Model Fit

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	Access.	Authentic.	Supply	Cons.	Unwill.	Trust.
Access.	0,783	0,548	0,086	0,025	0,741					
Authentic.	0,721	0,564	0,345	0,121	0,031	0,751				
Supply	0,756	0,511	0,205	0,066	-0,012	0,453	0,715			
Cons.	0,763	0,519	0,345	0,114	0,088	0,587	0,336	0,721		
Unwill.	0,842	0,640	0,465	0,126	0,177	-0,228	-0,034	0,284	0,800	
Trust.	0,860	0,755	0,465	0,118	0,293	-0,035	0,106	0,159	0,682	0,869
GOF In-dexes	χ^2	P	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA			
Test sample (n= 280) - male	93,634	0,269	1,089	0,961	0,995	0,994	0,018			
Validation sample (n=557) - female	136,608	0	1,588	0,971	0,982	0,975	0,033			
Whole sample (n=)	163,407	0,000	1,967	0,167	0,983	0,976	0,033			

Access. = poor accessibility to responsible products, Authentic. = seeking for local authenticity, Supply = seeking for responsible providers, Cons.= seeking for consumers' green behaviour, Unwill.= unwillingness to change, Trust.= lack of trustworthiness

Results show that the hypotheses were supported (Figure 1).

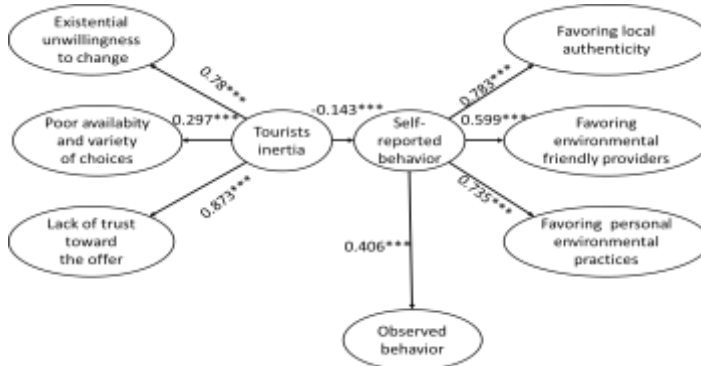


Figure 1. The Tested Model

Lack of trustworthiness toward the offer (0.873; $p = 0.000$), unwillingness to change (0.78, $p = 0.000$) and poor accessibility to responsible services (0.297; $p = 0.000$) shape tourist inertia to adopt a consistent responsible tourist behaviour (H1, H2 and H3 are supported) which is described by practices that aim at seeking for local authenticity destination (0.783; $p = 0.000$), at personally adopting practices that preserve the environment (0.735; $p = 0.000$), and favouring environmental friendly providers (.599, $p = 0.000$) (H5, H6, and H7 are supported). Finally, tourists' inertia negatively influences self-reported behavior (-.143, $p=0.000$), and self-reported behavior exerts a positively and significantly effect on observed behavior (.406, $p=0.000$) (H4 and H8 are supported).

CONCLUSION

Our results are significant for both researchers and tourism managers. On the one hand, they highlight the factors that mostly affect tourists' inertia in adopting responsible behaviour. Specifically, the most important factors that prevent people to transform their positive attitude toward responsible tourism services and experience into actual behaviour are, in decreasing order or relevance, the lack of trustworthiness toward this type of offer, the consumers' unwillingness to change their behaviour (because of the stress they associate with responsible tourism or because of the fact that they think that their personal action cannot make any difference), and the poor accessibility to this type of offer. From a managerial point of view, results suggest that tourism marketers should make efforts to increase perceived quality of their offer and, broadly, of their professionalism. Further, effective communication operations should be run aim at positioning in the consumers' mind the idea that responsible tourism is not necessarily something stressing or boring. Finally, communications should be run trying at making the consumer

conscious that his/her single action can improve the sustainability of tourism worldwide. This study is not free of limitations; the fact that a convenience sample from a single country was used, make results hardly generalizable.

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Triggering Effects of Conferences on Encouraging Delegates to Visit Secondary Destinations

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INTRODUCTION

According to the UNWTO (2015: 5), business tourism accounted for 14% of all international tourist arrivals with 1,133 million trips across the world in 2014. Despite the pervasive and ongoing dominance of leisure trips around the world, business tourism is acknowledged as a significant form of tourism generating affluent tourism income for destinations. The fact that business travellers spend more in comparison to those travelling for leisure and that destinations gain further income from the use of meeting venues, expands the economic contribution of business tourism to destinations (Bauer et al., 2001; Davidson & Cope, 2003).

The MICE tourism, a fragment of business tourism, has gained significant importance in line with its notable growth over the last decades (Spiller, 2002). This has been paralleled with the increasing amount of research on MICE tourism, most of which focuses on the supply side of the industry such as: the competitiveness of MICE destinations (Dwyer & Kim, 2003); economic impacts of MICE tourism (Ku-

lendran & Witt, 2003), and decision-making processes of meeting planners (Crouch & Ritchie, 1998; Oppermann, 1996).

While the existing research on the demand-side of MICE tourism is still scarce, most looks into the decision-making process of attendees (Mair & Thompson, 2009; Zhang, Leung & Qu, 2007). In such studies, there has been evidence to claim that intervening opportunities such as other conferences and vacation in secondary destinations have direct effect on the attendees' decision making process and length of the trip (Davidson, 2003; Oppermann & Chon, 1997). However, there is inadequate research in the context of multi-destination travels for business tourism in the current literature which has been dominated more by multi-destination travel patterns for pleasure (Lew & McKercher, 2006; Lue, Crompton & Fesenmaier, 1993).

This paper aims to reveal the main reasons of attending a particular conference series in various parts of Turkey through the perspective of triggering effects of the host destination on visiting other national and international destinations. In addition, it seeks to investigate the tendency of preferences to visit the secondary destinations and main motivations for an extension of stay before the conference begins or after it concludes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Commencing from the early 1990s, business trips have been considered as the opportunities for tourism purposes as well and observed that 70% of business travellers are people who combine leisure and business activities within the same trip (Withiam, 1997). Activities that a destination offers to its visitors with tourism purposes such as eating in a restaurant, visiting local attractions, joining sportive activities, and shopping, have been commonly seen as the motivational dimensions for business travellers (Suh & McAvoy, 2005). A group of early studies also show that attendees bring multi-economic benefits to the host communities through their expenditure on food and beverages, transportation, accommodation and also other vacation related expenditures (Kozak, 2001; Kozak, Gokovali & Bahar, 2008; Oppermann & Chon, 1997). Most recently research highlights that most of the attendees make their decisions by considering the leisure activity options and destination attributes provided by the host destination (Davidson, 2003).

According to a model proposed by Oppermann and Chon (1997: 186) on the participation decision-making process, some of the vital factors to directly affect participation decisions of convention attendees: are associations/conferences (associations, destinations, potential delegates, personal interactions, and peer recognition), personal/business (health, finance, time availability, family, funding, professional advancement, and desire to learn), location factors (destination image, transportation cost, accessibility, accommodation cost, climate, pre-post activities, and previous experience), and intervening opportunities.

Smith and Carmichael (2007) have studied business travellers in three categories: the ones who mix business and leisure trips, travel oriented people, and people who travel frequently. In addition, the authors have observed that shopping (45%) is the major activity for both leisure travellers and business travellers. Visiting destinations (27%), visiting a friend (22.90%), food and beverage (21.40%), visiting relatives (16.70%), visiting cultural attractions (11.20%), and attending sports activities, fairs, festivals or cultural events (18.70%) are the other common activities observed. These types of activities have been documented as pull factors which lead tourists to fulfil their multiple travel needs (McCartney, 2008). Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that a destination's specific attributes could serve as the complementary factors for conference attendees.

MULTI-DESTINATION TRIP BEHAVIOUR

Multi-destination travel behaviour has been widely affected by five basic factors associated with the phenomenon (Beaman, Jeng & Fesenmaier, 1997). These factors are: multiple-benefit seeking; heterogeneity of preferences; risk and uncertainty reduction; economic rationalism, and; visiting friends and relatives. These factors are argued to have triggering effects on tourists to visit secondary destinations. However, various researchers have determined some additional issues that are classified as constraints against travelling to secondary destinations (Tideswell & Faulkner, 1999). These factors have been listed as the types of travel arrangements, i.e. package tours versus free independent travel (Oppermann, 1999); travel mobility, i.e. mode of transport (Cooper, 1981; Debbage, 1991); travel time constraints (Oppermann 1994; Pearce 1990); destination familiarity, i.e. previous travel experience and obtained information (Debbage 1991); and spatial configuration of destinations (Fotheringham, 1986; Lue, Crompton & Fesenmaier, 1993).

METHODOLOGY

This study aims to categorize destinations as primary and secondary. The former refers to those destinations that are considered as the main target for conference venues. The later is the category of domestic or international destinations that are visited by attendees before or after their participation in academic conferences and are geographically separated from where the attended conferences are held. The research questions, within this framework, can be listed as follows:

- How important are primary destinations in conference attendance decision-making process?
- How do conference destinations trigger the attendants' participation in leisure activities?
- What factors influence attendees' decision-making in visiting secondary destination before/after conferences, and with what motivations visits to secondary destinations are realised?

In line with the above listed research questions, this research is designed as a qualitative study, aiming to identify the triggering effects of conference destinations on the attendees' tendency of taking additional trips to nearby or far secondary destinations. Qualitative research is an inquiry process that explores a social or human problem via building a complex, holistic picture, analyzing words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducting the study in a natural setting (Creswell, 1998).

The research adopts semi-structured interview methods as its data gathering tool in order to gain a deeper understanding of a subject and comprehensively identify its elements (Guba, 1981; Patton, 2002). Since there are no studies, to our best knowledge, on the secondary trips of business travellers in the extant literature, it was considered more appropriate by the researchers to inspect the components of this subject in detail with a qualitative question form.

The questionnaire form has been created according to the existing literature. To determine the accuracy of questions, the question form was applied to a group of 10 Turkish academicians who are known to have participated in international congresses before as the pilot testing of the data gathering. After the pilot testing, the questionnaire form was revised and finalized with 12 questions according to the participants' corrections and suggestions.

The sample included the attendees of the Anatolia tourism conferences series held in Fethiye (2012) and Istanbul (2014). Within the process of this purposeful sampling (Miles & Huberman, 1984), the main criterion considered is the English level of the attendees. To ensure the quality of the data and the clear comprehension of the form for all attendees, the sample was selected among the attendees whose native language is English. Due to the multinational nature of the sample, the questionnaire form was turned into an online form and applied via e-mail. The form was sent out to a group of 50 academicians who participated in the conference in Fethiye and another 50 academicians who participated in the conference in Istanbul. There were 17 respondents from the Fethiye group and 13 respondents from the Istanbul group who replied and composed the sample of the study. Data was collected in February and March 2016.

All the response forms were evaluated and coded individually by each researcher and compared with others to have a consensus on the codes. Finally, 93 codes under 14 main themes were identified through selective coding. All four researchers participated in each stage of the study and two of these researchers are experienced academicians on the field of destination marketing. Additionally, during each stage of the study, independent fellow academicians were invited to overview the process and asked for their opinions and advice to increase the trustworthiness of the findings and results.

RESULTS

In this stage of the study the findings are shared in a comparative way between Fethiye and Istanbul. Since Fethiye and Istanbul are different types of destinations (Fethiye is a resort and Istanbul is a metropol destination), it is a necessity to evaluate their visitors' tendencies separately.

First, it is vital to identify the factors that effects the decision making process of the attendees to attend the congresses for a better understanding of their accommodation extensions and multi-destination travel patterns. The findings highlight that the main reason of the participation is the most differential factor between Fethiye and Istanbul conferences. Whereas 13 out of 17 attendees who attended the conference held in Fethiye stated the academic purposes as their main criterion of participation or one of the primary ones, only one of the 13 attendees of the conference held in Istanbul named academic purposes as a criterion for their decision to attend. In line with the findings of the extant literature on the main factors influencing attendees' decision-making, the image of Istanbul as a tourist destination has been the most repeated code for Istanbul. While the attendees of the Fethiye conference are considering Fethiye as just another sea-sun-sand destination, the attendees of the Istanbul conference have widely mentioned Istanbul as a unique "must see" destination.

Travel party is also an effective factor for the attendees to extend their stay or join additional trips according to the findings of this study. Those attendees, who travelled to both Istanbul and Fethiye with a companion, were more likely to extend their stay or travel to secondary destinations. It can be inferred that people who see these conferences as an opportunity to spend time with their loved ones have a high tendency to stay longer and experience different destinations. Evidently, family or couple codes are mostly accompanied with the codes that are related to the pre-conference trips or extra time spent for leisure.

The findings reveal that besides being a major factor for the participation decision, a destination's accessibility is also a major determinant for its ability to generate additional trips to secondary destinations. Attendees of both Istanbul and Fethiye mention transportation options as a motivation factor or a limitation for their intentions to see more places. That is why the conference held in Istanbul generated more city trips than the conference held in Fethiye. Istanbul is a metropolitan with a wide variety of transportation options whereas Fethiye provides less transportation options as a seaside destination. The undoubtedly higher frequency of the accessibility codes for Istanbul can be considered as the evidence of this fact.

Even if they are not as frequent as the ones above, there are many other codes relevant to extended stay and multi-trips such as culture, heritage, historical places, climate, local cuisine, attractions, visiting friends and relatives, other business trips, repeat visitor, travel distance and discovering new places etc. Although there are many motivations for multi-trips and extended stays, the attendees who did

not perform these activities cannot all be considered as non-motivated visitors. There are certain limitations for these actions. At the top of it all, there are budget issues. The most common code repeated by many non-motivated attendees is the lack of financial sources to perform these activities. Similarly, because of the same circumstances, most of the academicians have a tight calendar that limits their options. Finally, besides having a less frequency, other planned travels and vacations also limit the attendees' ability to stay longer or see more places.

CONCLUSION

This research indicates that conference attendees are inclined to combine leisure and business in their conference trips, and also consider travelling to secondary destinations providing they have no time and budget constraints on their extended travel plans. While those travelling with a companion are more likely to extend their stay and even use their annual leaves to take a holiday in the destination visited, a couple of attendees, especially those from long-haul countries, mentioned that they combine several meetings/conferences in different international destinations within their travel programs. The factors influencing the attendees' decision-making in travelling to secondary destinations, range from the image of the conference destination to the opportunities available in both the conference destination and secondary destinations.

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An Analysis of Accidents at Work in “Core” Tourism Industries

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INTRODUCTION

Work-related accidents draw attention for a long time (Hamalainen et al., 2009). According to ILO, every 15 minutes 153 employees suffer from work-related accidents. In EU, there were almost 2.5 million *serious accidents* (cases resulting in more than 3 days' absence from work, ESAW, 2013) (ILO,?). While manufacturing, construction and wholesaling are leading sectors in non-fatal accident cases, accommodation and food service sector take at the 7th rank (Eurostat, 2015). Core tourism sector (*air transport, accommodation and travel agencies*, Eurostat, 2015a) has also increased its non-fatal accident cases since 2008.

Since there isn't much literature about safety and health in the context of tourism industry, this study aims to determine work-related accident numbers in selected tourism destinations. The study also focuses how tourists arrivals and employments in tourism are related with non-fatal accidents at work.

Considering Europe is a major tourism destination (Eurostat, 2015a), top tourism destinations in Europe are included in this study: France, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Germany and U.K. Tourist arrivals, employment and accidents at work data for the year of 2013 are compared in the scope of this study. The author makes use of SBS (Structural Business Statistics), LFS (Labour Force Survey) databases of Eurostat, and of Turkstat and SGK (Social Security Council of Turkey).

According to NACE Rev.2 codes, there are eight subsectors (H51, I55, I56, N77, N79, R91, R92, R93) in tourism industry. However, this study focuses on *air transport, accommodation and travel agency, tour operator and other reservation service and related activities*, which serve solely in tourism. First, tourist arrivals and tourism employments are summarized, then statistics about accidents at work are discussed on subsector and country level. Finally, author evaluated arrivals, employment and work-related accidents and excluded further conclusions.

FINDINGS

Author analysed the data by collecting secondary data sources and utilised descriptive statistics such as arrival and employment numbers, and incidence rates in tourism industry.

Tourist Arrivals

According to WTO, France, with almost 84 million tourist, has the most international tourist arrivals in the world in 2013 (UNWTO, 2015). In the same report, Spain is second ranked (61 million), and Italy (48 million), Turkey (38 million), Germany (32 million) and U.K. (31 million) come after.

Employment

In six countries, *accommodation* has the highest employment rate (73,4%) in core tourism industry. Country wise, highest employment rate is in Germany (662.078). Germany also employs the most people in tourism industry, in the EU (Eurostat, 2013a). Out of all these six countries, Turkey has the lowest employment rate (252.850) in core tourism industry (SGK, 2013a).

Accidents at work

Accommodation is in the first rank for both fatal and non-fatal (serious) accidents at work in core tourism industry in 2013, then *air transport* and *travel agencies* come, respectively. However, when I.R.s are included, *air transport* is the real frontrunner for non-fatal cases.

Incidence rate (I.R.) is used for comparison and shows the fatal or non-fatal accidents per 100.000 persons. $I.R. = (\text{accidents} / \text{employed persons}) * 100.000$ (ESAW, 2015). When it is compared on country level, France has the highest non-fatal accident cases in core tourism industry (12.206). In *air transport*, Germany has the highest non-fatal I.R. with 5.044. Spain has the highest I.R. in *accommodation* (3.676) and *travel agencies* (509), while U.K. has the lowest I.R. with 7 out of 100.000 employees in *travel agencies* (Eurostat, 2013b, 2013e).

Fatal accidents in core tourism industry are very low in all six countries. *Accommodation* has the highest fatal accident cases (18) in the industry (Eurostat, 2013f), and Turkey is the leading country with the highest fatal accident cases (16) for all subsectors (Turkstat, 2013; SGK, 2013b).

Serious accidents and age

According to Eurostat LFS, employees are mostly aged from 25 to 44 in core tourism industry (Eurostat, 2013c). The employment rates for age group from 18 to 24 years old are the lowest for all subsectors in all countries, except U.K. in *accommodation*. On the contrary, all other countries have almost the highest non-fatal I.R. for the same age group in *air transport* and *accommodation*, except U.K. (Eurostat,

2013b). Turkey is excluded because the detailed data are not available for age groups in accidents at work.

Serious accidents and gender

55% of women are employed in core tourism industry (Eurostat, 2013c), however they represent for 46% of non-fatal accidents at work in six countries. According to the I.R.s that author calculated, *air transport* has the highest I.R. for women (400 to 6.017), on the other hand, it is quite low (7 to 527) in *travel agencies* where the average employment rate is 62% (Eurostat, 2013e).

In country level, France has the highest I.R. for women for all subsectors. In *air transport*, women I.R. for France (6.017) is higher than I.R. for Germany (2.349), while employment rate of women for relevant subsector in France is lower (33.2%) than in Germany (48.5%). U.K. has the lowest rate in *travel agencies*, it is only 7 out of 100.000 women, for whom the employment rate is 58.2%.

In male I.R.s, Germany is the leading country with 10.639 in *air transport*, which means one of 10 male employees had a serious accident. France also has the highest I.R. for males in *accommodation* (5.318). Italy is another leading country for *travel agencies* with 1.148. When the I.R.s for males are compared with those for females, it is obvious that males had more serious accidents than females in core tourism industry.

Changes through time

The serious work accidents share of the core tourism industry varies from 1.03 to 2.7 per mille in total industry. Except in Germany, this share increased in other countries in five years. *Travel agencies* is the only subsector which didn't increase its share at all, contrary to that it had a small decrease (Eurostat, 2013e).

The serious accident cases in all countries were decreased in *accommodation* and *travel agencies* subsectors since 2008, in contrast to that *air transport* was increased. While Italy almost tripled its serious cases in *air transport* in five years, U.K. doubled. U.K. was also the one which decreased its cases most (95%) in *travel agencies*. Turkey is excluded due to the undetailed data through time.

CONCLUSION

This study aims to draw attention to the accidents at work in the tourism industry in the context of European leading tourism destinations. There is a strong connection among tourist arrivals, tourism employment and accidents at work statistics. For example France, as a number one tourism destination in the world, has the highest number of serious accidents in core tourism industry. Spain follows France as a second popular destination in Europe and unfortunately with its non-fatal rates. In third rank there is Germany, which has the highest employment number.

The number of employees in Germany is double the size of employee number in France, but also the number of accidents in Germany is half the smaller than in France. And U.K., with its almost double sized employment, has less than half of serious accidents than France. The safety and health portraits of leading tourism countries like France and Spain, seem a bit gloomy.

As an employment engine for the young and women, tourism also shows some disappointment in these countries. Employees aged 18–24 have almost the highest I.R.s in core tourism industry in almost all countries. Men had higher number of serious accidents at work than women, but the more women employed in the tourism industry the more serious accidents they had. Women are more unlucky in France. However, when we look at the changes of serious accidents between 2008–2013. France managed to decrease its cases. Actually there was an overall decrease in cases for both *accommodation* and *travel agencies* in all countries, while some doubled or tripled their cases in *air transport*. Countries should be aware of the increasing power of this subsector.

This study has some limitations. Author only examined six leading destinations in tourism. Future researchers may investigate top ten tourist destinations in the world or other selected. The study encompasses core tourism industries, but especially food and beverage industry deserves further investigation on safety and health. Author also omitted work-related diseases in this study, this also needs to be discussed. Further researches are to investigate the safety and health rates relationships between lower and upper educated, temporary and permanent workers, and so on.

In accommodation and food service activities, small enterprises are in the first rank in accidents at work statistics; micro and medium sized businesses come after. But this is not only related to its employee number, I.R. is the highest in SMEs, too (Eurostat, 2013a). Since we cannot get detailed accidents at work data on enterprise size, it is impossible to make further inference.

Since we didn't work with micro data from Eurostat and Turkstat, it may reveal other relations in the context of safety and health studies. Another thing about data is that Eurostat underlines it might be under-covered or under-reported in some countries. Actually some global estimations are considered (i.e. Hamalainen et al, 2011), it is also important to check the official data with LFS or other estimations. Numbers are very important to make policy or take precautions, but only if one knows it has correct numbers. It's known that in these countries cases on safety and health are under-reported or under-covered and there are even unregistered employees. The numbers of non-fatal accidents are still being corrected by Eurostat. Numbers can give someone a huge opportunity to understand its position, evaluate, and improve. So researchers should also avoid incorrect nature of the statistics.

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A New Taxonomy for the Categorization of Hotel Offerings

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INTRODUCTION

This study aims to reveal the value creating role of visitors by focusing on hotel reviews. The sample population includes 24 five-star hotel businesses (HB) operating in Istanbul, Turkey. Data was collected from TripAdvisor reviews and analyzed on Microsoft Excel (MSExcel). The study identifies two main dimensions: 1) objective; topic and focus of comments representing the attributes, and b) subjective; visitors' evaluations. The subjective dimension is a combination of cognitive (realistic - CE) and emotional evaluations (EE).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Service has been considered as the main outcome of all products since 1970s. However, as a part of the of 'service-dominant logic'(Vargo & Lusch, 2004), the active role of visitors and the place of service as the main outcome of all products have led to the development of co-creation concept. Given its "customer- and experience-centric" focus (Chathoth, Altinay, Harrington, Okumus, & Chan, 2013: 14), this concept highlights the personalized experiences which are generated with the active contribution of visitors to the value creation process beyond experiencing the service. The social media is a platform where visitors may contribute to this process given its numerous benefits in terms of producing quality services (Sanlioz-Özgen & Kozak, 2015). Besides, experiences become memorable with emotions (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) resulting from sensations created within visitors.

Emotions may be a part of intangibility of services which is the focus of many service-related works (Rushton & Carson, 1985). However, the emotional effects

of products have been neglected as a result of the focus on product attributes around tangible aspects such as the location, equipment, decor, and other visually appealing features and intangible aspects such as staff approach and efficiency, processes, and value for money (Akbaba, 2006; Briggs, Sutherland, & Drummond, 2007; Ekinçi, 2008).

Nevertheless, there are exceptional studies (e.g. Golder et al., 2012) classifying attributes with the emotional aspects such as the typology of universal (homogeneous and measurable), preference (heterogeneous and measurable), and idiosyncratic attributes (heterogeneous and immeasurable). Furthermore, the attributes of the physical environment such as design, layout, and cleanliness with large service settings have the potential to produce emotions leading to the repurchasing behavior (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1999).

Some HB may concentrate on emotions rather than the attributes of offerings given the effect of emotions on various cognitive processes of quality experiences (Golder, Mitra, & Moorman, 2012). Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2011) also distinguish between explicit (senses-oriented such as comfortable bed) and implicit services (psychology-oriented such as friendly staff) which complement the service experience.

As HB are complicated establishments, offerings cannot be defined as purely intangible or tangible (Reisinger, 2010) because what visitors experience is more than a single product but a total offering which can be designed around a core product and a set of tangible and intangible aspects (Rushton & Carson, 1985). That is, hotel services are designed as core products (accommodation) complemented by peripheral services to enhance the comfort and enjoyment (Reisinger, 2010). Although visitors may not perceive all the attributes they experience (Golder et al., 2012), they consider a product (e.g. hotel accommodation) as a total experience which fulfills a variety of needs (Xu, 2010). Xu (2010) emphasizes the potential of hotels differing from other services depending on the functional needs and points out the opportunity to create value-added memorable experiences based on surprises, that is, emotions.

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted by collecting data from the hotel reviews of TripAdvisor. MSExcel was utilized for data analysis as this software serves as a tool for such analyses (Hahn, 2008; Yin, 2011).

The population of the study consists of 84 five-star hotels licensed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Istanbul, Turkey (Tourism Statistics, 2015). HBs with a minimum of 10 reviews about overnight stays in June 2015 were selected as the sample group including 24 HBs. The reviews were compiled on an Excel form according to the nickname, nationality and type of travel. Each comment in the reviews was treated with open coding and copied to one row. A total of 532 reviews including 4.508 comments were obtained at the end of the first level cod-

ing which took place between November and December 2015 to incorporate the comments written in the following months.

Upon this first level coding, all the lines were read carefully and principal categories were identified as objective and subjective dimensions. The objective dimension included the topic of each comment representing the attributes of hotel offerings while the subjective one concerned the evaluations of visitors (Table 1).

Table 1 Categories and dimensions

Objective dimension (Topic/focus of comments)		Subjective dimension (Expressions/evaluations of visitors)	
Topic	Focus	Cognitive (realistic)	Emotional
Access Decoration Facilities Hotel attributes Internet Location Product Room attributes Safety & security Service process Staff attitudes Staff work View	Aesthetics Physical Service	Examples: Impeccable, fine, outstanding, perfect, excellent, good etc.	Examples: Fantastic, awesome, delightful, delight, enjoy, marvelous, beautiful etc. Great is a particular adjective which may be classified as both cognitive and emotional according to the way of expression.
Examples for coding to groups (topic, focus, evaluation) <i>"Lounge good view"</i> → View, Physical, Cognitive <i>"Room with magnificent view on Bosphorus"</i> → View, Physical, Emotional <i>"Friendly staff"</i> → Staff attitude, Service, Cognitive <i>"Check in was quick"</i> → Service process, Service, Cognitive <i>"We were pleasantly surprised by the service"</i> → Service process, Service, Emotional			

The Online Merriam-Webster Dictionary was utilized to distinguish cognitive and emotional expressions. Adjectives or nouns to express a state of feeling were checked with this dictionary during the coding process and coded as the EE. Finally, statistics and a graphical illustration were obtained on MS Excel. Figures were standardized according to Z scores when needed.

RESULTS

First of all, descriptive statistics revealed the following findings:

- Ownership: 13 as management companies (54%); eight franchises (33%) and three domestic HBs (13%);

- Classification: Eight luxury (33%), 13 upper upscale (54%) and three up-scale HBs;
- Location: Two at the Asian and 22 at the European side. 16 at the city center (three HBs with a distinctive location on the Bosphorus rim), four close to the airport (two of them on the Marmara Sea rim), two in the Old Town, two on the Marmara Sea rim at the Asian part.
- Reviewers: Business (30%), family (20%), couple (31%), friends (10%), and solo (5%) traveler (4% no indication);
- Reviewers region: 50% Europe, 18% North America, 16% Africa and Middle East, 13% Asia, 2% South America, and 1% Australia.

Objective dimension: The majority of reviews pertain to the service-related aspects (52%) of the hotel offerings and physical aspects follow with a slightly lower share (41%). However, the aesthetic aspects cover only 7% of all the comments. Concerning the categorization of the topics of comments, the service process leads the others with a share of 26%. The followers and their shares are as follows: room attributes (13%), staff attitudes (12%), location (10%), product (9%), hotel attributes (8%), facilities (6%), staff work (6%), view (5%) and access (4%).

Subjective dimension: This dimension representing the evaluations of visitors in terms of cognitive or emotional expressions (Figure 1).

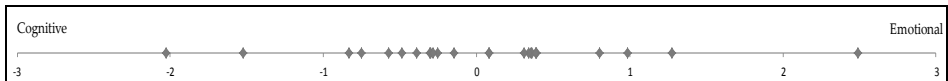


Figure 1 Situation of hotels at the subjective dimension

Statistics disclose that the EE exceed the cognitive ones in only one HB (the one between 2–3 in Figure 1). This establishment owns a distinguished position with various features such as built in the garden of an old palace, managed by a company known as managing only luxury properties worldwide and located along the Bosphorus. Two HBs around (1) are also luxury properties whereas one HB is an upper upscale property and all those operate as management companies. Another common feature of them is that they sell rooms with the highest prices in Istanbul.

HB with relatively the highest CE are surprisingly the two HB located at the Old City which is the most popular tourism site of the city with Sultan Ahmet Square. The reason can be speculated that around this area there are numerous small HBs designed in historical buildings which may offer the real atmosphere of this distinguished location better compared with the two HBs of the study which are relatively bigger and operated as franchises (one of those is also designed in a complex of four historical buildings).

As for the attributes mentioned in the CE and EE, Table 2 summarizes the shares of main topics/foci and groups.

Table 2 Cognitive versus emotional evaluations

Topic/focus	Evaluations (%)	
	Cognitive	Emotional
Access	5	0
Attitudes (staff)	13	7
Decoration	0	5
Facilities	5	8
Hotel attributes	4	17
Location	12	5
Product	10	6
Room attributes	14	11
Service process	23	30
View	3	10
Work (staff)	7	2
TOTAL	98	100
Aesthetic	0	23
Physical	45	33
Service	55	44
TOTAL	100	100

Despite similarities of attributes in both types of evaluations (Table 2), significant differences give insight about the attributes perceived by visitors in relation to their CE or EE. For example, service process as a core and significant attribute, is subject to having a higher emphasis in the EE. Besides, visitors have more EE on the aesthetic features while nearly no expression is prevalent for the CE. This feature is highly related to the focus of hotel attributes in general which is also higher in the EE. Other physical attributes such as the location, room attributes, and product are more effective in the CE. Finally, the view is another contributor onto the EE.

CONCLUSION

Being focused on the visitors' evaluations of hotel offerings, the study reveals the role of emotions in experience and value creation process as a criteria regarded by visitors. Moreover, any possible relationships between various hotel attributes and cognitive or emotional perceptions are brought into light to inspire the future

studies. Moreover, the study suggests that the emotional appeal may have an impact to increase the value added of hotel offerings.

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The Effect of Migrants' Leisure Participation on Place Attachment and Community Embeddedness in Managing Acculturative Stress

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INTRODUCTION

Migration is inherently a disruptive life event. During the process of relocation, migrants frequently experience a variety of complex emotions, including depression and stress caused by settlement difficulties (Adler & Gielen, 2003). Furthermore, government immigration department requirements can make the settlement process even more challenging. New migrants often experience many difficulties associated with searching for employment, for example, lack of work experience, language proficiency, lack of local contacts, skills and qualifications mismatch with local standards, visa policies and lack of awareness of how to apply for jobs in their new country (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Thus, strategies to assist migrants to overcome these challenges are essential to ensure effective settlement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Migration is always associated with a process of adaptation to a new social environment and culture, termed 'acculturation' (Sam & Berry, 2006). Throughout the acculturation process, migrants can experience various difficulties which may cause them acculturative stress. The term for this mental health problem was first introduced by Berry (1970). The construct of acculturative stress was then developed by Aroian and colleagues (1998) who identified four dimensions of acculturative stress, namely language barriers, not feeling at home, feeling loss/nostalgia

for their home country, and perceived discrimination. Since the 1980s, many studies have demonstrated the existence of acculturative stress during the acculturation process (Dyal & Dyal, 1981; Sam & Berry, 2006), but by very few in the leisure field (e.g. Shinew et al., 2006; Stodolska & Walker, 2007; Walker, Halpenny, & Deng, 2011). Although the number of studies in the leisure field has recently increased (Budruk, 2010; Walker et al., 2011), a comprehensive review of 3,369 articles published in leisure journals from 1995 through 2005 identified only 12 studies on migration and leisure (Floyd, Bocarro, & Thompson, 2008). Research on migrants and leisure is still under-developed with much still to be done to fully understand the relationship between migrants' settlement process and leisure experience (Shinew et al., 2006; Stodolska & Walker, 2007; Walker et al., 2011).

The few studies that have explored the relationship between acculturation and leisure have identified that participation in leisure activities can buffer acculturative stress (e.g. Walker et al., 2011). However, not every dimension of acculturative stress could be reduced by leisure participation. Walker and colleagues' (2011) study, for example, reported that migrants' leisure exacerbated their perceived discrimination stress, thus hindered them from further pursuing leisure participation. The existence of stress and low levels of participation in leisure are also reported in other leisure studies (e.g. Kim, Scott, & Oh, 2005; Stack & Iwasaki, 2009; Stodolska & Alexandris, 2004; Walker et al., 2011; Walker & Wang, 2009; Yang et al., 2007) and are caused by language differences, limited social networks, lack of awareness of available activities, social class status, ethnic background, discrimination, health status and time constraints. However, these existing studies have ignored other important aspects that might improve migrants' acculturation particularly emotional attachment to their new home and connection with the community.

The role of leisure in migrants' settlement life is more than just a pastime activity. Migrants' leisure involvement requires a more complex conceptualisation which consists of external elements. The missing elements that this present study proposes to investigate are the possible development of migrants' emotional connection to their new home and the community. Emotional connection to a place and community is believed to assist individuals to cope with stress and protect against the development of mental health problems (Floyd et al., 2008).

Acculturative stress relates to the difficulties migrants experience in their adjustment to the lifestyle of their host countries (J.W. Berry, 2006; Walker et al., 2011). How such stress can be ameliorated through leisure activities is an under-researched area (Floyd et al., 2008; Shinew et al., 2006). In an effort to further discover the role of leisure for migrants, the present study explored whether migrants' leisure participation during their early acculturation years can alleviate the stress. The present study also investigated the beneficial role of place attachment (Gross & Brown, 2006; Scannell & Gifford, 2010) that enables migrants to develop emotional and functional connections to their new home, and community embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001) that fosters migrants' social integration.

Therefore, the purpose of this present study was to examine the effect of migrants' leisure participation in developing place attachment and community embeddedness to manage acculturative stress.

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

This present study utilised a mixed method, two phase sequential approach to conceptualise migrants' leisure participation. The qualitative phase was an exploratory analysis of migrants' leisure participation and settlement challenges that used dialogue with South Australian experts in leisure and migration departments (n=11). Semi-structured interviews were conducted to address these objectives (QL refers to Qualitative Research Objectives):

- QL1: to explore the nature of migrants' leisure participation during their early years of acculturation;
- QL2: to investigate how leisure participation affects migrants' acculturation process;
- QL3: to explore the migrants' acculturation challenges which cause them stress.

From a networking analysis using Ucinet 6 software (please refer to Figure 1 for the Networking Diagram and the Simplified Networking Diagram), five themes emerged from the qualitative findings:

1. leisure as a coping strategy;
2. pre-employment challenges;
3. financial issues;
4. perceived discrimination; and
5. family obligations.

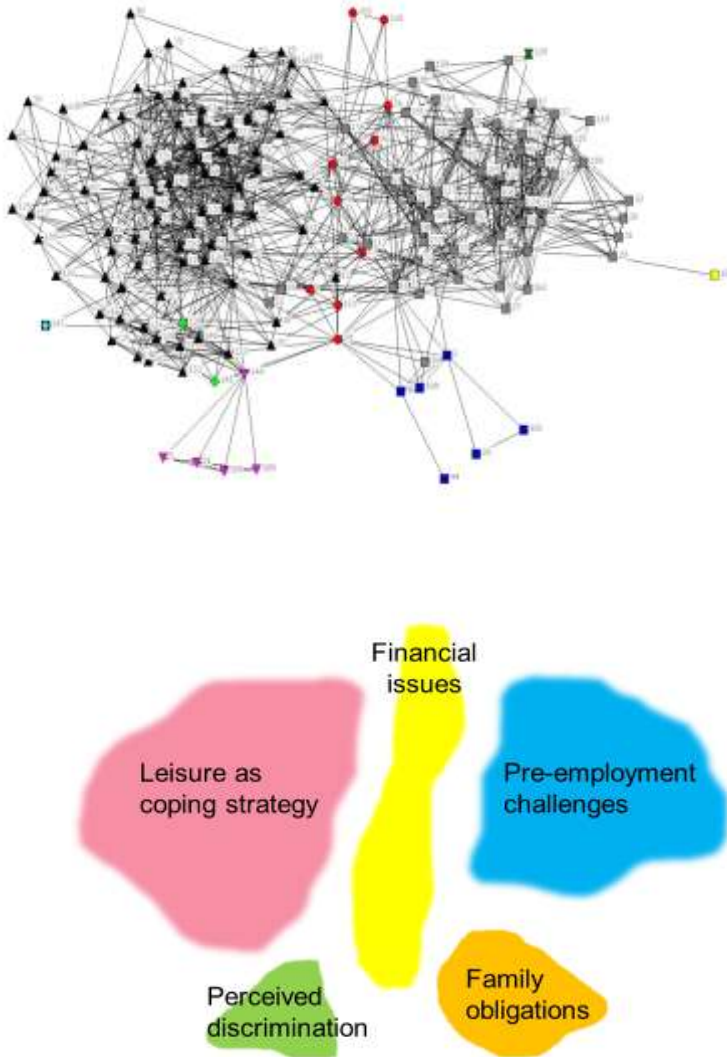


Figure 1.
Network-

ing Analysis Diagram and Simplified Networking Analysis Diagram

The leisure as a coping strategy theme contained two sub-themes: leisure facilities and social support. These sub-themes support the initial proposal of the present study to investigate the role of place attachment (that might be developed

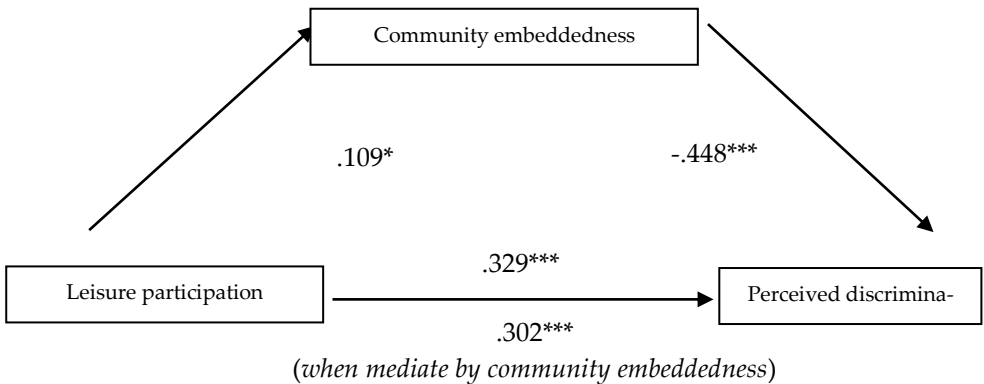
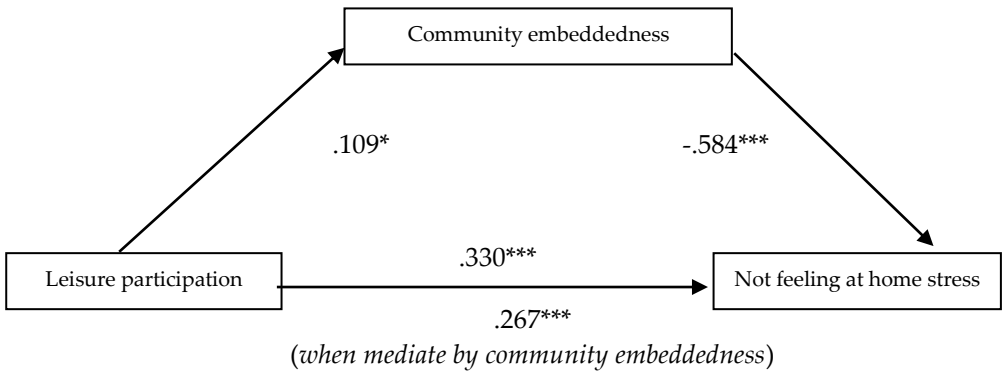
from well-resourced leisure facilities) and community embeddedness (the need for social support in migrants' settlement). The next phase (the quantitative phase) then further explored the role of these constructs in migrants' leisure participation to manage acculturative stress. The other four themes represented settlement challenges that hinder migrants from participating in leisure. These constraints, which this study found hampered migrants' settlement, extend the current knowledge about acculturative stress.

The qualitative findings were integrated into the quantitative phase, which was an examination of the dimensionality of migrants' leisure participation. A survey instrument was formulated to explore the effect of the frequency of migrants' leisure participation on their acculturative stress, place attachment and community embeddedness. Following a pilot study to test the instrument, the main state-wide survey was conducted with South Australian migrants (n=395) from May 2013 through to January 2014 to measure respondents' leisure participation in managing acculturative stress with the mediating role of place attachment and community embeddedness. This quantitative phase's detailed objectives were to (QN refers to Quantitative Research Objective):

- QN1: examine the effect of migrants' leisure participation on reducing acculturative stress;
- QN2: examine the effect of migrants' leisure participation on developing place attachment;
- QN3: examine the effect of migrants' place attachment on reducing acculturative stress;
- QN4: examine the mediation effect of migrants' place attachment on the relationship between leisure participation and acculturative stress;
- QN5: examine the effect of migrants' leisure participation on developing community embeddedness;
- QN6: examine the effect of migrants' community embeddedness on reducing acculturative stress; and
- QN7: examine the mediation effect of migrants' community embeddedness on the relationship between leisure participation and acculturative stress.

Exploratory factor analysis of the survey data generated two dimensions which proposed to represent a place attachment construct (place dependence and place identity), one dimension which proposed to represent community embeddedness (community fit and sacrifice), and four dimensions which represent the acculturative stress construct (language barriers, not feeling at home, feeling nostalgia/loss and perceived discrimination). Mediated regression analysis confirmed that leisure participation lessened migrants' not feeling at home and perceived discrimination stress when mediated by community embeddedness (See Figure 2). Mi-

grants' leisure participation also had a positive significant direct relationship with community embeddedness, suggesting that encouraging migrants to participate in leisure activities is one way to build their sense of belonging in their new local community. Both place attachment and community embeddedness had a significant negative relationship with most aspects of migrants' acculturative stress, indicating that migrants who were involved in their local community and who felt attached to their adopted location, experienced less stress in adjusting to their new home country.



($^{***} p < 0.001$, $^{**} p < 0.01$, $^* p < 0.05$)

Figure 2: Mediation effect between 'leisure participation and not feeling at home stress' and between 'leisure participation and perceived discrimination stress'

Contradictorily, leisure participation has no significant direct relationship with language barriers stress and feeling loss/nostalgia stress. Leisure participation

also has no significant direct relationship with both place dependence and place identity mediators. Therefore, the analysis ended here. Although the place dependence mediator has a significant direct relationship with language barriers, not feeling at home and feeling loss/nostalgia stress, and the place identity mediator has significant direct relationships with both not feeling at home and perceived discrimination stress, the analysis could not be continued due to insignificant relationships between the independent variable (leisure participation) with moderators (place dependence and place identity) and independent variables (language barriers and feeling loss/nostalgia). To run a mediation analysis, it is important to make sure that both relationships between independent variable with dependent variable and independent variable with mediator are significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Pearl, 2001).

Almost 70% of the participants participated in social leisure activities which involved interacting with people and connecting to the community. These respondents were involved both in ethnic community events and also in activities integrated with other cultures. The results of this present study indicate that, overall, migrants' attachment to their community is more important than attachment to place in ameliorating their acculturative stress through social leisure participation. This present study suggests a way forward for future research to further explore how migrants adjust to their new location and improve their well-being, and also has implications for leisure industry management.

CONCLUSION

This present study makes a contribution to the body of leisure and migration knowledge in both theory and practice. From a theoretical standpoint, the study lends the view that a theoretical basis exists to support the viability and utility of place attachment and community embeddedness in the relationship between migrants' leisure participation and acculturative stress. The theory also recognises the viability of combining leisure participation, acculturative stress, place attachment and community embeddedness constructs in the context of migrants' leisure participation. However, while leisure participation may be beneficial to ease the known stressors of acculturative stress, this study identified that there are barriers to migrants participating in leisure (e.g., pre-employment, financial issues and family obligations) that could have undesirable consequences. From a practical viewpoint, the study provides a new perspective of social leisure participation in mitigating settlement distress. The study suggests a validated relationship that can be used by migration and leisure departments to provide beneficial support programs in assisting migrants' in the early settlement process.

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An Examination of Customer-based Hotel Brand Equity: Evidence from Iran

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INTRODUCTION

Brand as an intangible asset is a name or symbols that differentiates one product or company from others (American Marketing Association Dictionary, 2011), which are mostly used in marketing in broad and hospitality in particular which is the focus of the current study. Chained-brand hotels such as Accor (France), Hilton, Hyatt, Marriott (USA), Four Seasons (Canada) etc. are a few successful examples of the role of brands in their expansion worldwide (Vukasin, 2009) suggesting the prevalence of branding within the hotel industry (Bailey & Ball, 2006). This also implies the importance of brand in terms of demand since a brand can be associated with some benefits in the customers' mind. For example, Raffles hotel brings maturity and aristocracy into one's mind; thus, making branding a win-win situation in the market both for customer and seller. Reduction of perceived risks and search costs are some benefits of hotel branding for the customers and ability to charge more and gain a better market share with less advertising costs compared with the competitors are hotel branding benefits for brand owners (Kayaman & Arasli, 2007).

O'Neill and Mattila (2004) suggest that brands with higher guest satisfaction levels greater revenues than those with lower satisfaction. However, to make a better positioning decision, hotel brand owners need to know what a customer feels about their brand; specifically, the brand awareness, brand loyalty, brand association, and brand value should be measured which is most commonly con-

ceptualized in the term customer based brand equity which has gained a great deal of attention in recent years (Malik & Naeem, 2011; Kim, Jin-Sun, & Kim, 2008; Kayaman & Arasli, 2007; Bailey & Ball, 2006; Kim & Kim, 2005).

As above stated, building brand equity is viewed as one of the key drivers of a hospitality firm's success. This success results from understanding brand equity properly and managing them to yield a considerable financial performance (Kim & Kim, 2005). In this article, Parsian chain hotels in Iran were chosen as a case study. Iran is a developing country and many service-oriented businesses are growing such as hotel chains. This is mostly because of current successful nuclear agreement between Iran and six world powers, which produced many business opportunities for Iran and the other countries, which made Iranians more eager to tourism industry. According to theguardian (July, 2015), 'tourism to Iran set to rise sharply after nuclear deal'. Similarly, As the Financial Times (June, 2015) stated 'hotel groups eye Iran tourism potential as sanction deal nears'. For this, the competition among hotel brands in Iran predicts to be largely serious which cause both some opportunity and threat for hotel brand owners in Iran, thus investigating customer brand equity essential.

In order to respond to this necessity and fill this gap in the developing countries, this study examines the four critical components namely perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand awareness, and brand image with each other in the context of Parsian chain hotels and also helps the hotel managers and executives to evaluate and improve their marketing efforts in this competitive market.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brand Equity

Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) defined as a way of evaluating the value of a brand in consumers' minds. The power of a brand is the result of what consumers have felt, seen, learned, and heard about the brand over time. Thus, this power lies in the minds of customers (Kim & Kim, 2004). According to Aaker CBBE composed of brand associations, brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and other proprietary assets. According to the results of Cobb-Walgren et al's (1995) study based on CBBE and Aaker's brand equity dimensions, hotel services were shown to be high financial risk services. Their findings suggested that the hotel brands with the higher equity caused a significant increase in customers' preferences and buying intentions in particular and profitability in general.

Kim and Kim (2005) focused on the linkage between brand equity and firms' performance in luxury hotels and chain restaurants. Their study involved four components of CBBE; brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Their research findings showed that solid brand equity may give rise to a significant progress in profitability and the absence of brand equity in hospitality businesses can damage potential cash flow. Therefore, it could be suggested that the greater the hotel brand equity, the more likely clients will be assured to choose

the hotel’s services. Indeed the CBBE model puts that value in the customers’ minds.

For the purpose of our study, brand equity’s dimensions adapted from Karaman and Arsali’s (2007) consist of four dimensions; brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand awareness. Their empirical research on the interrelationship between the CBBE’s components and applicability of the suggested CBBE scale on the five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus. Of the four dimensions, brand awareness was not loaded significantly as a CBBE factor for five-star hotels. Although this element is a key factor for the brand equity, their study findings support the three-dimensional model of CBBE in hotel industry suggesting that brand awareness is not a fundamental component of hotel brand equity. The current study aims to investigate these four components in the Parsian five-star hotels in Iran to test the Karaman and Arsali’s (2007) conceptual to see if this is true in a different study context.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND ITS COMPONENTS

Following two conceptualizations of Aaker (1991, 1996) and Keller (1993, 1998), and other previous germane literature (Yoo & Donthu, 2001, 2002), Karaman and Arsali’s (2007) proposed a conceptual model consisting of brand loyalty, brand image, brand awareness and perceived quality dimensions and hypotheses which are presented in Figure 1.

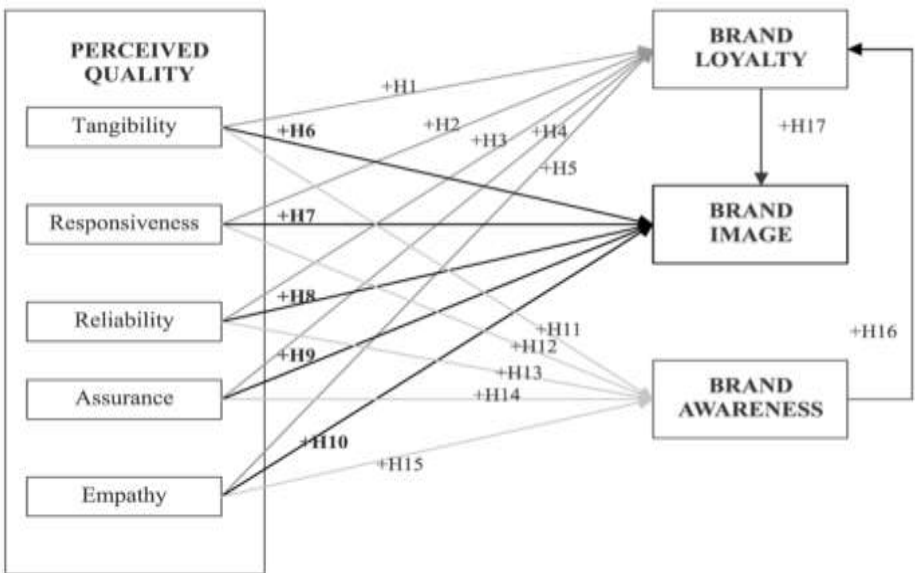


Figure 1. CBBE Model Adapted from Karaman & Arsali’s (2007) Conceptual Model

Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty is a basis of brand equity referred to consumers' intention to purchase which is repeated or recommended through positive word-of-mouth to others (Aaker, 1991; Ruchan & Arasli, 2007). Keller (2000) stated that brand loyalty seems to be a key variable for management interested in the value of brand equity when measured from a consumer perspective.

Brand Image

Brand image is actually the associations linked to the brand in the mind of customers (Yoo & Donthu, 2001) The customer understanding of products and perceived risks in choosing services are increased through brand image, and let the companies reach at higher performance level (Kim & Kim, 2004).

Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is the ability for a buyer to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of certain product category (Aaker, 1991, p.16) which suggest that brand awareness consists of either as brand recognition or recall (Keller, 1991).

Perceived Quality

Perceived quality is viewed as a critical aspect of the CBBE model (Dyson, Farr, & Hollis, 1996). According to Zeithaml (1988), service quality is the 'customers' judgment about a product's overall excellence' or the brand's image in Karaman and Arsalı's (2007) words. Service quality is characterized by five components commonly known as SERVQUAL model (Naik, Gantasala, & Prabhakar, 2010) which include; *reliability* (the extent to which the services are done consistently and accurately), *responsiveness* (the extent to which the workers of hotel are eager to help customer and deliver quick service), *assurance* (the extent to which staff is courteous, knowledgeable and able to encourage reliance), *empathy* the extent to which the customer is offered individualizes attention, and *tangibility* (the extent to which physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of staffs are adequate).

METHODOLOGY

The hypotheses are analyzed by using data collected from existing domestic customers accommodated in Parsian 5 and 4 star hotels in Iran. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the subjects that are judge to be typical of the statistical population which we are interested in, assuming that 'errors of judgment in the selection will tend to counterbalance one another (Judd et al., 1991, p.136). A total number of 435 questionnaires are distributed in the Parsian hotels.

CONCLUSION

The interrelationship between customer-based brand equity components and applicability of the Karaman and Arsalı's (2007) conceptual model scale on the hotel industry is examined in this study. By breaking down the CBBE construct

into the sub components, the relations between these sub components and subsequently the mode tested via AMOS software. Moreover, the current study provides insight with customer based brand equity concept and its measurement by examining the dimensions of this construct. Finally, the study findings give opportunity to managers to develop detailed brand equity strategies for their companies. In particular, because this study advantaged a sample of actual hotel customers, the present study may give some managerial implications to the Parsian chain hotels in Iran.

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A Comparative Analysis of Entrepreneurial Intentions of Tourism Students in Iran and Italy

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INTRODUCTION

Both entrepreneurship and tourism serve as an economic and social development catalyst via generating economic wealth, creating employment, developing destinations economy, raising productivity, enhancing market competition, and introducing new technologies in both developed and developing countries (Ball, 2005; Lordkipanidze, Brezet & Backman, 2005). More specifically, as Koh and Hatten (2002) point out tourist attractions and marketing strategies promote entrepreneurial activities through establishing sequential phases of enhancing destinations attractiveness, increasing the number of visitors, the need for more enterprises supplying tourism products, and finally motivating potential entrepreneurs to initiate various tourism businesses to meet tourists' demands. Also, in order to adapt to the rapidly varying nature of travel and tourism industry and facilitates the way for satisfying new tourists' interests and experiences (Ball, 2005; Fayos-Sola, 1996), destinations and firms need the presence of travel and tourism entrepreneurs in order to better establish itself in the marketplace.

As such, many scholars stressed the importance of entrepreneurs in tourism development of a destination (Ball, 2005; Echtner, 1995; Koh & Hatten, 2002). For example, Ball (2005) states that entrepreneurship is central to the continued success and development of any industries particularly in the dynamic and briskly evolving tourism industries since entrepreneurial activities cause new ways of product distribution, new forms of organizations, new products and services de-

velopment, and new market creation

As a result, promoting entrepreneurship may be essential for the success of today's societies, which encounter tremendous economic and social difficulties globally, and nationally. For this, entrepreneurship-related researchers and educators suggested that this promotion should begin early in life through training the youth (Obschonka, Silbereisen, & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2010). Consequently, universities as potential sources of future entrepreneurs may play a crucial role in training future entrepreneurs as education and support offered by universities affect the entrepreneurial career selection of students (Turker & Selcuk, 2009; Wang, Lu, & Millington, 2011). Review of the extant literature also shows that entrepreneurship as a career choice is increasingly becoming important for university graduates (Galloway & Brown, 2002). Thus understanding the factors that influence and shape individuals' intentions of starting a business is critical if programs and policies are to be developed to encourage entrepreneurial behavior. According to Ajzen (1991), at the point when behavior is hard to observe, intention is viewed a good means to explain the entrepreneurial behavior. Examining intentions indicate how hard people are willing to try as well as how much effort they are planning to exert in performing the behavior.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the determinants of entrepreneurial intentions of tourism students in Iran, Italy and the USA. There have been some studies that investigate the entrepreneurial intentions of non-tourism students in different countries; yet, to the best knowledge of the author, there has been no research on entrepreneurial intention of tourism students except in the works of Gurel, Altinay, and Daniele (2010), and Soliman (2011). Also, there has been no particular research in the context of Iran, Italy and the USA using a cross-cultural approach.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Career decision-making process particularly entrepreneurial intention is viewed as the key element to understanding a new venture creation process (Urbano & Guerrero, 2013). This is based on the view that entrepreneurial activity such as starting a new venture is planned (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000) and in order to explain the entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial intention models such as Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour, Shapero's (1982) Entrepreneurial Event offer a better understanding than the other approaches such as personality traits approach to entrepreneurs thereby demonstrating the importance of intention as a determining cognitive factor in perceiving the entrepreneurial process (Krueger, 2009; Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

Of the popular entrepreneurial intention models used by researchers to study new venture creation, this study uses Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), proposing that entrepreneurial intention is the results of three conceptual determinants including attitude toward behavior (the degree to which a person

has a favorable or unfavorable appraisal of entrepreneurial behavior); subjective norms (the perceived social pressure and approval to being an entrepreneur by significant individuals such as parents, friends and other role models); and perceived control over behavior (the individual's perceived personal ability to perform entrepreneurial behavior). All these factors act as the motivation which influence and direct entrepreneurial behavior. Importantly, these factors can be affected by exogenous influences such as demographic characteristics (Souitaris, Zerbini, & Al-Laham, 2007). Thus, this study also incorporates some demographic factors including gender, working experience and family background to the current research so as to investigate their impact on students' entrepreneurial intention. This study also adds some contextual factors namely educational support and structural support to the proposed model as most of the past research devoted their attention to the effect of three core TPB elements and some situational variables on university students' entrepreneurial intentions and ignored adding the impact of contextual factors in their study. While according to Elfving, Brännback, Carsrud (2009), supporting from other organizations such as governments and institutions can be of great importance to reinforce an individual's entrepreneurial intentions. Similarly, Henley (2005) argues that in order to convert entrepreneurial dream into more intentional planning to set up new business, potential student entrepreneurs need support from government and institutions. More specifically, in their seminal study of 300 university students from Turkey, Turker and Selcuk (2008) focused on the impacts of some contextual factors i.e., educational, relational, and structural supports on students' entrepreneurial intentions. Their study indicated that only educational and structural support factors affect the entrepreneurial intention of students. They suggested further studies on the effect of contextual factors on students' entrepreneurial intention. The current study thus attempts to respond this call by incorporating this construct to the TPB, thereby extending the TPB model as well.

In order to analyse entrepreneurial intention across the world, especially those with totally different cultures such as the context of the current study, the individualistic and collectivistic concepts should be taken into consideration. The research proposed model and the hypotheses were provided in Fig. 1

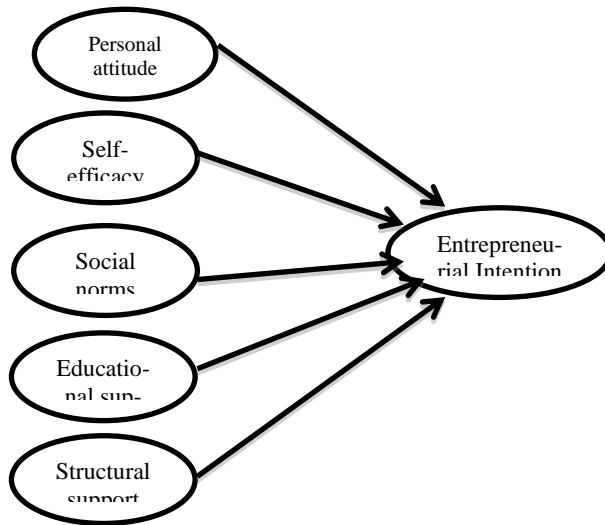


Figure 1. Proposed Research Model

Based on the literature review and the proposed research model (Fig. 1), the following hypotheses are developed:

- H1: Demographic factors as gender, working experience, and family background have an influence on tourism students' entrepreneurial intention.
- H2: Attitude positively influences tourism students' entrepreneurial intention.
- H3: Subjective norms positively influences tourism students' entrepreneurial intention.
- H4: Entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively influences tourism students' entrepreneurial intention.
- H5: Contextual factors as structural support and educational support positively influences tourism students' entrepreneurial intention.

METHODOLOGY

A self-administered questionnaire was designed and distributed among the last year tourism undergraduate students as well as graduated students in Italy, Iran and the USA. The structured questionnaire used to collect data consisted of four parts: demographic factors (age, gender, working experience and family background), contextual factors (educational and structural supports), the components

of the TPB, and entrepreneurial intention. The TPB consists of three core parts: attitude toward behaviour, subjective norms and entrepreneurial self-efficacy. The respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement with specified statements on a seven-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” = 1 to “strongly agree” = 7. The contextual factors consisted of two components; educational support and structural support factors. Both factors were drawn from Turker and Selcuk (2008) and the rest of factors are adopted from Linan & Chen (2009) and Shook & Bratianu (2010) and (Moriano et al. 2011).

RESULTS

The conceptual model and hypothesized relationships are tested through applying Structural Equation Modeling-Analysis of Moment Structures (SEM-AMOS) to determine the overall fit of the proposed model with the data including the causal relationships between major variables measured, and the influences of the constructs on entrepreneurial intentions.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Entrepreneurship decision-making has been extensively studied and various models and theories have been proposed to explain an individual's entrepreneurial behavior. Researchers have suggested that intention-based models offer a significant opportunity toward better understanding and prediction of individuals' entrepreneurial activities. Taking a new approach, this study applied existing robust intention models to proposed a new intentions model to explain entrepreneurial intentions among tourism management students so as to empirically test the relationship between entrepreneurial intention and its antecedents and to identify the important factors that lead to tourism students' entrepreneurial intention. Hence, the role of personal attitude, social norms, self-efficacy, educational supports, and structural supports on tourism student's entrepreneurial intention will be analyzed in the cross-cultural approach. Five hypotheses are proposed and subsequently tested through using PLS-SEM as the structural model gives better information as to how well the theoretical model predicts the hypothesized paths.

The entrepreneurship related research review suggests that entrepreneurial activities have a great impact on the economy and accordingly, the need for entrepreneurial graduates are increasing. Recognizing that starting a tourism business is an intentional act holds substantial implications for the research. By understanding tourism students' entrepreneurship perceptions in this study's context, we can design platforms that support effective entrepreneurship utilization for tourism education planning. Generally, It is also hoped that the findings of the research could contribute to the emerging and growing body of knowledge on entrepreneurship in the tourism context, especially with regard to its attitudinal dimension.

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Identifying Cycle Tourism Segments in the Balearic Islands: A Latent Class Approach

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism market is a very heterogeneous one, with consumers who display personal differences that are indicative of different future behaviours (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). In tourism, segmentation is a particularly important concept (Barroso, Martín and Martín, 2007). However, few studies examine the profiles of different segments as potential markets for sports tourism (Ritchie, Mosedale and King, 2002), hence the appeal of a study aimed at gaining a better insight into market niches like the cycle tourism market, together with its respective sub-markets and typologies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sports tourism has become an important economic activity for many regions (Shonk & Chelladurai, 2008). The aim of this paper is to identify the profiles of cycle tourists in order to differentiate possible consumer segments. Through this process of segmentation, a better understanding of cycle tourists will be achieved by examining demographic variables and the characteristics of the trip they make. This, in turn, can lead to more efficient management of the marketing and commercialization of tourist destinations for cycle tourism purposes.

Demographic variables play a major role in market segmentation as a means of identifying the individuals in each segment (Rondán, Sánchez, & Villarejo, 2010). However, segmenting the benefits that are reaped from trips (such

their travel characteristics) is also considered to be an efficient method of market segmentation, since market segments can be identified by causes instead of descriptive factors (Rondán et al., 2010). The combination of each of the above variables allows different profiles of cycle tourists to be identified, and this can then help different stakeholders in cycle tourism to focus their marketing efforts on specific segments.

METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered about the entrants in the Mallorca 321 cycling event using a self-administered online questionnaire (CAWI) available between April and May 2015. Non-probabilistic sampling was used through self selection, sending information about the questionnaire by e-mail. A total sample of 1280 entrants was obtained.

A latent class analysis is a statistical tool for determining correlations between observed variables and an (unobserved) latent categorical variable. This classification method is based on the estimation of conditional probabilities, facilitating an analysis of variables measured in different metrics, particularly categorical data (Magidson & Vermunt, 2001, 2004). A latent class analysis is superior to a conventional cluster analysis because qualitative variables (nominal scales) can be used (Kamakura & Wedel, 1995) and easily identified segments can then be created (DeSarbo, Jedidi, & Sinha, 2001).

Table 1 provides evidence that Gender and Accommodation are not significant indicators for the discrimination of the clusters. Thus for each indicator, with the exception of the above variables, knowledge of the response for that indicator contributes in a significant way towards the ability to discriminate between the clusters. For example, for the level of education, the effects can be analysed by columns or by rows. Differences can be observed in Cluster 1 and across the three clusters.

Table 2 shows the conditional probabilities of each cluster, such as their individual size. Thus Cluster 1 contains 41.62% of the cases, Cluster 2 contains 41.47% and Cluster 3 contains 16.92%.

Table 1. Estimation of the model and the model’s indicators

Model	Cluster	LL	BIC (LL)	Npar	L ²	df	p-value	Class. Err.
1	1	-8218.1089	16658.0351	31	6892.1275	1250	6.0e-765	0.0000
2	2	-7283.7020	14860.7753	41	5023.3137	1240	7.5e-448	0.0123
3	3	-7244.8469	14854.6189	51	4945.6034	1230	3.5e-438	0.0655
4	4	-7228.3652	14893.2096	61	4912.6401	1220	8.0e-436	0.0669
5	5	-7211.2800	14930.5931	71	4878.4696	1210	2.9e-433	0.1059
6	6	-7198.6554	14976.8979	81	4853.2205	1200	3.6e-432	0.1470
	Variables	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Wald	p-value		
	Gender	0.0353	0.1879	-0.2233	1.0894	0.5800		
	Education	-1.0301	0.5068	0.5234	364.4634	7.20E-80		
	Age	3.6704	-1.9475	-1.7229	127.1087	2.50E-28		
	Form of travel	-0.8385	1.058	-0.2195	12.607	0.0018		
	Size of group	0.3421	-1.0161	0.6740	1.5907	0.4500		
	Accommodation	-0.6284	0.2482	0.3802	0.9365	0.6300		
	No. days' stay	-7.2616	4.8174	2.4442	42.819	5.00E-10		
	Country	0.1018	-0.1376	0.0358	7.1285	0.0280		
	Spending	1.4050	0.1703	-1.5753	78.7379	8.00E-18		

From the conditional probabilities, the corresponding profiles of each cluster can be described:

Cluster 1: These are male tourists over the age of 65 from countries outside the European Union with a low level of education. They organize the trip themselves, travelling in groups of four or more and staying at a hotel for 1 or 2 days, spending over 5000 euros on the trip.

Cluster 2: This cluster is made up of tourists from the rest of Europe, with university studies and ages mainly between 35 and 49. Their trip has been arranged by a tour operator or travel agent and they travel alone or with a single companion, staying for between 3 and 7 days and spending between 1000 and 5000 euros.

Cluster 3: Made up of male tourists aged between 35 and 54 from the UK, Germany and Spain. They have a university education, organize the trip themselves and travel in groups of 4 or more people, staying for between 3 and 7 days. They spend the least, up to 2000 euros.

Table 2. Conditional probabilities

Variables	Cluster1	Cluster2	Cluster3	Cluster1	Cluster2	Cluster3
	Rows			Columns		
Overall	0.4162	0.4147	0.1692	0.4162	0.4147	0.1692
Indicators						
Gender						
Male	0.4152	0.4161	0.1686	0.9099	0.8965	0.9289
Female	0.4031	0.4706	0.1263	0.0901	0.1035	0.0711
Education level						
Other	0.8276	0.1238	0.0486	0.6222	0.0623	0.0599
Compulsory secondary school	0.8029	0.1395	0.0575	0.2065	0.0962	0.0940

Secondary school to age of 18	0.1794	0.6026	0.218	0.1117	0.2419	0.2404
University	0.0623	0.6686	0.2691	0.0596	0.5996	0.6058
N/A	0.4771	0.2500	0.2729	-	-	-
Age						
15-24	0	0.6626	0.3374	0.0000	0.0151	0.0091
25-34	0	0.7969	0.2031	0.0000	0.1167	0.0878
35-49	0.0003	0.7150	0.2847	0.0002	0.5683	0.5354
50-64	0.0468	0.6618	0.2914	0.0191	0.2527	0.2980
>65	0.9295	0.0405	0.0301	0.9808	0.0472	0.0697
Form of travel						
Self-organized trip	0.0028	0.4833	0.5139	0.9291	0.6629	0.8758
Trip arranged by (Travel agencies, Tour operators)	0.0001	0.7716	0.2282	0.0709	0.3371	0.1242
N/A	0.6677	0.3307	0.0017	-	-	-
Size of group						
1 person	0.9631	0.0369	0	0.2167	0.7370	0.1118
2 people	0.9921	0.0067	0.0012	0.2464	0.2155	0.1772
3 people	0.9896	0.0002	0.0102	0.0987	0.0222	0.0989
4 or more	0.9968	0.0004	0.0028	0.4383	0.0253	0.6121
N/A	0.1385	0.6113	0.2502	-	-	-
Accommodation						
Hotel	0.0027	0.5615	0.4357	0.9241	0.7963	0.7600
House	0	0.5637	0.4363	0.0703	0.1456	0.1586
Rural Tourism	0	0.4242	0.5758	0.0011	0.0056	0.0070
Other	0	0.4491	0.5509	0.0044	0.0525	0.0745
N/A	0.6669	0.3303	0.0028	-	-	-
No. days' stay						
1 to 2	0.9608	0.0038	0.0354	0.9989	0.0029	0.0489
3 to 7	0.0001	0.4347	0.5652	0.0011	0.5614	0.8961
8 to 15	0	0.898	0.102	0.0000	0.3655	0.0544
16 to 30	0	0.9902	0.0098	0.0000	0.0442	0.0006
+ than 30	0	0.9972	0.0028	0.0000	0.0260	0.0000
Country						
Other	0.0159	0.8035	0.1806	0.0672	0.1153	0.0790
Spain	0.0174	0.7529	0.2297	0.1893	0.2557	0.2085
UK	0.0291	0.6874	0.2835	0.3123	0.3320	0.3219
Germany	0.0199	0.6798	0.3003	0.2486	0.2080	0.2399
Sweden	0.0138	0.5767	0.4095	0.0578	0.0381	0.0522
Switzerland	0.0525	0.5390	0.4084	0.0331	0.0172	0.0280
Denmark	0.0620	0.5190	0.4191	0.0493	0.0201	0.0390
Norway	0.0600	0.6567	0.2833	0.0423	0.0136	0.0314
Spending						
0 – 750	0.0071	0.1370	0.8559	0.0001	0.0408	0.6518
751 – 1000	0.0201	0.4082	0.5717	0.0010	0.0815	0.2270
1001 – 2000	0.0317	0.8209	0.1474	0.0099	0.2368	0.1152
2001 – 3000	0.0303	0.9532	0.0165	0.0073	0.0511	0.0043
3001 – 5000	0	0.9968	0.0032	0.0080	0.0163	0.0002
Over 5000	0.6362	0.3633	0.0004	0.9736	0.5735	0.0015

CONCLUSION

As a sports activity, cycle tourism is a useful pull factor in tourism, particularly at destinations whose geographical heterogeneity and good transport links allow visitors to enjoy the destination at a sporting level, as is the case of the Balearic Islands. Sports tourism has seen a spectacular boom in recent decades. This study strives to fill the gap in the hitherto scanty research on segmentation in sports tourism.

The purpose was to ascertain whether there are differences in cycle tourists in terms of sociodemographic variables, aspects of the trip, and expenditure. The main contribution of this paper is its use of segmentation through a latent class analysis, a method that has proven itself to be useful in identifying cycle tourist profiles. This study was conducted with a view to finding profitable segments and potential new ones in order to take advantage of possible market niches. The results show that there are no differences in the segments in terms of the gender

variable, mainly because this is a male-dominated activity. It can also be seen to be an activity that is enjoyed by people of an advanced age, although young people are still an excellent potential market. Marketing strategies by multiple stakeholders should be focused on attracting these potential clients, while younger segments of the market could also be attracted by using marketing campaigns based on promotions and special offers. At the same time, cycling tourism is also enjoyed by people with a high purchasing power. This reality can be used to pinpoint cycle tourism niches that have not been fully taken advantage of in Spain, such as young people travelling for study reasons or tourists with a low level of income.

In future research, it would be a good idea to analyse the satisfaction levels of entrants in Mallorca 321 and how they found out about or registered for the competition, and to conduct a joint analysis of the preferences and motivations of entrants in the said event. In short, the cycle tourism market is clearly a heterogeneous one, and hence the results of this study should be used to develop business strategies aimed at improving the marketing of the identified segments.

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Hikers in the Balearic Islands: The Case of Sierra De Tramuntana, Spain

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INTRODUCTION

The Balearic Islands are one of the principle receptor destinations of international tourism, receiving over 11 million tourists annually. More than 1% of world tourism is concentrated within its limited territory of 5,014km², and it is recognised internationally for its hegemony of the sun and beach segment. However, new tourist demands and intense competition are forcing the destination to diversify its offer, to propose new experiences for its visitors and to counteract the seasonality of the destination.

La Sierra de Tramuntana mountain range occupies the western slopes of the island of Mallorca, and runs parallel to the coast. With rugged mountains, gorges, valleys, reservoirs and a long-distance walking route (Gran Recorrido) of 150km (GR 221), it is becoming one of the main hiking destinations for European source markets. Blanco (2006) claims that nature tourism is that which has the principal objective of engaging in recreational and relaxation activities, the interpretation and/or knowledge of nature. According to Ceballos (2010), in 2006, around 120,000 tourists participated in mountain tourism in La Sierra de Tramuntana.

The aim of this study is to learn precisely what the profile of the hiking tourist is, by identifying the demographic variables, the pattern of behaviour when choosing a destination, as well as the motivation and level of satisfaction experienced throughout their stay in Mallorca. As a result, valuable information can be transferred to both public authorities and private enterprise, enabling them both to im-

prove the measures taken to adapt to the emerging demand for these new trends in tourism focused on the development of sporting and physical skills and abilities.

METHODOLOGY

The type of research methodology used in this study is that of surveys or selective cross-section based on the application of questionnaires designed ad hoc by our team. A non-probabilistic quota sampling was used. The size of the sample –289– was established using a maximum margin of error of 5% and a level of reliability of 95% in the estimation of the corresponding population parameters. The data was gathered between the months of April and June 2014.

RESULTS

The study of the sample provides us with information about the characteristics of the hikers that take part in this form of active tourism in Mallorca. Our hiker tourist is principally female (52%), German (52%) English (14%), Swiss (9%) or Dutch (9%). The suitable age range for this kind of sport is very wide, since hiking is accessible for all members of the public who are able to adapt to the time and geographical space available. The sample reflects this wide age range, where there is a noticeable trend in the age segment of 60-70 year-olds.

Almost 53% of the respondents disclosed their occupations. Around 29% declared themselves to be retired or pensioners and only 1.43% stated that they were unemployed. With regard to professional careers, it was revealed that 77% were employees or were employed by others and that 23% were self-employed. 28% of those in employment were senior management and 36% middle management. These tourists are well qualified, since 43% have a university education, 51% a secondary education and just 6% have only primary education.

Belonging to an associations and practical knowledge of the sport is especially important in the case of mountain sports. Therefore, it is of vital importance to ascertain the level of knowledge of the basic rules of the sport under study; the expertise of the hikers; their membership of an association or federation; and the conformity of their equipment with standards required to carry out the sport with maximum guarantees and the prevention of possible risks. Around 41% of the respondents revealed that they belonged to an association in their country of origin, and 34% were even affiliated, complying with the regulations and requirements of their respective countries.

One question of interest, especially for the management of the infrastructures and equipment in natural areas, is the perception the tourist has of the level of signposting on the routes and trails. In this aspect, it is worth mentioning that 20% are of the opinion that the signposting is by no means sufficient; 58.57% think there is little signposting; and 21.42% state that there is good signposting.

With regard to previous experience, it has been detected that only 4.2% of the respondents were beginners, and the remaining 95.8% had previous experience of the activity, which implies some expertise in hiking. Of the latter, more than 45% stated they hike on a regular basis, and 10% very frequently on routes and trails. However, these results are not the same for all mountain categories.

On further examination of the number of times hikers have travelled outside of their region to engage in this sport, it was found that approximately 50% have made five or more trips in the last five years. Any time of the year is good for following the paths and trails that run through the archipelago, but given the choice, spring with 77%, and autumn with 48%, are the preferred seasons of the hikers in the study, while summer (21%), and winter (4%), are the least appealing.

In questions related to their equipment, the items most often carried in the hikers' kit are: clothes and footwear (95%); a mobile phone (86%); sun creams (71%); and maps (62%). Continuing onto the subject of safety, it is of concern that 62% of the respondents declare that they have no alternative route planned in the case of inclement weather or tiredness, and only 38% have an alternative itineraries to those originally planned.

With regard to planning the trip, the results show that 61% of the respondents are of the opinion that the travel agency is the best system to arrange and book the trip. Of the remainder, only 20% believe that booking online is the best way, and 17% booking directly without intermediaries.

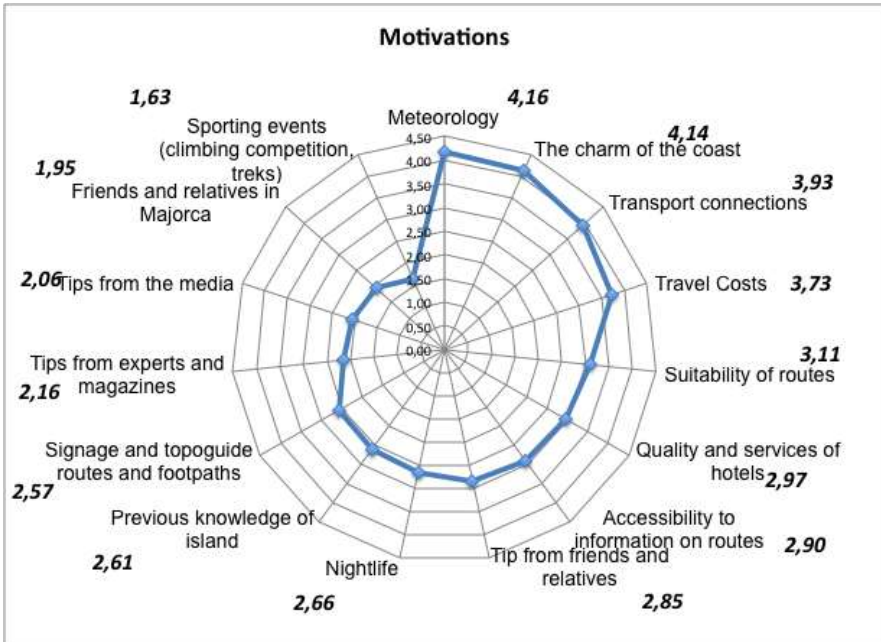


Figure 1. Motivations for travelling to Mallorca

In order to ascertain the levels of motivation, questions were asked on various items using the Likert 5-point scale, about the level of importance when choosing the Balearic Islands, rating 1 as 'indifferent' and 5 as a 'priority'. Of the main reasons influencing the decision to choose Mallorca for hiking, the weather (4.16), the attractiveness of the coast (4.14), and the transport links between the destination and the source markets (3.93), stand out. (Figure 1)

A fundamental objective of any study of tourism products is to ascertain the level of satisfaction of the tourist with their stay, and of different aspects of the same. The attractiveness of the coast (4.34), the weather (4.32), and transport connections (3.92) were the highest scoring aspects. The worst marks were given to signposting and the topographical guides of the routes and trails (2.7), and the price of the services (3.0) (Figure 2).

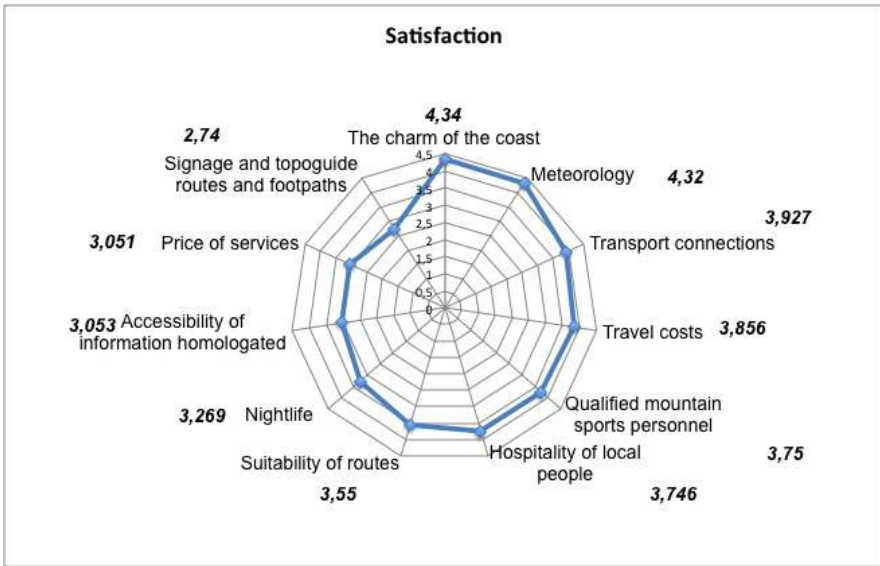


Figure 2. Satisfaction with their experience

Finally, the respondents were asked whether their experience in the Balearic Islands was better, the same or worse than elsewhere. More than half of the sample (52%) equated it to their satisfaction with their experience in other countries; 42% declared it to be superior and 6% said it was inferior.

DISCUSSION

Upon review of the findings of this research and the literature on mountain tourism, many similarities have been found as well as some differences. Turespaña (2008) has already pointed out that the Sierra de Tramuntana is very well known, especially on the German market, in line with the sample in this research in which the German segment represents 52%. It is of note that Freyer and Sven's study

(2002) into the profile of the sports tourist carried out in Germany, confirmed that 60% of Germans have the purpose of engaging in some kind of sport during their holidays, and of these, 36% go hiking, and 29% do moderate sporting activities.

Guilbert (2003) claims that hiking and walking in France is undertaken basically by middle and high social classes, be it from the economic point of view or level of education, which is in line with the findings of this research. However, whereas only 6.3% of the tourists in the Balearic Islands are older than 64, (IET, 2013), in this study, the percentage rises to 24%. One of the most meaningful findings is that around 80% of respondents emphasise that signposting is insufficient for clear orientation while hiking. This situation contrasts with the opinion of experts (Turespaña, 2008) who confirm that in Mallorca the majority of trails are easy to follow and are usually marked by stone markers or cairns.

Another clear difference is that while official figures released by IET (2013) show that 65% of tourists use the internet to organize their trips, the figures in this study differ significantly, as only 20% are of the opinion that booking online is the best system to arrange their trip. The predominant role of the traditional travel agency over online booking may be attributed to the fact that 55% of the respondents are over 50 years-old.

The analysis of levels of satisfaction of the hikers reveals critical aspects in signposting, topographical route and trail guides; the cost of services and access to information about standardised routes and leisure activities. The latter is explained by the seasonality of tourism on Mallorca, which means that local businesses remain closed for more than half the year. Signposting and topographical route and trail guides, and access to information about standardised routes are the aspects in need of immediate improvement; improvements which must unavoidably be contextualised in the area of new technologies and mobile devices which would allow tourists to find and access in real time the necessary information required to carry out their hiking activity in a pleasant and safe way in the Sierra de la Tramuntana.

CONCLUSION

A link between tourism and sport would seem to be the answer to the emerging demands of today's citizen. The absence of statistics and both qualitative and quantitative information means that it is vital to encourage research into this field, with the aim of providing information for the improvement of the new tourism products to which the Balears are firmly committed. From the present research into hiking in the Balears, the main strengths can be seen as: the attractiveness of the coastline, the meteorology, good flight connections and the price of the trip. Aspects in need of improvement are: signposting, the topographical route guides, the price of services, and the accessibility of information about standardised routes.

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Pursuing Happiness While on Holidays

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INTRODUCTION

The attention towards individuals' happiness is growing daily (Diener & Tay, 2015). Unsurprisingly, happiness is linked to subjective wellbeing and life satisfaction (e.g., Nicolao, Irwin & Goodman, 2009). Recent international reports show that governments increasingly use data on citizens' happiness to guide public policies and measure their effectiveness (Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2015). The topic of happiness is becoming so relevant that rankings of countries, related to the overall well-being and happiness, have been flourishing extensively worldwide (e.g., Gallup World Poll, 2015).

Consistently, the academic research is supporting the happiness trend. Scholars from various disciplines (e.g., economy, philosophy, psychology) are investigating the concept of happiness (e.g., Nicolao et al., 2009). A significant number of studies have been exploring the determinants of happiness other than income and testing for correlations between economic (unemployment, inflation, income distribution), socio-demographic, institutional and contextual conditions (e.g. social capital, trust, quality of the public sector) and happiness (e.g., Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Helliwell, 2003). More recently, the importance of socio-demographic and geographic descriptors alone has been challenged. In fact, happiness is found to be influenced by individuals' psychographic factors, such as interests, values, opinions, lifestyles and motivations (Bimonte & Faralla, 2012).

This study deals with happiness in tourism. More in particular, the paper investigates whether the tourists' psychographic characteristics (namely moral and ma-

terialist values) and the destination's aesthetic characteristics contribute to tourist happiness. Further, the study aims at verifying whether the relation between moral values and happiness is predicted to differ among various types of tourist's preferences, such as shopping, nature, wine and gastronomy and city tourism, that widening the scope of this research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Happiness has been gaining great attention in tourism studies. Research and conceptual articles on this topic explore both tourists (e.g., Uysal, Sirgy, Woo & Kim, 2015) and community side perspectives (e.g., Rivera, Croes, & Lee, 2015). Overall, tourist happiness has been described as the psychological state of fulfilment and wellbeing that is experienced in anticipatory, on site, and reflective travel phases (e.g., Filep, 2012).

Yet much of the research has been focusing on the determinants of tourism happiness, especially socio-demographics and contextual factors. For instance, holidays affect tourists' long term overall happiness (e.g., Uysal et al., 2015), depending on tourists' different generations (e.g. young versus elder) (Eusebio & Carneiro, 2014; Woo, Kim & Uysal, 2015) and diverse stages in lifecycle (e.g., Dolnicar, Yanamandram & Cliff, 2012), despite unemployment (Nawijn & Damen, 2014). Moreover, happiness experienced on holidays also affects individuals' daily happiness (e.g., Dolnicar et al., 2012). More in particular, tourism provides enduring satisfaction that positively impacts the overall quality of life of those participating in the tourism experience (e.g., Neal, Uysal & Sirgy, 2007). However, the length of the stay (long versus short length) significantly influences happiness (Neal et al., 2007).

Recently, the effectiveness of socio-demographic and contextual factors has been called into question (Bimonte & Faralla, 2012). Other constructs have recently been explored to explain tourism happiness. In tourism management literature, it has been acknowledged that the aesthetic characteristics of a destination have an impact on tourists' pleasure (Kirillova, Lehto, & Cai, 2014). According to some authors, hedonism positively relates to tourists' happiness (e.g., Malone, McCabe & Smith, 2014). Moreover, the aesthetic qualities of a destination shape consumer satisfaction, well-being and future behavioural intentions (e.g., Breiby & Slåtten, 2015). Not surprisingly, happiness in tourism is affected by materialist values and attributes (e.g., Belk, 1996). More in particular, the materialistic lifestyle implies that the possession of material goods shape life satisfaction and subsequent happiness (e.g., Gursoy, Lu & Del Chiappa, 2014).

More recently, scholarly interest has focused on the association between holidays and non-materialist aspects of happiness (Cohen, 1979), for instance in relation to social tourism (e.g., McCabe & Johnson, 2013) or spirituality-related tourism (Puczko' & Smith, 2012). Remarkably, values have been reported as the predictors and determinants of attitudes of individual behaviour over time (e.g.

Schwartz, 1992; Rokeach, 1973). Consistently, values also influence the formation of tourists' attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Dalen, 1989). Past research include tourists' environmental attitudes and preferences (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000), travel/leisure choice criteria (Pitts & Woodside, 1986), and perceived importance ratings of destination attributes (Muller, 1991). However, individuals' values have been scarcely approached in tourism literature (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000), specifically in relation to happiness.

The proposed model (see Figure 1) consists of six hypothesis contributing to explain how three main constructs, namely moral values, materialism and aesthetics of a tourism destination, influence tourists' self-reported happiness. More in particular, the study seeks to test the following hypothesis:

- H1: Moral values directly influence Happiness
- H2: Moral Values influence Materialism
- H3: Materialism influence Happiness
- H4: Moral Values influence Aesthetics
- H5: Aesthetics influence Happiness
- H6: Moral Values influence Materialism and aesthetics, which influence Happiness

Furthermore, the conceptual model will provide further evidence of the relation between moral and materialist values, and aesthetics of a destination towards tourism happiness, testing for invariance within four different types of tourism experiences (namely, shopping, nature, wine and gastronomy and city tourism) by means of multi-group analysis. More in particular, the following hypothesis is posed:

HA: Different types of tourism will lead to different strengths correlations within the main constructs. Then, the strength of the relations over different types of tourism experiences (namely, shopping, nature, wine and gastronomy, and city tourism) is analysed.

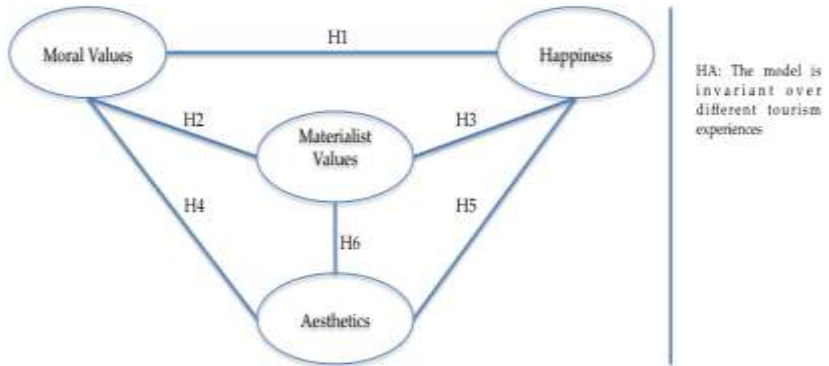


Figure 1. The hypothetical model

METHODOLOGY

To test for the hypothesis of the study, a structured survey instrument has been developed, taking into account the previous literature investigating the topic of happiness in tourism. The questionnaire includes five sections. In the first section, respondents are asked to provide their general socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, nationality). The second section investigates the respondents' assessment as a "guiding principle in your life" of a list of 28 moral values, using a 7-point Likert scale (1=against my values, 2=not important, 4=important, 7=very important) (Schwartz, 1992). In the third part respondents are asked to assess the level of importance of six materialist aspects in their life, using a 7 point Likert scale (1=not important; 4=important; 7=very important) (Richins, 2004). The fourth part explores respondents' happiness over a set of eight questions, using a 7-point Likert scale (1=not happy, 4=happy, 7= very happy) (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003). Finally, the fifth part contains a list of 17 aesthetic attributes related to a touristic destination that respondents have to state using a 7-point Likert scale (Kirillova, 2015). Data will be collected through a face-to-face self-administered questionnaire. Respondents over 18 years and, residing in different regions in Italy will be enrolled in the study. Based on the number of items in the survey, a total of 660 complete questionnaires are expected to be collected. The data will be coded and then analysed using SPSS (version 20). A SEM analysis will be carried out to explore the nature of the relation between moral values, materialist and aesthetic factors towards happiness in tourism, followed by an invariance test through multi-group analysis to test the strengthen of the relations over different types of tourism experiences (namely, shopping, nature, wine and gastronomy, and city tourism).

CONCLUSION

Significant evidence of a direct positive happiness effect arising from individuals' moral values would shed further light on the idea that holidays are a preferred vehicle for experiencing happiness (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000). More in particular, whenever verified, this research would represent the empirical evidence that moral values as universals can explain happiness across cultures, and beyond other situational factors such as nationality. Moreover, the provided evidence would also represent a deep call for the future research. In fact, if the association between moral values and happiness will be proven, it is more likely that tourists' inner characteristics (e.g., psychological or emotional) should be further investigated, instead of socio-demographic and situational ones. Finally, the expected findings of this study would help to better understand how tourists might experience happiness, thus providing the basics for relevant practical implications. For instance, hospitality managers would learn to place more emphasis to morality in promoting the concept of happiness of their destination. This research also sheds light on how to increase the awareness of different tourism experiences considering the psychographic characteristics of tourists as well as their perceptions of happiness over different contexts. The empirical implications of this research have to be enlightened, providing insights of an effective marketing strategy.

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Competitiveness Factor Analysis of an Operating Tourist Destinations

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INTRODUCTION

Experts in tourism have long since reached the conclusion that its development bears both benefits and negatives to the tourist destinations (Pearce, Moscardo & Ross, 1996). And if you make references to studies on tourism's effects, inevitably strikes Jafari's opinion that up to the 60's years of the 20-th century mainly the positive ones were marked (Jafari, 1986). Moreover, during the 70 years tourism researchers attention aimed towards the negative result of tourism development. Furthermore, the early 80s were marked with the overall observation of both positive and negative effects. With time, conceptually different theories were developed in order to study the tourism effects, such as the social exchange theory, which researchers as Jurowski, Uysal and Williams (Jurowski, Uysal, & Williams, 1997) represent in an article of 1997. The theory stresses that tourism can bear both benefits and consequently it can result to additional costs for the local communities. Or even, in order to provide economic growth, tourism actually provokes parallel occurring negative social, cultural and environmental effects.

LITERATURE REVIEW

When carry out a very important economic and management decisions, forecast of a relevant macro and micro economic indicators should be used (World Bank, 2015). On the other hand, we should make clarification that when undertaking an analysis of tourist destinations in Bulgaria, with focus on three particular indicators of the competitiveness, the available data covers the time period of 2011-2013, set according to the methodology of assessment. In addition, many of the determinants stipulate opportunities for tourist destinations competitiveness increasing are vast, it is necessary and sufficient to take into account the most im-

portant relevant competitiveness establishing parameter values. Presumably, they would affect most of the process of competitiveness improving. For this purpose, where needed to estimate obscure number of output variables, it is appropriate to apply factor analysis practice, in order to identify a number of measurable factors.

As a tool of modern multidimensional statistics, factor analysis is widely applied in various fields of research. It is also relevant to tourism and tourist destination, considered their complex systems. Factor analysis examines the internal structure of covariance and correlation matrix systems for signs a research object (Lawley & Maxwell, 1967). The results of measurements of all the relevant evidence (parameters) are presented in the form of multivariate random variables. During the study of complex systems, such as tourist destinations, considered as Multi-parameter objects, inevitably one question should be put forward: is it possible to remove some parameters, or can they be replaced by a smaller number of any functions thereof, while sustaining all the information about them, and the system? In fact, the interrelating the scenario and findings uncovering is possible true factor analysis approaches (Belonin et al., 1982; Kim et al., 1989).

METHODOLOGY

Theoretical formulation requires to be clarified that the factor analysis data should have a random character. It is recommended that for sufficient dimension sample handling of $n = 50$ and more, should be allied as the variables are quantitative or interval. It is better to have normal distribution. Observations should be independent and adequate conditions established by Bartlett test, KMO, etc.

For the purposes of the research, the study calculations were performed using SPSS while following a special algorithm (Fig. 1).

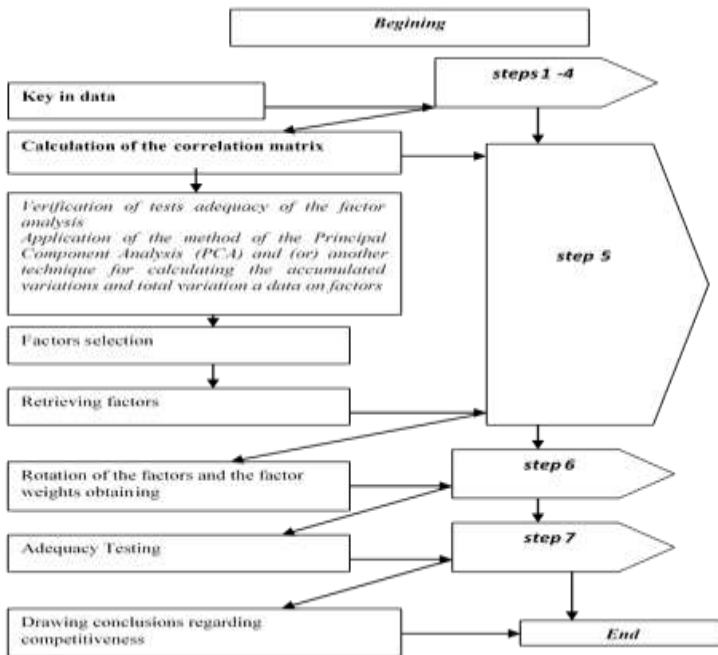


Figure 1 Algorithm for conducting factor analysis of the tourist destination, using SPSS
 * **Source:** Authors' suggestion.

Moreover, assuming that in studied tourism destination are selected N number of sets conditions (parameters destination (Stankova, 2011; Vasenska, 2015), each of them measuring K values of parameters and values obtained random multivariate ordinary distributed variables, as follows (Vasenska, 2015):

$$(1) X_t = (X_{1t}, X_{2t}, \dots, X_{kt}), \text{ where } t = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

These values of multivariate random variables are determined by some objective reasons, being ordinary referred to as factors. It is assumed that the number of these factors are always smaller than the number of measured parameters (attributes) of the studied object. These factors are hidden, they cannot be directly measured, and therefore, are represented as hypothetical. However, there are methods of detecting them, which constitute the essence of the factor analysis.

In this case, each group destination conditions have been define by set of characteristics.

Theory and practice disclose a number of methods for the factors retrieving, including the principal component analysis, least squares, alpha factoring, etc., for its purposes a specialized software has been developed. For rotation of the factors most frequently is applied the so called Varimax method, moreover other methods such as Quartimax, Equamax, as well as those in which the factors are inclined, for example the methods Oblimin, Promax, etc.

In the implementation of factor analysis in terms of tourist destination are used two approaches: Method of principal component analysis (component analysis) and Model of factor analysis correlated with own factor.

The empirical part of the study illustrates staging and examines competitiveness and its variations of tourist destination Bansko using factor analysis. For this purpose are defined six sets of conditions (parameters of competitiveness), to facilitate study destination competitiveness variations, according to the relationship between them and between number of local population and the number of tourists, for the period of ten years. To establish factor dependency, are set database of hypothetical parameters of competitiveness population and tourists.

RESULTS

Step 1: The data key in is automatically converted to standardized z-variables (with a standard deviation = 1).

Step 2: Using the visualization window of the factor analysis (FA), and moving the desired variables from left to right in Variables (**Step 3**) determines which variables are highly correlated with each other and they are statistically significant correlations (i.e. correlation coefficients should be at least > 0.3 and larger, with a corresponding coefficient of significance $\text{Sig.} < 0,05$) (**Step 4**). Calculating the correlation matrix (**Step 5**) and applying Varimax method (**Step 6**) are the results are set in rank.

It was establish coefficient of determination (r) > 0.7 , in this case - the connection is strong, respectively, when $r = 1$ it follows that the number of users has an impact on the parameters of competitiveness. In its increase, it appears a growing impact on the parameters of competitiveness and leading to their increase as values.

Conclusion of the correlation matrix (table. № 1): The matrix is symmetrical. The determinant is 0.012, it is not formally 0 and the factor analysis may be performed. Of importance are only correlations with values > 0.5 . Their respective levels of importance of the lower half of the table in this case, have significance level of $\text{Sig.} < 0.05$. This indicates that these correlations were statistically significant, and should be involved in the analysis. The rest are insignificant. In particular, for this sample the largest correlation coefficient between "parameter tourist infrastructure" and "parameter local potential" (0700), and is therefore significant.

Table 1. Display of Correlation Matrix

y1	1,000	,357	,01	,468	-,178	,700	,266
y2	,357	1,000	-,412	,027	,491	,102	-,120
	,014	-,412	1,000	-,076	-,149	,516	-,592
	,468	,027	-,076	1,000	-,076	-,026	,340
		,491	-,149	-,076	1,000	-,116	-,592
	,700	,102	,51	-,026	-,116	1,000	-,146
	,266	-,120	-,369	,340	-,592	-,146	1,000
		,156	,48	,086	,311	,012	,229
	,156		,11	,471	,075	,390	,370
	,485	,118		,417	,340	,064	,147
	,086	,471	,41		,414	,468	,168
	,311	,075	,34	,414		,376	,036
	,012	,390	,06	,468	,376		,343
	,229	,370	,14	,168	,036	,343	
			7				

Determinant - D_{12} , a is the factor loading, x_i is the load.

Step 7 is a test for adequacy a FA. In this case, $KMO = 0,647$ and is > 0.5 , therefore, the data is suitable for factor analysis and the model is adequate. Bartlett test has a significance level of $Sig. = 0.017 < 0.05$, which means that the data cloud spherical. The analysis of the distribution of variation between components, identifies three major factors that explain the total 81.327% of the whole sample. The fourth component will provide up to 92.998% in total.

The factor model indicates that the first factor is grouped by parameters .gamma.4, with weights x_1 0.658 and -0.843. Factor 2 grouped u_6 and S_3 and Factor 3 - v_5 and y_2 .

F1- y_4 , x_1 (parameter of the basic and additional services, number of users)

F2- y_3 , y_6 (parameter attractiveness, parameter for local potential)

F3 - y_2 , y_5 (parameter tourist superstructure, ecological parameter)

Summing up the empirical data, it was established that the key factors that determine the competitiveness of tourist destinations are namely infrastructure and accessibility; human capital; environmental sustainability.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be assumed that the factor analysis helps to determine the causal relationship of different characteristics of the studied tourist destination. It supports and solves various generic problems by identifying the key actors, the analysis of their structure and revealing analysis of the factor structure of the studied characteristics. Moreover, this method makes it possible to recreate a fac-

tor coordinated space the image of the studied subject - a tourist destination, and to determine its distinctive characteristics.

The application of factor analysis in competitiveness modelling has proven to be significant. The implementation showed that for the studied destination Bansko significant impact on the competitiveness parameters has the number of tourists. With the increase of visitors and increasing the burden on the parameters. At the same time, competitiveness is dependent on three factors groups: F1- y_4 , x_1 (parameter of the basic and additional services, number of tourists; F2- y_3 , y_6 (parameter attractiveness, parameter for local potential); F3 - y_2 , y_5 (parameter tourist superstructure, ecological parameter).

The results are made in the immediate environment of recent global trend which demonstrates that even increasing larger number of tourist are seeking after the most popular tourist destinations (Dimitrov et al., 2015). The later observation gives us the bases to accept this trend as a clear threat to the destination's sustainability and in a certain degree makes them vulnerable. A lack and scarcity of expertise in the management and modern methodological application tools are among the reasons for the weak development of not only traditional but also specialized in specific types of tourism destinations. Therefore, tourist destinations managing companies, representatives of national and local business organizations, investors and experts in tourism at national and local level should be familiar with the latest management trends. As well as systems for quality assurance and stability sustenance. Such preliminary preparation, secured by factor analysis could be the basis on which to model its competitiveness and increasing local, regional and national level.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The research and drawn findings are presented to the attention of tourism professionals from Bansko tourist destination in connection with the preparation of strategic documents, concerning the effectiveness of the solutions proposed for this famous mountain resort in Bulgaria.

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Seychelles Tourism Destination Brand Perceptions in Abu Dhabi

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INTRODUCTION

In recent history, Tourism has undergone continued growth and has become one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world (Han, Holland, & Kim, 2012). A notable characteristic of the Seychelles economy is its reliance upon tourism. The Seychelles, a nation that has slowly grown to becoming an attractive destination to travellers worldwide, is comprised of a widespread and isolated group islands. (Seychelles Tourism Board, 2014) It has a total area of 451 km² (Gossling & Schumacher, 2010) with a population of 87,000 people. (Burian, 2012). The tourism industry is a major source of the Seychelles' foreign exchange earnings, and contributes handsomely to gross domestic product (GDP), government revenues, and employment, where total contribution of the industry to GDP was 60%, with the global average at 14% in 2011 (Solarin & Lean, 2014) which makes the Seychelles unique as few countries in the world depend as heavily upon tourism as it does. (World Bank Group, 2012). Between January and May 2015, the Seychelles has welcomed 103,258 visitors, a 15% increase in comparison to the same duration in 2014, where the total was 89,580 visitors. (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015) A large factor influencing these numbers is that there is no visa requirements for entry to Seychelles, (Seychelles Tourism Board, 2007), especially that having a visa requirement is associated with a 70% reduction in inbound travel (Lawson & Roychoudhury, 2015). Visitors to the Seychelles predominantly come from 5 main markets, (Germany, France, Italy, Russia and the United Arab Emirates), the sum of which accounts for 50% of all arrivals in 2014 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015).

The Seychelles Tourism Board, a government led institution, drives marketing tourism in the Seychelles and promotes the gradual expansion and enhancement of existing tourism facilities, services and infrastructure (Seychelles Tourism Board, 2014). Destination branding can be defined as a way to communicate a destination's unique identity by differentiating a destination from its competitors

(Morrison & Anderson, 2002). The Seychelles Tourism board launched a new destination brand in 2006. The new branding included a new logo and slogan, where the logo is “representative of important Seychelles icons” (Seychelles Tourism Board, 2007), and the slogan was: *The Seychelles Islands, Another World*. In this study we focus on testing the prominent brand elements of the Seychelles tourism brand. As stated by Aaker (1996), “awareness levels can often be affected dramatically by cueing symbols and visual imagery.”

One of the main markets for Seychelles tourism is The United Arab Emirates, which accounts for 6% of arrivals increase to Seychelles in the 2014, with 13,845 visitors, a number that has increased to 21,178 visitors in 2015 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015). Another connection to note is that in 2012, Etihad Airways bought a 40% stake in Air Seychelles (AS) (World Bank Group, 2012). It is also relevant to highlight that Masdar, an Abu Dhabi government owned company, developed the first large-scale renewable energy project in the Seychelles, that is both owned and operated by the Seychelles government since 2013 (Masdar, 2016). This goes to show a growing mutually beneficial relationship between the nations is being developed. With this in mind, this study aims to investigate.

Abu Dhabi’s residents and visitor’s recognition and perceptions of the Seychelles tourism destination brand’s strength and personality, by using a detailed web-based questionnaire. Specifically to test the brand’s slogan recognition and the effect of travel frequency on brand recognition in Abu Dhabi.

METHODOLOGY

The present research specifically looks at a sample encompassing three distinct respondent groups: Emiratis living in Abu Dhabi, Expatriates living in Abu Dhabi, and International tourists in Abu Dhabi. The stratified sample was chosen to ensure a thorough analysis of the brand perception in Abu Dhabi is examined. Due to the nature of the research, I have opted for the online surveying tool (Survey Monkey) to help with creating a questionnaire. The advantages of using electronic surveys speedy distribution and response cycles, and that they offer a way to access specific populations (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003). The questionnaire will enable an easy way to test brand recall, recognition and consideration via 15 questions, inclusive of demographical data.

For data collection, two methods were used: Online Survey Link via Email and WhatsApp and specifically for tourists: a Link on an Electronic Tablet. The process started on 5 February 2016, and the survey was closed on 26 February 2016. One reminder was sent on the 21st of February, via email only. In order get data among international tourists, I visited the Qasr Al Hosn Festival on February 8th and 9th. A festival organized by the Abu Dhabi Tourism & Culture Authority, and is a great attraction for tourists and residents alike. More than 20 tourists were approached and asked if interested to participate, 10 tourists agreed to participate and were able to fill out the survey via the electronic tablet. Some tourists required additio-

nal explanation of the questions, while two tourists asked to only answer verbally while the researcher inputted the answers for them. Total collected valid responses were N=71, all data was analyzed through descriptive statistics, which is the most relevant analysis type for this study.

Two hypotheses have been developed:

Hypothesis 1: More than 50% of respondents will choose Maldives' slogan "The sunny side of life" as the slogan for Seychelles.

Hypothesis 2: Respondents who travel once a year or more will have higher recognition rates of Seychelles brand logo than respondents who travel less than once a year.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the sample

	%
Gender	
Female	59.70%
Male	40.30%
Missing	5.9%
Age	
18 – 24	33.8%
25-34	43.6%
35-44	12.68%
45-54	7.04%
55-60	2.82%
Stratum	
Emirati	60.56%
Expatriate	25.35%
Tourist	14.08%
Country of origin	
United Arab Emirates	59.70%
State of Palestine	5.97%
Jordan	4.48%

Canada	4.48%
Algeria	2.99%
Australia	2.99%
United States of America	2.99%
United Kingdom	1.49%
Sudan	1.49%
Seychelles	1.49%
Malaysia	1.49%
India	1.49%
Germany	1.49%
France	1.49%
Cyprus	1.49%
China	1.49%
Bahrain	1.49%
Egypt	1.49%
Missing	5.9%

RESULTS

For the total sample, I was able to find that Seychelles is a top of mind tourism brand for only 1.4% of the respondents, while 0% recalls the brand. However in terms of brand recognition, 40.8% recognize the brand while 59.1% are unaware of it. Respondents were also asked if they would consider Seychelles as their next holiday destination and 68% would consider it.

While testing the slogan of the Seychelles destination brand, the results have shown that 9.8% of respondents can recall the slogan of Seychelles tourism destination brand without any support while, 36.6% were able to recognize the slogan with support.

The results have shown that while testing slogan recognition with support, only 35% of respondents chose the Maldives' destination brand slogan "The sunny side of life" and thus hypothesis 1 is rejected (Figure1).

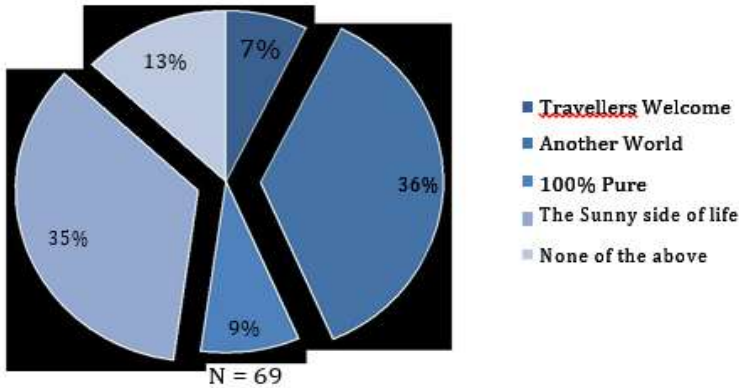


Figure 1: Slogan recognition

To test hypothesis 2, results from both question 6 in the questionnaire: “What does the above logo represent?” and questions 13 “On average, how often do you travel for leisure?” were used.

The recognition rate of the Seychelles Tourism brand in those who travel once a year or more is 42.6%, while the recognition rate of the brand in respondents who travel less than once a year is 50%. Therefore this hypothesis is accepted for this research’s sample, however because the sample is not representative this result cannot be generalized.

CONCLUSION

While the results of this sample are limited due to it encompassing only 71 respondents, it does offer some interesting insights. One of the main results found is that Seychelles is top of mind for a very low percentage of the sample at 1.4% only. While this may be due to a number of reasons, I do believe it is mainly because Seychelles marketing efforts are mostly concentrated on the European market rather than the Middle East. Also, specifically UAE. 40.8% of the sample was able to recognize the Seychelles tourism brand logo, which implies that the visual creating for Seychelles is a strong one that has achieved strong association to the destination. The familiarity may also be a result of the numerous investment ties the UAE has with Seychelles, and the MOU between Abu Dhabi’s main airlines Etihad and Air Seychelles, who use both their own logo and that of the destination brand in their marketing. Another result of note is that 68.0% of the sample responded that they would consider Seychelles as their next holiday destination, a high number considering the before mentioned low results on being Top of Mind.

The results indicate that the Seychelles brand’s slogan has higher recognition rates than initially thought, and indicate a strong correlation between higher tra-

vel frequency and Seychelles brand recognition. This finding would help inform the Seychelles Tourism Board's future strategies, and focus on advertising to frequent flyers and raising awareness with less frequent flyers. Although Archer and Fletcher recommended that Seychelles concentrate on increasing high spending European tourists in their research (Archer & Fletcher, 1996), I do believe the Seychelles needs to broaden their marketing efforts to include tourists from countries that are geographically closer. While tourists from African and Asian countries may spend less, they do make up for it in numbers and of course the frequency (Lewis-Cameron & Roberts, 2010).

In conclusion, with the findings from this study I do hope to see more research done on the topic. I would also recommend the next step to look at a comparison between the top 3 Island Destinations visited by UAE visitors, to further study differentiating factors and examine which marketing strategies are more successful than others. This research can also be shared with the Tourism and Culture Authority in Abu Dhabi to better inform the authority on the perceptions Emiratis have in the tourism sector. Especially that this is a population that has very limited research available about them.

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Evaluation of Foreign Tourists on Local Food Experiences

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INTRODUCTION

In the competitive Changing market, priority ranking of consumer needs is also changing. Consumers no longer just buy physical product, they buy a total experience with products and services. Even if the goods and services they buy meet their rational expectations, Consumers are not loyal consumers, in sense customers satisfaction does not correlate to customers' loyalty relationship. There are new quests on new concepts, new formulas and suggestions in theory with changing customer needs. Experiences are economic proposals which are effecting customers as personal, can create strong feelings, affecting the values of customers, advice and loyalty trends positively.

Surely the main way to offer customers a memorable experience, determination of certain factors and product features that affect the experience and advice of their customers and their loyalty is to better understand how that affects behaviour. However, it is still uncertain how to plan experience, how will it be applied and how to measure it in the strategic sense. Experiences forming factors, the number of studies investigating the effects on customer behaviour is extremely limited.

Along with changing human needs the tourists also have a structure to be integrated into the culture of the destinations they go to and want to see all the elements of the culture. Therefore, tourist destinations engage in the effort of diffe-

rentiation from other regions and remove local values to the fore in order to adapt to these changes in the tourism market. A tourist can come for a cultural experience of living in that region and may want to taste the different flavours and food in that area while benefiting from the local culture, history and natural resources such secondary reasons have quality of supporting its tourism activities. Besides, in recent years, elements such as the observance of tasting and reduction phases of dishes made with raw material produced in dishes made in the area or just an area has begun to take place among the main reasons for preferred area of tourist. That the food culture comes to the front is contributing to the alternative tourism activities created in the region and to the sustainability of resources. (Tsai, Song & Wong, 2009)

Eating is becoming the subject of increasing number of research for both its vital importance and the effects of socialization, it will become more possible to provide consumer satisfaction with the investigation of food experiences and understanding of the factors affecting the experiences. Local meals owned by a region have an important role in ensuring competitive advantage. A quality food and drink product in a region is being developed as a tourist experience and tourism product in that area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditional marketing process ignores the psychological impact on consumer decisions. As a result of these deficiencies, the need to support 4p (product, promotion, price and place)'s emerged, some academics working on service marketing have been added 3p (process, people, physical facility), but some of them haven't seen 7p enough have added 7c to them (Bojanic, 2007). The role of the senses and experience comes even more to the forefront particularly due to abstractness, the variability, the inseparability and not storable features of the tourism sector

Becoming consumer-focused instead of producer-focused of markets, the need to replace products forefront, emerged importance of relations instead of transactions, customers are began to be seen as emotional beings rather than rational economic consumers has led to services of the industry, the prominence of hedonic consumption and customer experience (Yang, Liu & Li, 2015). This new marketing flow focused on customers living good experience, focusing on the emotional and physical needs during the consumption process.

Tourist destinations must to offer their customers a positive experience that will be remembered for diversity and competition. Another factor that increases the significance of the experiences is the increase in the hedonic consumption trends. Hedonic consumption accepts that the behavior of customers also influenced by the senses of perception, dreams and feelings (Fettahlioğlu, Yıldız & Birin, 2014). Experience that are offered with products becoming the most important element of differentiation for brands. Now the quality of products and services

only is not enough, at the same time feeling and experience of clients has significant influence

With the simplest definition Experience is; the situation or acquired information that are affected by the way of participation and observation. Anthropological sense of the experiences very according to how to adapt events, passing them through cultural filtering. In this sense the personal experiences are a part of the experiences as well as social events experienced by others (Caru & Cova, 2003).

Travel-related Experiences are comprehensive event associated with holistic activities in tourism destination. Giving tourists a high quality and an unforgettable dining experience, is one of the main purposes of tourism operators. There are a number of factors that have impact on eating experience, although it may seem as an ordinary action by many people, occur in both in daily life and in a special moments like holidays (Wansink, 2006).

Eating experience is seen as whole of a process that has many physical and psychological interactions, until the phase of selecting, separation and preferring the food items. Accordingly eating experience includes the process that began before consumers heading the restaurant until leaving the environment. In particular, it is often emphasized in the literature that the environmental properties where the service is provided is important in terms of the assessment of the consumer can be made. The influence left over consumers by the environment where eating services are provided has specific features in assessing the eating experience (Rapoport, 1990).

Tourism diversification and strengthening of tourism can be achieved by using gastronomy tourism among Cultural tourism resources effectively. Destination country's food culture plays an important role in the choice of holiday destination (Quan & Wang, 2004: 303). Therefore, Turkish cuisine which is located in the world's three major cuisine (Çetin, 1993) has the potential to achieve this with its richness of with food and beverage. Catering services which constitutes an important place in the tourism industry is playing a major role in the promotion of culture on one hand and on the other hand it is located in the most profitable segments in tourism. The research is extremely important for the development of gastronomy tourism based on the opinion of foreign tourists to reveal their thoughts and to put forward their idea about Turkish cuisine and gastronomy tourism in Turkey and especially in Mardin.

Gastronomy tourism is a type of tourism that can contribute greatly to the potential economic and social development due to the location of food and beverage in tourism industry (Wolf, 2006, p.21).

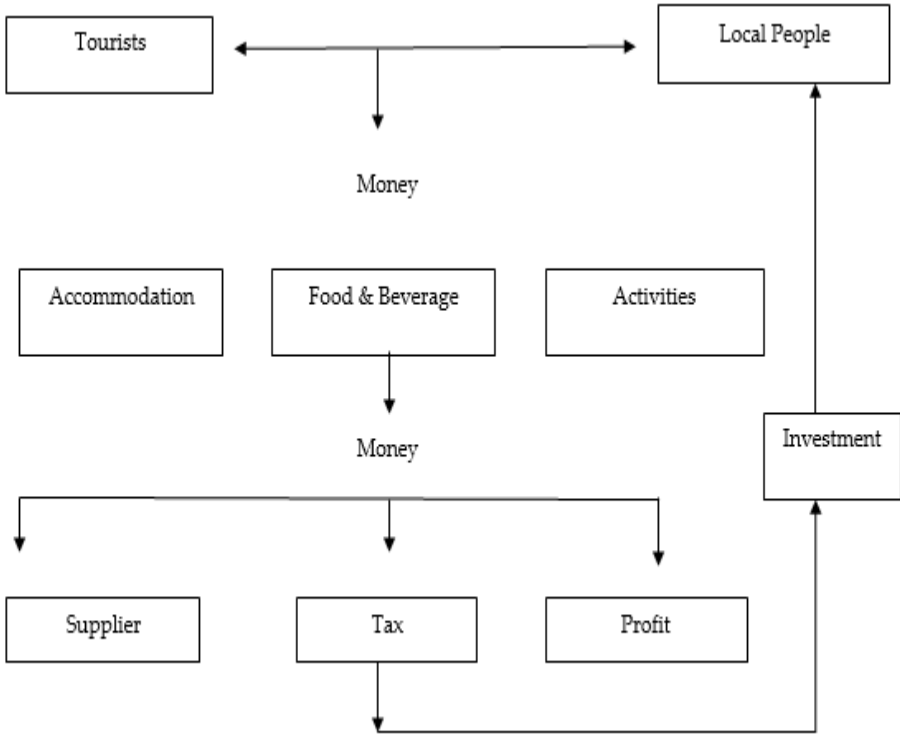


Figure 1: The Importance of Gastronomy and Its Effect

Foods of a region have a significant impact on the choice of the region and the actual experience of tourists coming there. Foods of a region are among the important attractiveness elements such as climate, accommodation and landscape. Sense of tasting and trying different foods may be the main motivating factor of the travel experience and can be seen as a secondary objective of the total experience as well. Some people travel to taste the flavors and of new kitchens (McKercher, Okumuş & Okumuş, 2008, pp.137- 138). Tourists consume not only video and audio, at the same time they also consume taste of an area. Food is a very important tool to penetrate into another culture; food gives the chance to know "the other" with his senses as his mind. Thus, local foods; while creating the most important part of the characteristics of a tourist area, they are also adding the charm and the diversity to experience that tourists will have in this region (Shenoy, 2005, p. 1).

Touristic experiences not only offer the opportunity to meet new cultures and new regions, but also created opportunities to perceive these regions with the new perspectives. This expansion of perception also naturally contributes to the deve-

lopment of the individual. From this perspective, food culture, is one of the most important ways of perceiving diversity. Gastronomy tourism leads to deeper and more extensive experience evaluating taste, smell, the sense of touch and vision while visiting of the region provide only the perception of the diversity from a certain angle (Wolf, 2006, p.1).

METHODOLOGY

This study made among the foreign tourists came to Mardin in the period of 15 April to 27 June 2015. In this study; The margin of error, and will return to a level of confidence or incomplete coding and so on, It will be the questionnaire with incomplete and incorrect data a degree will not be considered and also taking into consideration the possibilities the researchers to reach the target audience, sample threshold to ensure that represent the universe at a higher level (limit) value which reached 395 tourists on the basis on the number 384. Scales generated with the collection of data subjects in the light of research in the relevant field previously carried out (Akman, 1998; Shenoy, 2005), are developed with expert opinion and used properly with the purpose of the study. In the reliability analysis, each variable alpha coefficient was analyzed. Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the dimensions of the data collection tool for tourists were 0.873. These results indicate that data collection tool used in research can be reliably at high degree.

RESULTS

The demographic characteristics of the individuals who participated in the survey; have been learned through questions related to gender, age, marital status, education and income. Subjects participating in the study consist of 58% male and 42% of female constituting 32% of the participated in the study 127 people are in the range 26-35 years. Thus it can be said that the majority of tourists participating in the study consist of individuals included in the group of the 26-35 age 66% of those participated in the study were married, 34% seems to be single 178 people, with 45% of those participated in the study seem to have a bachelor's degree. Based on these results, it can be said that the educational level of those participated in the study in high. The participants examined with the number of people according to the distribution of income, it is seen that highest number with the 280 people is in the range of the income gap 4001-6000 TL per month.

It shows that foreign tourists visiting Mardin have acquired the knowledge about the cuisine of the Mardin by telling people (52.1%) who already tasted the most according to the data. Moreover, it has also been found to that they learned about Turkish cuisine through the mass media of tourists (23.7%), books and brochures (11.3%), restaurants in the country of residence (6.7%) and travel agencies (6.2%).

In the assessment of foreign tourists to visit Mardin again, it has been found that foreign tourists at a very high rate of (78.4%) wanted to visit Turkey again. In

the open-ended questions in the survey related to the reason for not visiting Turkey of tourists who don't want to come back to Turkey mostly related security problems in the region and confusion in the area was denoted.

General satisfaction regarding the travel of foreign tourists was measured with a five point likert scale (I definitely do not agree, I do not agree, Neither I agree nor I do not, I agree, I definitely agree) and In accordance with obtained data, "I'm satisfied" option was found to be the highest rate (53% 8) option.

Tourists have replied Mardin cuisine according to their first experience in both; country of residence and Mardin. From the obtain data it is found that the place that the company has the highest rate (43.4%) is where they stay in where foreign tourists taste the food for the first time in Mardin. It was determined that Majority of tourists (63.1%) met Mardin cuisine in the country they live in had this experience in the restaurant in their country. Based on this finding, it is an important finding for the development of Mardin gastronomy tourism that foreign tourists wonder Mardin kitchen also before visiting Mardin and efforts for experiencing Mardin foods in their country of residence.

Examining foreign tourists' experiences related to their choice of food during their stay in Mardin, it was found that the majority of foreign tourists preferred only the restaurants serving local foods (82.4%) and experience local drinks (63.9%). In addition, it is seen that tourists buy food and food items for Mardin while returning their homes. Foreign tourists have bought, local food (23.9%), local food at roadside stands (21.5%), Mardin local utensils (10.9%), Mardin, the cookbook contains local recipes (5.1%) on the way home. In addition, a majority of foreign tourists (4.8%) have visited the place of wine-making areas.

Admiration level of foreign tourist for local foods during their stay in Mardin was measured with five-point Likert scale (I definitely do not like, I do not like, Neither I like nor I do not, I like, I definitely like), in terms of flavour, fat / sugar content, appearance, portions, variety, nutritional value, quality, general hygiene status. It was determined that the delights of local cuisine ($\bar{X} = 4,12$) and behind the appearance of meal ($\bar{X} = 4,09$) was the average of the highest expressions from the obtained data. Accordingly, we can say that foreign tourists mostly like the flavours and appearance of the local food while they were in Mardin. The relationship between Independent variables, dependent variables with local food and social interaction elements (coming again and recommend behaviour) was examined. When analyzing this data, it was found that many of size is in 99 % confidence interval to come back and has a positive relationship with recommended behaviour.

CONCLUSION

Gastronomy tourism which quickly began to take place in tourism activities is a kind of tourism to which the countries have started to give importance due to its type of tourism to educated tourists or tourist with high level of income. The qua-

lity food and beverage services is an important factor in the choice of holiday for tourist although it is taught that food & beverage services is not considered as primary reason in the choice of destination.

This study aims evaluate the local food and beverage experience of foreign tourists coming to Mardin. Gastronomy tourism supports regional development by providing not only economic, establishing the relationship between food culture and tourism in a healthy way also contributes to the strengthening of local identity and culture.

The first reason for visiting Mardin for the tourists participated in the study is historic and natural beauty and secondly, tasting the food of local cuisine. These two reasons effective in choosing Mardin are related to each other and are important reasons for the strengthening of tourism and gastronomy. Gastronomy tourism is important to take ownership of the socio-cultural heritage, encourage and to pass on protection of historical and cultural heritage to future generations. Accordingly, it is seen that foreign tourists constitute the study's sample have visited Mardin as being aware of the basic point of gastronomy tourism. In addition to this information, it is determined that in case of revisiting Mardin, foreign tourists will choose Mardin again because of these two main reasons. It can be said that this finding is an important result for the development of gastronomy tourism in Turkey.

The majority of survey participants (82.4%) opted restaurants serving local food and tasted local drinks of Turkey (63.9%). Depending on these findings, it can be said that foreign tourists visiting Mardin are curious about local food and drink of the Mardin. However, it was concluded that foreign tourists much appreciate the appearance and taste of food likely than other properties the taste of, fat / sugar content, appearance, portions, variety, nutritional value, quality, assessment Turkish food in terms of general hygiene. The feature with the lowest average appreciation of the properties of the local food ($x = 3.52$) is the amount of fat and sugar in food fat is of great importance in local food (Arlı, 1982, pp. 31-32). Therefore, Mardin cuisine, even if this feature cannot be changed, balancing the amount of fat and sugar will be a positive impact on the satisfaction for foreign tourists towards local cuisine.

Age groups grouped as under 35 years old and over 35 years old and compared, it was determined that under 35 years ($x = 4.13$), liked local food and cuisine more than the group over 35 years ($x = 3.72$). It can be said that foreign tourists over 35 years old have more eating experiences and like hard comparing with under 35 years old. In addition, it can be said that tourists above 35 age group are more selective about food with health concerns because of fat and sugar in Mardin cuisine they brought to the fore as a problem. On the other hand, it can be put forward that being delicious and being reasonably priced Turkish-style fast-food items (returns, meatballs, pizza like), (Tayfun ve Tokmak, 2007: 175) are effective in appreciation of local cuisine by foreign tourist under the age of 35.

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A Structural Relationship between Driving Satisfaction and Overall Tourist Satisfaction

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INTRODUCTION

According to a recent World Bank report, as of 2011, Malaysia had the highest level of car ownership in Southeast Asia, with 341 cars per 1000 people. The same report also showed that there are, on average, about 70 vehicles per kilometer of road (World Bank, 2015). Furthermore, reports from national planning agencies consistently show the necessity of private car usage in daily activities throughout Malaysia (JPBD, 2010). Despite previous evidence of private car usage in national planning, the Iskandar Regional Development Authority (IRDA) reported that Malaysian local tourists depend on the use of private cars (70%), a finding consistent with a study carried out by Denstadli & Jacobsen (2011), which stressed that the use of a private car for holiday travel is a common choice. This study also showed that the reasons for utilizing a private car related not only to individual freedom from the constraints of timetables, and expanded geographical access, but also to the aesthetic elements of the journey itself.

Since car usage is common for travel of all purposes in Malaysia, driving satisfaction is expected to have a significant influence on overall tourist satisfaction. A number of previous tourism studies have confirmed that various destination elements, including accommodation, food and restaurants, attractions, weather, natural environment, transportation, and shopping facilities, among others, affect a tourist's overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Chi & Qu, 2008; Kozak, 2002; Kozak, 2001; and Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). However, most of these studies ignored tourist satisfaction with travel experiences when evaluating overall satisfaction.

Therefore the aim of this study was to incorporate and examine driving satisfaction, both on the highway and on roads at destinations, in evaluations of overall tourist satisfaction. This paper contributes to our understanding of overall tourist satisfaction by providing insights into how drivers with different driving preferences and attitudes towards cars are likely to vary with regard to highway and destination driving experiences, and how these differences will affect tourist activities and levels of overall satisfaction. The findings of this study will help not only to increase overall tourist satisfaction in getting to and from tourist destinations but will also suggest guidelines for suitable policies and tourism development plans relating to road infrastructure design, traffic operation, and scenery along routes to tourist destinations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A great deal of useful research on overall tourist driving satisfaction has been completed by Ettema *et al.*, (2013); Denstadli & Jacobsen, (2011); and Hardy, (2003). These studies primarily focused on the topic of scenic tourist routes. Denstadli & Jacobsen (2011) found that self-driving tourists' satisfaction with scenic routes is highly influenced by the driving motivation factors and the provision of roadside facilities. This finding is consistent with Hardy (2003) and Ettema *et al.*, (2013) which revealed that, in the context of tourist routes, relevant tourist route developments and higher quality driving experiences are likely to increase self-driving tourists' satisfaction. Similarly, these studies also showed that roadside facilities and experiences have significant positive effects on destination loyalty, revisit intention, and new tourist attraction.

These studies successfully showed the relationship between road conditions and overall driver satisfaction, especially on scenic routes. However, these studies neglected the effects of driving satisfaction on tourist activities at the tourist destination, as well as the effects on overall tourist satisfaction. Moreover, too few destination characteristics have incorporated when evaluating tourists' overall satisfaction in aforementioned studies. Since the effect of driving satisfaction and its influence on overall tourist satisfaction remains unexplored, this study proposes to test the following hypotheses in examining overall tourist satisfaction:

- H₁: At the tourist destination, driving satisfaction factors have significant effects on overall destination driving satisfaction
- H₂: Access and egress highway driving satisfaction factors have significant effects on overall access and egress highway driving satisfaction
- H₃: Overall access and egress highway driving satisfaction has significant effects on tourism activity satisfaction
- H₄: Overall destination driving satisfaction has a significant effect on tourist activity satisfaction
- H₅: Tourist activity satisfaction has a significant effect on overall tourist satisfaction

- H₆: Overall, destination driving satisfaction has a significant effect on overall tourist satisfaction
- H₇: Overall, access and egress highway driving satisfaction has significant effects on overall tourist satisfaction

METHODOLOGY

A quantitative method was employed to evaluate overall tourist satisfaction. A questionnaire interview was conducted among self-driving visitors who stopped at the Desaru public beach area in August 2015. The questionnaire consisted of four major sections, with four-point satisfaction scales. Section one was introduced to understand the driver's attitude towards the car (in general) and their driving preferences. The second section measured levels of tourist satisfaction with various roadway facilities on access and egress highways and with the destination road segments, followed by section three, which measured tourist activity satisfaction. Multiple-choice questions established the respondent's demographic characteristics in section four. Four hundred respondents participated in this study.

A SEM-path model was used to evaluate the hypotheses, as stated in the literature review section. In addition, the differences among groups of drivers were also checked using SEM-path models.

RESULTS

The hypothesized model was assessed with the structural equation model, and exhibited a good fit; based on the chi-squared statistics = 266.602, with 119 degrees of freedom, it displayed a statistically significant level of 0.0, and had RMSEA= 0.60, CFI= 0.93, TLI = 0.91, and NFI = 0.88. The hypotheses results for the SEM-path model provide evidence that driving satisfaction does not have a significant effect on overall satisfaction in the case of Desaru (Table 1). However, these data indicate that overall highway driving satisfaction has an effect on tourist activity satisfaction.

The relationship between the SEM-path model and a group of drivers was then examined based on their attitudes towards cars and their driving preferences. Table 2 summarizes the result of the z-statistic breakdown between drivers with positive feelings about driving and drivers with negative feelings about driving, relating each to the SEM-path model. The result of this investigation shows that these drivers differ significantly in their satisfaction in each model path. However, it is interesting to note that both groups of drivers have the same satisfaction level, regardless of their attitudes towards cars and their driving preferences, regarding road safety features in access and egress highways (H-H4 path), even drivers who believe that driving cars carries some risk to their lives.

Table 1: The results of hypothesis testing for the respected paths

Hypothesis statement of path analysis	Estimate	P-value	Result & Decision
<i>H₁</i> : At the destination, driving satisfaction factors have significant effects on overall driving satisfaction at the destination	0.619	0.001	Significant & supported
<i>H₂</i> : Access and egress highway driving satisfaction factors have significant effects on overall access and egress highway driving satisfaction	0.680	0.001	Significant & supported
<i>H₃</i> : Overall access and egress highway driving satisfaction has significant effects on tourism activities satisfaction	0.155	0.008	Significant & supported
<i>H₄</i> : Overall driving satisfaction at the destination has significant effects on tourism activities satisfaction	0.112	0.052	Not significant
<i>H₅</i> : Tourism activities satisfaction has significant effects on overall tourist satisfaction	0.335	0.001	Significant & supported
<i>H₆</i> : Overall driving satisfaction at the destination has significant effects on overall tourist satisfaction	0.096	0.065	Not significant
<i>H₇</i> : Overall access and egress highway driving satisfaction has significant effects on overall tourist satisfaction	-0.085	0.105	Not significant

CONCLUSION

Table 2: Relationship between SEM path model and driving behaviors

	SEM Path																	
	D	H	H	D	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	H	H	D	D	T	D	H
	O	O	O	O	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Attitudes towards car		↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
	D	H	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	H	H	D	D	O	O	O
	O	O	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	4	5	6	7	V	V	V
	S	S			3	4	5	6	7	8	9					S	S	S
Driving a car is important in my life	√				√	√			√	√	√				√			
Driving a car means independence			√												√		√	√
I can afford the responsibility of owning a car						√			√	√	√		√					√
I feel lost without a car	√			√	√				√	√	√			√		√		
Driving a car carries some risk to my life																		
Driving a car is a part of growing up		√							√	√	√			√	√	√		√
Driving a car is bad for the environment				√	√	√					√		√					
Driving a car with green energy is important	√		√			√			√	√					√			√
Driving preferences																		
I have fun talking with other passengers	√																	√
I enjoy listening to music, news, or talk shows on the radio				√	√	√	√		√	√	√			√	√			
I feel adventurous	√	√		√					√	√	√			√	√	√		
I seek excitement in driving	√			√	√				√	√	√			√				
I always seek the fastest route to the destination				√	√		√											

Legend: D-Destination, DOS-Destination overall satisfaction, H-Highway, HOS-Highway overall satisfaction, TA-

This paper presented results on the effects of driving satisfaction on access and egress highways and at destination road segments on overall tourist satisfaction. From this investigation, it can be concluded that overall tourist satisfaction in Desaru was not determined by driving satisfaction. However, this study has found one significant finding: driving in access and egress highway road segments has effects on tourist activity satisfaction. Moreover, road safety design and safety features obviously have an important influence on tourist satisfaction. The current findings add to a growing body of literature aimed at understanding overall tourist satisfaction from driving and tourist activities. In future studies, the relationship between driving satisfaction on highways with different levels of service and for different distances should be investigated further for various tourism destinations from various perspectives, such as tourism policies, tourism marketing, and transportation planning.

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An Examination of Tourists' Destination Loyalty: A Case Study of International Tourists in Bangkok, Thailand

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INTRODUCTION

Tourists' destination loyalty is one of the most important tourism topics frequently investigated by researchers. This is because tourists' destination loyalty is linked to the success of tourism destinations (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). It is important to understand tourists' destination loyalty in order to develop marketing strategies to secure a long term success. Conditions of competitive in tourism or any business are changing rapidly and tourism business needs to react to the changes promptly and quickly (Brosekhan, Velayutham & Phil, 2006). The high rate of tourists' destination loyalty means the high rate of revisiting the same tourist destination. In other words, it can be said that frequent travels to Thai tourist destinations is a good sign of Thai tourists' destination loyalty. The entering of ASEAN Economic Community also means both opportunity and problem for Thai tourism. The opportunity includes a big market and the problem includes a highly competitive tourism industry for all ASEAN nations. In order for Thailand to remain competitive, it is vital for the Thai tourism to understand tourists' destination loyalty. Many tourism researcher and scholars in the past often pointed out that high customers' satisfaction was the major factor that led to customers' loyalty (Kotler, 2003). An increasingly rate of tourists' destination loyalty from satisfied tourists can offer many benefits such as a sustainable demand of both domestic and international tourists to revisit the same tourist destination, a positive image created by word of mouths from many satisfied tourists, and a steady tourists' revenue from revisiting of tourists (Wongleedee, 2013). In other words, a high tourists' satisfaction level from the past trip can be the key to revisit a particular destination. Also, Chen (1998) studied about the tourists' decision making process and reported that past trip experiences, whether it was good or bad, often directly and indirectly influenced the future decision of tourists either to revisit or not to revisit the same destination. In fact, there is limited research about the topic of tou-

rists' destination loyalty in Bangkok, Thailand, this study was aimed to examine the tourists' destination loyalty from the perspective of international tourists who were visiting Bangkok, Thailand during the first quarter of year 2015.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The premise of tourists' destination loyalty in this study was based on the idea of business loyalty theory of Philip Kotler (2000) the guru of marketing who explained that loyalty was a positive feedback, willing to repurchase, and willing to recommend the product or service to others. Tylor (1998) coined the loyalty of customers as a likelihood to purchase the goods and services again and there was an overall satisfaction in the previous purchasing the goods and services. Chen and Gursoy (2001) explained that tourists' destination loyalty should be measured by three different factors: a continuation to revisit the same tourist destination, an intention to revisit more of the same tourist destination, and a willingness to recommend others to visit the particular tourist destination. Yoon and Uysal (2005) stated that travel destination loyalty was happened when the destination could be resold to the same tourists and with a recommendation to friends and family who were potential tourists. Many researchers believed that there were a connection among satisfaction, loyalty, and profit (Pine, et al, 1995). This is because loyal customers can reduce many costs such as marketing costs, service costs, and recruiting cost as well as to gain from current customers and a word of mouth recommended new customers (Oppermann, 2005). Some researchers offered an idea that there were three techniques to elicit destination loyalty information from international tourists which were interviewing with tourists directly, using questionnaires with target international tourists, and observing international tourists on sites (Bowen, 2001). Rauyruen, Miller, and Barret (2007) explained that there were two areas of research in customer loyalty which were behaviour loyalty and attitude loyalty. While the behavior loyalty emphasized on the pattern or repeating of buying, the attitude loyalty emphasized on the willingness to positively recommend the goods and services to others. For the concept of destination loyalty, many researchers have argued that intent to revisit the same tourist destination alone should be sufficient as an indicator of destination loyalty while other researchers pointed out that the positive recommendation to other tourists is also an important indicator of loyalty.

METHODOLOGY

This was a quantitative research method to examine international tourists' destination loyalty during their visiting in Bangkok, Thailand during January to March, 2015 and to study their tendency to revisit Bangkok in the near future. An English Likert-five-scale questionnaire was designed specifically to examine international tourists' destination loyalty from the perspectives as well as experience during their visiting Bangkok, Thailand and to evaluate their level of interest in revisiting tourist destinations of Thailand in the near future. There were three parts of the

questionnaire: demographic question part, destination loyalty question part, and comment part. The population included all international tourists visiting Bangkok, Thailand during the first quarter of 2015. The probability sampling technique was performed to obtain a sample group that included 400 international passengers from the departure lounge of Don Muang international airport. Taro Yamane Sampling Technique was utilized to obtain a proper sample group. Descriptive statistics utilized in this research including percentage, mean, and standard deviation. In addition, 30 pilot questionnaires were performed for the reliability test. In other words, each question must pass the Cronbach Alpha criteria with at least 0.7. In addition, the validity of the questions in each part was evaluated by using IOC technique with three experts. The experts were researchers in the area of Tourism and Hospitality. Two out of three experts had to agree with the questions for the question to be valid.

RESULTS

Table 1. Tourist Destination Loyalty Indicators

	Mean	S.D.	Rank
Indicators			
-To plan to revisit Thailand in the next year	4.10	0.996	5
-To recommend friends and family to visit Thailand	4.47	0.904	1
-To revisit with friends and family in the future	4.23	0.771	4
-To say positive things about Thai tourism	4.42	0.659	2
-To search for more information about Thai tourism	4.31	0.897	3
Overall	4.30	0.845	

The findings from TABLE I revealed five different levels of importance from the perspectives and the experience of international tourists as follows: 1) the respondents rated the ability to recommend friends and family to visit Thailand as the number one indicator of loyalty with a mean of 4.47 and 0.904 SD. 2) the respondents rated the ability to say positive things about Thai tourism as the number two indicator of loyalty with a mean of 4.42 and 0.659 SD. 3) the respondents rated the ability to search for more information about Thai tourism as the number three indicator of loyalty with a mean of 4.31 and 0.897 SD. 4) the respondents rated the ability to revisit with friends and family in the future as the number four indicator of loyalty with a mean of 4.23 and 0.771 SD. 5) the respondents rated the ability to plan to revisit Thailand in the next year as the number five indicator of loyalty with a mean of 4.10 and 0.996 SD. The overall mean was 4.30 with 0.845 SD.

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the majority of majority of international tourists in Bangkok had only a high level of loyalty since the overall mean was higher than 4.25. When examined in detail, the destination loyalty indicators can be ranked according to the mean average from high to low as follow: to recommend friends and family to visit Thailand, to say positive things about Thai tourism, to plan to revisit Thailand in the next year, to refer the Thai Tourism information to others, and to search for more information about Thai tourism. From these findings, it was found that the attitude loyalty was more important than the behaviour loyalty since the first indicator to the third indicator were attitude loyalty and the fourth and the fifth indicator were behavior indicators. In addition, the findings revealed that the major obstacles that often prevented international tourists from revisiting Thailand in the future were cheaper prices offered by other ASEAN nations, local traffic congestions, high crime rates, and political instability and exchange rate instability.

CONCLUSION

One of the implications from the findings was about the vitality of attitude and behaviour loyalty. The majority of respondents rated attitude loyalty more important than behaviour loyalty. Both attitude and behaviour are equally important and should balance on the indicators. The research findings showed that there were some setbacks or negative factors that prevent international tourists to revisit Bangkok. In other words, the tourists' destination loyalty had both positive factors and negative factors that need to pay heed. Moreover, future studies should use more in-depth interviews to find the reasons behind their decision making to revisit Bangkok, Thailand.

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Leisure Involvement and Continuous Competitive Sport Events Participation by Older Adults

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INTRODUCTION

Although the majority of older adults have a healthy life, aging is highly linked with both physical and psychological function declination (Berg, 1996). However, healthy aging can be reached by high levels of physical fitness through participating in leisure-time physical activity (LTPA) (Finucane et al., 1997; Pescatello & DiPietro, 1993; Strawbridge et al., 1996). Although LTPA is important for all generations, it is mostly targeted towards youth and adults. As a type of LTPA, especially sport activity, the aging population is often overlooked as older adults are normally portrayed as weak and inactive. However, as one of the important factors for healthy aging, LPTA and sport activity can play an important role for older adults, helping them be more active and lead a healthy life with improved cognitive function and less depression (Adams, Leibbrandt, & Moon, 2011; DiPietro, 2001; Popa, Reynolds, & Small, 2009). More importantly, sport activity reduces the risk of mortality in older adults and highly involved sport activity plays an important role in other benefits such as building positive social relationships and better health conditions (Gulsvik, Thelle, Samuelsen, Myrstad, Mowé, & Wyller, 2012; Po-Ju Chang, Wray, & Yeqiang, 2014). In addition, deeply involved sport activity participation has both psychological and physiological benefits (Lee & Lin, 2011). According to Penedo & Dahn (2005), participants who regularly participated in sport activity showed more desirable health outcomes such as better quality of life, enhanced physical function and improved psychological states of mood. Therefore,

the more one is involved in sport activity, the more tendencies one has to engage in sport activity and other activity-related behaviors such as spending more money on sport activity related items and participating in sport events (McGehee, Yoon, & Cárdenas, 2003). As many older adults have more disposable income and available time, their participation in sport events has also increased. Since competitive sport events can facilitate participation in sport activities more frequently and intensely, older adults can continue their sport activity through sport event participation while participants prepare for the games (Adams et al., 2011, Bauman, Murphy, & Lane, 2009; Murphy & Bauman, 2007). Therefore, sport events can play an intervention role in enhancing sport activity (Marcus, Selby, Niaura, & Rossi, 1992). Numerous studies suggest that level of leisure involvement is positively linked to increased activity and equipment knowledge, frequency of participation, intensity of participation, duration of participation, and opinion leadership (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999), but little leisure involvement research has been conducted in sport activity contexts for older adults. Therefore, in this context, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between leisure involvement (i.e., attraction, centrality, self-expression) and intention to continuous sport event participation. Therefore, the research hypotheses are

- H1: Attraction will have a positive influence on the intention of older adults to continuous sport events participation.
- H2: Centrality will have a positive influence on the intention of older adults to continuous sport events participation.
- H3: Self-expression will have a positive influence on the intention of older adults to continuous sport events participation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) defined leisure involvement as an “unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product, evoked by a particular stimulus or situation, and which has drive properties” (p. 246). Involvement has become an important concept to understand individual leisure behavior and interaction with social aspects (Roberts & Kundrat, 1978). Involvement is highly associated with understanding the motivation and attitude toward activities. Individuals may have higher leisure involvement with continuous activity participation. In a leisure setting, involvement is mostly categorized into three factors (attraction, centrality, and self-expression) and is showed as a reliable measurement (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). Although these three factors are under the construct of leisure involvement, each factor has its own distinct aspects within leisure involvement. First, attraction is a comparatively palpable factor which shows importance and pleasure to the individuals. When an individual experience enjoyment and consider activities as more important, that individual might have more chances to continue leisure activity. Second, the centrality factor is an individuals’ perception

about the activity and how much it is valued and centered in their life. Third, the self-expression factor is related with symbolic meaning which represents self-representation. Through a meaningful activity, individuals recognize him/her-self as they are. This self-expression can be both an internal and external expression.

METHODOLOGY

Participants were recruited from 2015 National Senior Games (NSG). As a mega multi-sports event which is designed only for older adults, NSG plays an important role as a good health promotional event for older adults' sport activity. A cross sectional study was conducted. A total of 307 surveys were implemented for data analysis. The survey questionnaire was used in the study and the independent variable, in this study was leisure involvement, which was measured using the 9-items. Measurement items were adapted from previous research (Cheng & Tsaur, 2012; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007). Items were modified to make them applicable to a sport context. Each variable has 3-items and examples of questions used include: attraction (e.g., The NSG is one of the activities that I feel most interested in); centrality (e.g., I find that my life is intricately connected to the NSG); self-expression (e.g., When engaged in the NSG, I can fully express myself). Responses to these survey items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from "not at all" to "very much." The scale showed high levels of internal consistency and validity, the overall alpha score was .903 and alphas on the each subscale showed with good reliability ranging from .812 to .891. The survey instrument also included dependant variable with intention to continuous sport event participation. Example of questions used include: intention continuous sport event (e.g., I will keep participating in the NSG). Responses to these survey items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from "not at all" to "very much." Descriptive statistics revealed the demographic and characteristic of participation and multiple regression was conducted to predict the intention to continuous sport event participation based on leisure involvement. Statistical analyses were performed by SPSS 23.0.

RESULTS

The descriptive analysis of the sample showed that male (47.2%) and female (52.8%) consisted similar portion in this study. Participant's age varied from fifty's to ninty's with mean age of 66 years old. Retired from work (40%) were less than employed or part time (60%). More than ninety percent of participants were Caucasian and about ninety participants possessed college degree. Regarding NSG participation, fourteen percent were first time, twenty seven percent were second times, and about sixty percent were more than third times.

A multiple linear regression was calculated to predict intention to continuous sport event participation based on leisure involvement factors (attraction, centrality, self-expression). A significant regression equation was found ($F(3,303) = 30.470, p < .001$) and accounted for 23.2% of the variance in intention to continu-

ous sport event participation. Although the analysis shows that centrality factor did not significantly predict intention to continuous sport event participation, both attraction ($\beta = .205$, S.E. = .068, $p < .05$) and self-expression ($\beta = .392$, S.E. = .067, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of intention to continuous sport event participation. Therefore regression equation is: Intention to continuous sport event participation = 2.141 + .227 (attraction) - .044 (centrality) + .367 (self-expression). The variable of self-expression, as indexed by its β value of .39, was shown to have the strongest relationship to intention to continuous sport event participation.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed the relationships among leisure involvement (i.e., attraction, centrality, self-expression) and intention to continuous sport event participation by NSG participants. As shown from the results, more than 60 percent participated in NSG more than 3 times. This showed that older adults want to continuously participate in sports activities. Although this research has several limitations such as a skew in the sample towards Caucasians, our findings had meaningful results. In this research, attraction and self-expression had statistically positive effects on intention to continuous sport events participation. Especially, self-expression showed the highest positive impact on intention to continuous sport events participation. As self-expression is connected to self-representation, older adults who are proud of themselves through sport event participation have shown higher intention to continuous sport events participation. In addition, as attraction is highly associated with importance and pleasure to the activity, when older adults consider sports event more meaningful and enjoyable they might participate in sport events continuously.

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A Critical Review of Religious, Islamic and Halal Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Religion is one of the main components of culture, has tie relationship with human behaviors and is considered as one of the important elements having influenced human history. Many daily life behaviors such as clothing styles, eating habits, use of cosmetic products, socio-political perspectives, music tastes, consumption patterns and sexuality can be affected by religious beliefs of individuals and communities (Fam, Waller & Erdogan, 2004; Eichhorn, 2011). Religion concept has become one of the most examined subjects in tourism field as well as many other fields examining human behaviors. Starting with religions' be included in human-kind history, this association between belief and tourism is mostly examined through concepts such as Religious Tourism, Islamic Tourism and Halal Tourism. However, use of different words for religion-related tourism activities in literature causes ambiguity. Therefore, information as to origin of these words and their differences was re-examined from a different perspective and critical points of these three tourism types was tried to be revealed in the current study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term of 'religion' has always been a matter of discussion in tourism literature (Din, 1989; Cohen 1992, 1998; Fleischer, 2000). As the existing studies in literature are analyzed, it is observed religious vacations are generally examined in two

different forms as “old” and “new”. In the old form, religious vacations are defined as one of the non-economical trip types and reflected as praying or spiritual healing efforts (pilgrimage) of individuals. On the other hand, in the “new form”, religion has become an economical tool used in marketing activities. In other words, “modern religious vacations” displaced totally religion-based trips and have started to refer independent and authentic trips rather than those (trips to churches, mosques etc) bound to religious institutions and authorities (Nolan & Nolan, 1992; Jackowski & Smith, 1992). Similarly, tourism activities that are considered to be organized in parallel with religious beliefs have started to be examined under different titles and Religious Tourism, Islamic Tourism and Halal Tourism are the leading of these concepts.

Religious Tourism is defined as trips that individuals join so as to fulfill their religious rituals, visit religious attraction places and join religious activities and conferences organized outside of where they permanently stay (Rinschede, 1992). In other words, Religious Tourism contains visiting other religious places in addition to the places where only religious tasks are fulfilled and attendance to conferences where religious issues are discussed (Stausberg, 2011). The main action examined in many studies carried out on Religious Tourism is Pilgrimage. Including the term of ‘Pilgrimage’ in many religious systems such as Islam, Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Shintoism (Collins-Kreiner & Kliot, 2000; Sharpley & Sundaram, 2005) has increased the importance of Pilgrimage in Religious Tourism literature and led the term be touched upon in various academic studies.

The main emergence reasons of Islamic and Halal Tourism are population density of target Muslim community and increase in purchasing power. According to the estimates of Pew Research Center (2011), Muslim population will comprise approximately 26.4% of total world population by 2030. It is also expected that purchasing power and mobility of Muslims continue to increase (Stephenson, Russell & Edgar, 2010; Sandikci, 2011). Therefore, present and possible Muslim tourist population is reflected as one of the most significant consumer groups in terms of size and prevalence. As a matter of fact, according to the reports of Global Muslim Lifestyle Travel Market in 2012 and Mastercard & Crescent Rating’s Global Muslim Travel Index in 2015, global market size of Islamic tourism was about 108 million people in 2014. However, expenditures of this group in touristic trips reached \$145 billion at the same year. Within this context, it is quite possible that service providers who aim at attracting target consumer group organize their marketing activities in accordance with interests of Muslims. Therefore, use of Religious and Halal Tourism concepts referring expectations of Muslim tourist group and strategies of companies providing service to this group is increasing day by day. Within the scope of this study, these two concepts are examined from a critical perspective.

Halal Tourism mostly used in literature as an equivalence of Islamic Tourism and considered appealing for Muslim consumers is used as a concept focused on conservative tradition, moral rules and sharia laws especially in Middle East (Bat-

tour, Mohd & Battor, 2010). The word “halal” is used for all products except those called as “haram (forbidden by religion)”. According to Quran (Holy Book of Muslims), consuming animal products (e.g. pork) that are forbidden by religion and animals slaughtering with inappropriate methods and also consuming unhealthy products like alcohol are haram (Bakara 173; En’am 145; Nahl, 115). Besides, particular conditions such as health of slaughtered animal, storage methods, features of butcher (must be a wise and adult Muslim man or woman) and pray said during slaughter (butcher must say ‘Allah’ while slaughtering the animal) affect whether a product is halal or haram (En’am 118; En’am 121). In this regard, Halal Tourism concept covers providing services such as food & beverage, accommodation etc. in line with expectations of Muslim consumers.

On the other hand, *Islamic Tourism* is described as activities carried out by Muslims in accordance with religious rules (Din, 1989; Jafari & Scott, 2014). Neveu (2010) claims there are three main purposes of this type of tourism as economic, cultural and religious. According to the author; economic purpose of Islamic Tourism is to support economical development in Islamic and Non-Islamic regions and to lead foundation of new religious touristic destinations for Islamic world. Cultural purpose underlying Islamic Tourism concept is to introduce and market Islamic values and religious purpose is to encourage companies in tourism sector and Muslim consumers to carry out activities in a way of not ignoring Islamic practices and obligations.

DISCUSSION

In this section of the study, it was focused on critical points of Religious, Islamic and Halal Tourism concepts and it was discussed whether all these concepts would be considered as separate tourism types by taking their main travel motivations into the consideration. In reference to explanations in Literature Review section, it is possible to point out Religious, Islamic and Halal Tourism concepts explain two different travel purposes which are “qualitative and behavioral” purposes (Tekin, 2014: 751). Concepts in question were categorized into two groups as following:

- In the first form; individuals go on trips to visit a holy place as a requirement of their religion. These trips contain making pilgrimage or visiting other holy places which are of quite importance in religious terms. What important is in this form is “**characteristics of the visited place**”. Therefore, it can be indicated this form covers Religious Tourism type.

However, Religious Tourism has close ties with many tourism types such as Holiday Tourism, Cultural Tourism and Political Tourism. For instance, that prospective pilgrims, who visit holy places to make a pilgrimage, join daily cultural trips in their free times is a good example of integration of a **religion-based trip** with other tourism types. The important point to be focused on at this point is that people may tend to experience different touristic products so as to spend their

free times in the destination they have come for religious purposes. In other words, main motivation of Religious Tourism is religious purposes. During these trips, bearing mainly religious purposes, individuals' joining other touristic activities does not change the main reason why they have joined this trip. Considering it provides service to a specific trip motivation, Religious Tourism is separated from other tourism types and this is why it can be accepted as a separate tourism type.

- *In the second form, it does not matter where individuals visit. What important is that individuals live in line with directions and prohibitions of religion and display a touristic behavior in compliance with these directions and prohibitions no matter what tourism type they join. **"Briefly, the most significant point in this form is that religious beliefs of individuals joining tourism activity influence touristic consumer behaviors"**. Taking their theoretical framework into consideration, it can be indicated Islamic and Halal Tourism concepts are included in this form.*

Common features of Judaism, Christianity and Islam religions' principles resulting from their divine-based structures bring along many similarities between "halal and haram" criteria of these three religions. For instance; in Judaism, consuming non-ruminant, equidae (Perissodactyla) and carrion animals and products of these animals are haram like in Islam. In Christianity, the matter of fact consuming animals sacrificed to idols, choked and carrion animals are haram resembles rituals in Judaism and Islam. Therefore, it cannot be clearly understood to which religion Halal Tourism referring to consumption of not forbidden products in line with religious rules indicates specifically at first. As stated by Henderson (2009), this situation makes Halal Tourism concept open to criticism. On the other hand, Islamic Tourism is a tourism type which pays special attention on religious rituals and in which all touristic products and marketing activities are organized just for Muslims. Nevertheless, highlighting within the scope of Islamic Tourism that consumers can also join activities preferred by Non-Muslims shows this concept mostly indicates behavioral differences. Thus, origin of Halal and Islamic Tourism concepts is not religion-based. At this point, it can be stated touristic behavior is formed in accordance with Islamic rituals no matter what trip purpose is. So, examining two concepts in question as a separate tourism type is open to criticism. As a matter of fact, it would be more appropriate to examine these concepts as tourism opportunities in which expectations of Muslims are primarily taken into consideration in joining a tourism type.

CONCLUSION

It is argued in literature that religious or cultural values can be utilized so as to enliven and diversify tourism activities (Stephenson et al., 2010). Tourism bears the purpose of communicating with people from different cultures besides relaxation, entertainment, travelling etc. Many authors in literature claim inter-cultural communication would improve and conflicts would decrease and peaceful envi-

ronment would be achieved through tourism (D'Amore, 1988; Kim & Crompton; 1990; Sonmez & Apostolopoulos, 2000). In other words, tourism is considered as an activity bearing vital importance for international peace. Nevertheless, using tourism concepts putting emphasize on a specific religion could hinder integrating effect of tourism among communities. On the other hand, using religion in tourism sector as a marketing tool rather than a resource is not accepted as a correct approach as it could damage religious values (Jafari, 2012). Actually, Halal and Islamic Tourism concepts directly target at Muslims and create a perception that a separate tourism type can be developed for each religion. However, so as to mention about a tourism type, only main travel motivation should be different. In this regard, it was concluded within the scope of this research that apart from religion-based Religious Tourism; *Halal and Islamic Tourism concepts* symbolize touristic products mostly focusing on Islamic doctrines.

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A Cycle Tourism Motivation Analysis: An Empirical Study of the Balearic Islands

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INTRODUCTION

One of the types of tourism to which Spanish tourist destinations are most firmly committed is cycle tourism. The Balearics have more than 1,400 km of roads with standardised signage. This has allowed the archipelago to become a key destination for many European cycling teams, who, attracted by the climate, have found this to be an ideal place for training and competing. Sports events make many positive impacts on a host destination, such as increased revenue from visitors to the area and improvements to its image through the creation of necessary facilities.

Little research has been conducted into cycle tourism as a sports activity that can attract visitors to certain tourist destinations. Consequently, this paper aspires to gain a better insight into cycle tourism and to assess whether it might be a basic attraction and pull factor for specific destinations. With this as its goal, the study explores possible factors that predispose visitors to travel to a certain destination and it also examines whether sports-related motivations play a key role in attracting certain tourists to destinations with cycle tourism. More specifically, an analysis is made of the motivations of the entrants in a cycle tourism event (Mallorca 321, held in the Balearic Islands in Spain) and their link with the days spent at the destination and declared expenditure. This approach allows us to draw relevant research conclusions for use in tourism and sports marketing and for the formulation of proposals for private and public management bodies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

From a review of literature on sports tourism, it is widely agreed that by examining tourists' travel motivations, they can be classified into sports visitors or non-sports visitors. Consequently, motivations play a key role in the design and creation of services with true value for tourists (Fandos & Puyuelo, 2011).

According to De la Poza (1993), travel motivations are what inspire tourists to take a holiday trip. Literature on the subject shows that sports visitors' motivations can be grouped into different dimensions (Fields, 2002). More specifically, if we look at the classification made by Tocquer and Zins (1987), the motivations that influence a desire to travel can be grouped into physical motivations (related to the individual's physical and mental health, and a need for entertainment, relaxation, leisure activities etc.); cultural motivations (they regard tourism to be a factor in personal development through knowledge of other cultures and countries or a broadened artistic or historical knowledge); interpersonal motivations (tourism is seen as a means of emotional development satisfied by visiting friends and relatives or by making new friends); and social or prestige-related motivations (the tourist can attain certain social goals, such as achieving recognition, being appreciated or forging a good image). Tourists are often influenced by more than one motivation, and several key motivations can be jointly involved in a decision to take a trip or choose a particular destination (Trail and James, 2011). As a result, the holiday or destination that a person chooses will be dependent on the interrelation between the possibilities that the destination offers and the preference given to the tourist's numerous motivations.

This paper explores the following research hypotheses: **RQ₁** = *cycle tourists share the same preferences in the motivations that determine their choice of destination.* **RQ₂** = *different motivations condition the number of days spent at the destination and the amount of money spent during the cycle tourism event.*

METHODOLOGY

In order to find out the declared motivations of travellers taking part in the cycle tourism event, the entrants to the Mallorca 321 event were asked to self-administer an online questionnaire (CAWI). The information was gathered between April and May 2015 and non-probability convenience sampling was used, through self-selection, contacting the interviewees by e-mail. A total sample of 2895 entrants in the competition was obtained. Of these, the motivations and expenditure of non-resident entrants was analysed (1788 entrants).

RESULTS

A motivation analysis involving a high number of variables complicates the interpretation process for researchers and so a factor analysis was conducted in order to try and identify a dimensional structure in the declared motivations of the non-resident cycle tourists (n = 1788) taking part in the Mallorca 321 cycle tourism

event. The results show that when 4 principal factors are used, 76.754% of the variance is explained.

Table 1. Total variance explained by the factor analysis

Total explained variance: Extraction method – principal components analysis						
Component	Sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.114	47.031	47.031	3.068	23.599	23.599
2	2.061	15.858	62.888	2.903	22.329	45.928
3	1.129	8.688	71.576	2.106	16.204	62.132
4	0.673	5.178	76.754	1.901	14.622	76.754
Rotated component matrix						
Factors	Reasons for choosing the destination for sports tourism	Component				
		1	2	3	4	
Sensory & physiological: <i>destination setting</i>	[the attractiveness of the scenery]	0.881				
	[Suitability of the routes]	0.849				
	[Weather]	0.840				
	[Signing of the routes]	0.620				
Hedonic & prestige related: <i>recommendation & services</i>	[Discotheques, restaurants, etc.]		0.750			
	[Recommended by experts and specialist magazines]		0.739			
	[Suggested in the media]		0.728			
	[Hotel facilities and services]		0.655			
Sense of security: <i>Utilitarian factors</i>	[Easy place to reach]			0.849		
	[Cost of trip]			0.842		
Familiarity: <i>previous direct or indirect experience</i>	[Familiarity with the Balearics]				0.765	
	[Having friends/relatives in the Balearics]				0.712	
	[Suggestion or advice of friends/acquaintances]				0.582	

Extraction method: principal components analysis with Varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization.

Subsequently, an evaluation was made of the summarized motivations and their interrelation with crucial variables for the tourist sector (envisaged expenditure and the number of days' stay). For this purpose, a progressive discriminant analysis was conducted in order to determine which of the identified factors predict a cycle tourism trip. The dependent variables consisted of the number of days that the participants would spend at the destination in four possible categories (1 to 3 days – "very brief", 4 to 7 days – "brief", 8 to 15 days – "average", 16 days or more – "long") and six expenditure categories. Both variables were discriminatory in a statistically significant way.

rist destinations, its cultural, social, economic and technological backdrop might affect the results if they were extrapolated to other destinations.

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Doctor of Philosophy

Environmental Policies, Strategies and Technologies in the Context of Heritage Tourism: A Comparative Case Study Analysis of Natural and Cultural World Heritage Sites in China and Malaysia

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

As a response to climate change, energy shortages and increasing impact of tourism activities, over the past few years a number of initiatives in heritage sites have sought to promote the introduction of environmental technologies and sustainable tourism initiatives. As Sharpley (2009:57) points out, "global tourism development policy has not only become more explicitly aligned with the principle of sustainable development, but it has also embraced a more pragmatic perspective in addressing contemporary developmental challenges".

However, at local level, many destinations find themselves in the midst of the struggle that comes from striking the right balance between conservation and development. As several scholars have indicated, the concept of sustainable tourism, which is usually identified as the response to this dilemma, may not be so easy to implement. Hunter (1997), for instance, notes that in reality, the integration and

balance among the three dimensions of sustainability is difficult to achieve. On the same line, Buckley (2010; 2012) argues that in the tourism industry the economic aspect is usually prevalent, whereas the social and environmental dimensions are usually limited to legal compliance, political strategy, marketing and public relations. In these regards, Casagrandi and Rinaldi (2002) observed that the 'reward phase' for touristic destinations coincides with the flourishing growth of infrastructures, superstructures and other facilities which nevertheless strongly impact the environment.

The World Heritage status also brings along a new set of challenges and opportunities. The first include an increased international recognition and accountability that can encourage promotion opportunities; improved conservation and management under the pressure from UNESCO's monitoring and reporting; planning implications; new partnerships and projects opportunities; economic and social improvements; political and ethic recognition and increased tourism activity (Leask, 2006:12; Poria, Reichel and Cohen, 2011). The second include mainly the impact from tourism activity on the environment, on the tourists' experience and on the host community (Pedersen, 2002).

It is therefore a great pressure for the local authorities to come up with novel strategies for environmental protection and conservation. In this regard, scholars have pointed out the role of innovation in fostering sustainable tourism practices in both heritage management and at industry level (Weaver, 2006; Carlsen et al., 2008). Some have pointed out how tourist sites are facing "the ecological, social and economic challenges and making the transformation toward sustainability through innovation" (Carlsen et al., 2008:11); while others have observed that destinations have the potential to foster activities to promote innovation and sustainable development in line with the World Heritage Mission (Jacobs, cited in Perry, 2006).

Innovation in the context of sustainable tourism has been mapped out by the studies of Hjalager (1997; 2008; 2010) who identified green consumerism, environmental regulations, sector-specific competition and technological advancement as key drivers of the innovation activity in the sector. Accordingly, values and, in particular, conservation values, are an important driver of innovation in tourism (Carlsen et al., 2008; Hjalager et al., 2008). Studies focused specifically on eco-innovation applied to the tourism industry are, however, still uncommon, despite the fact that the importance of environmental innovation has been recognised in the sector as a "primary competitive weapon" (Baumol, 2002, cited in Hall, 2008). In their study of the Balearic Islands, Jacob et al. (2010) found empiric evidence that the ability of the firm to eco-innovate is fundamental, in particular when the size and scale of the business increase. The innovation in the sector is predominant in the accommodation segment and usually falls in the process and technological categories, with business affiliated to a corporation being more eco-innovative than independent ones. While scholars have thoroughly investigated the impact of tourism on the environment, and the role of innovation in tourism

management, research hasn't yet focused on the dynamics of the adoption of environmental strategies and technologies in the context of World Heritage Sites from a multi-level perspective.

The analytical framework that will be employed for guiding the research design was developed from the combination of the Pressure-State-Response and the multi-level framework for the adoption of organizational innovation proposed by Frambach and Schillewaert (2002). The first was developed by the OECD (1993) and employed in the context of natural reserved in the study of Li (2003); whereas the second is adopted in the studies on organizational innovation. The combination of these frameworks allows gaining multiple perspectives: from the quantification of the pressures that the heritage sites are facing, to the organisational and individual dynamics that concern the creation and adoption of strategies and technologies to respond to these pressures.

The aim of the research is to advance the understanding of the dynamics of environmental innovation and technology domestication in heritage tourism. Furthermore, the study develops a new analytical framework for conducting multi-level analysis of actors, drivers and barriers in the adoption of innovative measures for environmental protection in selected world cultural and natural heritage sites. It adopts a case study methodology and is both exploratory and explanatory in nature. The following four world cultural and natural heritage sites are selected for an exploration of what innovative measures have been taken by state and non-state actors and an explanation of how and why certain technological/institutional innovation has (not) occurred: George Town and Melaka in Malaysia (cultural heritage), and Jiuzhaigou and Huanglong in China (natural heritage). More specifically, the purpose of the study is to address the following research questions:-

- What are the main environmental policies, strategies and technologies adopted in the context of the selected World Heritage Sites?
- By whom and how are they created and adopted?
- Why are they being introduced? What are the dynamics behind their creation and adoption?

The rationale for selecting the sites is to prioritize site that had very similar heritage assets in the same national context in order to have a strong comparative basis to analyse how different local dynamics may determine different outcomes. The selected sites have also presented particular challenges for the management of increasing tourist numbers and for containing the pressure on the limited number of local residents.

For each case study, the primary data consists of interviews, questionnaires and direct observation; whereas secondary data include first hand documents, such as reports and statistics from international organisations and governments,

review of visitors' comments posted on the main touristic websites and data from previous research on the destinations. The fieldwork was organised in order to allow data gathering during both off-peak and peak tourism season, and was preceded and followed by desktop research in order to inform data collection and to triangulate results. In total 49 interviews were carried out between George Town and Malacca, and 17 between Jiuzhaigou and Huanglong. The interviews addresses the main stakeholders identified in each heritage site, namely heritage managers, local environmental leaders, local NGOs involved in conservation, experts and advisors to local authorities, architects involved in restorations and revitalisations, local tourism and environmental technology entrepreneurs.

In addition to interviews, four surveys were conducted in order to analyse the hotel industry of each case study. The aim of the survey is to understand which organisational strategies, technologies or methods are most common among the sites' hotel industry and which are the factors that underlie the choice of adopting or non-adopting certain environmental strategies. Overall, 121 hotels were surveyed in Malaysia: 61 in George Town and 60 in Malacca. In China, 48 hotels around Jiuzhaigou agreed to participate, and 23 in Huanglong. For the latter, apart from four hotels situated outside the park entrance, two of which are government-run, the data collection was mainly carried out in Chuanzhusi, a town located half way between the two national parks where most tourists lodge.

Preliminary results indicate that both national and local dynamics exert a strong influence over the creation and adoption of different policies and technologies. As an example, the role of civil society groups in George Town, along with the presence of small collectors of recyclable materials and the strong entrepreneurial spirit of local businessman have contributed to the creation of a vibrant, diverse and interconnected scene in both heritage management and in the accommodation sector. The number and variety of strategies and technologies adopted reflects the dynamic character of the stakeholders in the heritage site which, as a result, has developed a stronger resilience to the negative impact of tourism as well as the rising property prices and illegal renovation works. However, national politics also constitute a strong influence, as the opposition-led State of Penang cannot secure the same level of financial support enjoyed by Malacca, which ultimately affects the experimentation, however not always successful, of more ambitious environmental strategies. Another point of reflection is the challenge posed by both the physical characteristics of the heritage area and the stricter regulations that come with the nomination to much needed infrastructural and building upgrading. The inefficient drainage and sewage system, as well as the restructuring of the public transportation system and the upgrading of power supply to support the rising electricity demand are among some examples.

In the context of the two national parks, the pressure exerted by the 5 million visitors per year to Jiuzhaigou National Park is indeed generating more creative approaches to deal with environmental conservation and crowd management. However, the limited presence of non-governmental actors as well as the strong

focus on economic gains resulted in weaker environmental measures, especially in the context of the hotel industry, which are implemented mainly for the purpose of cost-reduction. Another interesting finding is the change in the socio-economic structures of the small villages surrounding the park. In the past few years, the local Tibetan population, to which most of the land belongs, witnessed a dramatic change in lifestyle due to the economic gains provided by tourism. If, on the one hand, some are beginning to reflect on the environmental impacts of these “Fast tourism”, and starting to elaborate on how to shift to a more sustainable paradigm; on the other hand, the uneven distribution of economic benefits led to dissatisfaction among the residents who weren’t able to perform as well as the ones who were first in line at the start of tourism development. This sense of inequality is generating a sort of “gold rush” to exploit any opportunity in the context of a highly competitive environment, in which new players emerge every season.

In conclusion, all four case studies highlight the impact of tourism on the local economy and depict different scenarios in which the social fabric of the place is central to the formulation of responses at institutional and industry-level to the pressures on environment and the local culture. The study may also provide an insight on how culturally-diverse and interconnected environments that present an heterogeneous set of players are able to generate more diversified solutions to sustainability challenges.

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Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism Development Model at Ban Wangka Mon Village, Kanchanaburi Province, Thailand

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Sustainable Cultural Heritage Tourism is a key element for the development of Ban Wangka Mon (BWM) village destination. Although the importance of this concept is irrefutable, its application is often elusive because it is an intangible concept. Triple Bottom Line is a key strategy which was applied in order to create a summary of the tourism potential of the BWM, sustainable cultural heritage tourism development factors, and develop a BWM village model. A qualitative method was applied to this research by using in-depth semi-structured face-to-face interviews with 5 groups of tourism stakeholders as a confirmatory step. The BWM village model was developed after this.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry has long been an important factor in the growth of the economy of Thailand (Harun, 2012), as tourism revenues at one point in time were the equivalent of two-thirds of Thailand's agricultural exports, the highest source of

revenue of the country. Despite this steady growth rate in tourism, Thailand cannot and should not pay attention solely to the income that is generated from tourism because, at the same time, tourism also brings a large number of undesirable and disadvantageous consequences. As seen from many studies, there are many destinations in Thailand that experience deterioration (Ministry of Tourism and Sports, 2011). Anghong (2011) indicates that cultural destinations are the sites that are most damaged by tourists, followed by natural and historical destinations respectively. Moreover, a number of studies (Choibamroong, 2012; Jinhirun, 2013) indicate that Thai social and cultural characteristics are at risk in popular tourism destinations; cultural decline has largely resulted in a collapse in social identity.

Ban Wangka Mon village (BWM) is a prominent example of an attractive cultural heritage destination where large numbers of tourists have been visiting and where sustainable cultural tourism concepts can be implemented successfully. Deepadung (2011) mentions that, currently, all Mon people become full Thai citizens except for some groups who migrated after 1948 to the present time and Ban Wangka has the strongest Mon culture.

BWM village has been the most famous tourist attraction of Sangkhlaburi District, Kanchanaburi Province for the past 20 years. The most obvious has been cultural degradation from the presence of tourists. Moreover, unequal distribution of income is also evident. Clearly, both culture heritage degradation and uneven income distribution are mainly caused by accommodating tourists without effective planning and management skills (Rungsrisawat, 2010). These are the reasons why Ban Wangka Village tourism should be studied and developed.

In this research, the sustainable cultural heritage tourism (SCHT) destination theories have been applied in concept and the processing to sustainability; Triple Bottom Line (TBL) method was applied however based on SCHT concept. The synthesis component of TBL consists of 8 Economical Dimension components, 6 Social & Ethical Dimension components, and 8 Environmental Dimension components (World Tourism Organization, 1995; Gale, 2005; Mowforth, 2009; Dredge, 2009; Tourism Queensland, 2010; Ngamsomsuke, 2011). All of these components were applied to 56 informants from five groups of stakeholders comprised of government, private tourism sector, tourist, cultural heritage group volunteers, and the host population.

METHODOLOGY

This research study is a single case study research which selects a single case based on the attractiveness of the area. Miles, M., & Huberman, A. (1994) suggested that a single case study is warranted or appropriate on the basis that the case is revelatory. A revelatory case is one for which there is a belief or assumption that problems discovered in the particular case are common to other cases. BWM Village was chosen as a single case study for this research because it is a Mon com-

munity in Thailand with rich Mon culture and heritage. The results can benefit other Mon villages and other tourism destinations directly in order to develop their community to become a SCHAT destination.

This research needed to support the theoretical and practical model contribution to SCHAT destination development; in light of this, the methodology needed to generate a data sufficient to answer these three research questions posed by the study: 1) What is the potential of BWM Village to be a sustainable cultural heritage tourism destination in relation to the physical environment, economic and ethical dimensions?, 2) What are the appropriate factors that can contribute to BWM Village to be a sustainable cultural heritage tourism destination?, and 3) What is the appropriate sustainable cultural heritage tourism destination development model for BWM Village?

This research is interested in how people make sense of their lives in tourism destinations, how they interpret experiences, and how they structure their sustainable tourism destination. Sustainable Tourism Destination Development is the social process in which a variety of stakeholders come together to agree on one or more ways of accomplishing a shared goal.

A qualitative approach was employed using in-depth semi-structured face-to-face interviews with 5 groups of tourism stakeholders with the assumption that each stakeholder brings various interpretations and values to the process. This study directed attention to the individuals and the perceptions, values, and interpretations of every stakeholder at the BWM Village.

Interview data was analysed and presented in relation to the research objectives and questions. Verification process is also required in this study to in order to confirm research findings and triangulate a relationship between theory, data generated, and the context (Stephens, 2009). All data and the associated meaning led to the model creation to develop BWM Village to be a SCHAT destination.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

BWM village is in the Sangkhlaburi district, Kanchanaburi province of Thailand. It is located on the border with Myanmar. The distance from the Kanchanaburi downtown area to Sangkhlaburi district is approximately 215 kilometers based on geographic information. Deepadung (2011) finds that BWM village is the strongest Mon community in terms of cultural identity when compared to other Mon communities in Thailand based on five criteria: their houses, clothing, foods, beliefs and rituals. These characteristics can be fully observed through their everyday life.

Tourism at BWM village is growing dramatically because of its potential. This research summarized BWM village tourism potential based on 5As concept which comprised of Attraction, Ambience, Accessibility, Amenities, and Ancillary service. The study found that Mon Wooden Bridge together with Mon life style, this environment is the best tourist attraction which can attract huge number of tourist

and generate highly income to destination. Getting to this destination although taking long journey from main city with poor condition of accessibilities, tourist meant to visit.

In case of amenities in order to accommodate tourist, this point is an important discovery because this destination is the cultural heritage destination whereas tangible and intangible resources were harmonized so, maintaining their identity and authentic culture is the big issue. The emergence of the amenities such as accommodation, restaurant, salon shop, grocery, 7/11, coffee shop, or pub & bar symbolically represent prosperity and chaos that can be major causes of cultural destruction. Then all of the amenities for tourist cannot be found in the BWM village at all. It seems to be good for the destination but the problem is because this destination is far away from main city. Tourist who visit have to stay overnight before go back then amenities are required. But this can't happen in the destination so business owner designed to build in communities nearby the tourist attraction brought economic problems happened to local people who live the attraction. Moreover, the ancillary service is another point of interest because of there is no any organization who takes whole responsible for tourism so tourism here grew without any tourism plan.

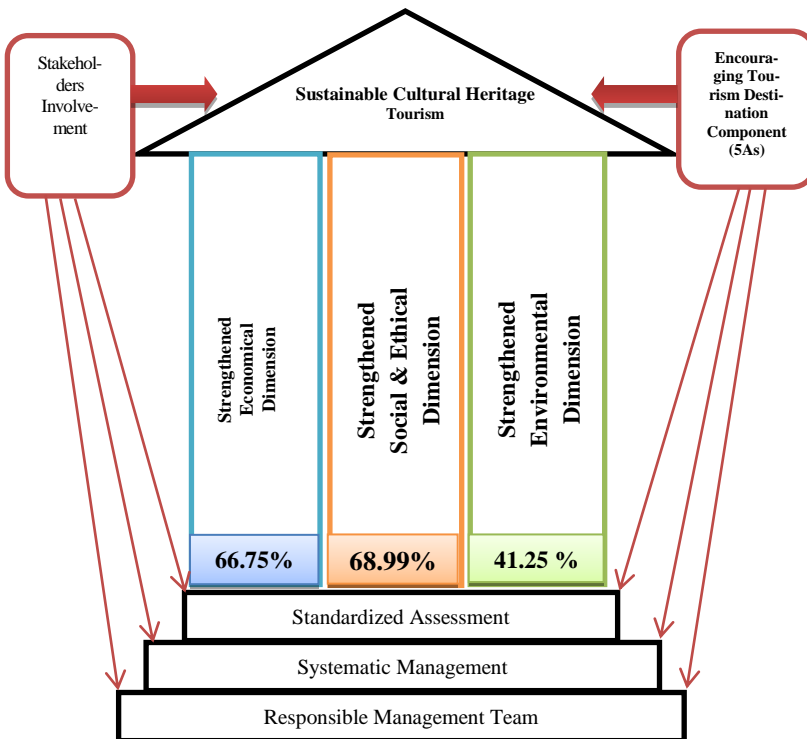
Based on the research objectives and questions, this presents the finding of BWM village's tourism potential, SCHAT development factors, and the development model of BWM village.

The SCHAT development factors were found can be divided based on three dimension of TBL:

Economic Dimension focuses on 1) prepare a precise tourism plan, 2) cultivate knowledge and understanding, 3) designate tourism areas via 'zoning', 4) develop accessibility infrastructure, 5) increase a variety of potential vehicles, 6) traffic congestion necessitates better planning and management, 7) maintain sufficient water supply, 8) place a ceiling to control the expansion of resorts and private businesses, 9) formulate regulations for business and construction inside the community, 10) invoke a tax for business operations to fund cultural protection interventions, 11) revising local rules and regulation to match contemporary circumstances, 12) increase Mon people educational background, 13) enhance more understanding about sustainability, 14) encourage income distribution thoroughly and fairly, and 15) promote careers that can afford both tourism and other industries.

Social & Ethic Dimension focuses on 1) strengthen unity participation pattern, 2) community-focused conflict resolution, 3) increase sustainable tourism knowledge and involvement with their living, 4) increase recognition of the Mon Community, 5) inform and encourage sustainable tourist, 6) establish local regulations and policies regarding visitors, 7) provide surveillance team to prevent criminal, 8) increase community awareness to the potential of criminal activity, 9) revising local regulation by acceptance process.

Environment Dimension focuses on 1) create of a long-term preservation plan, 2) increase actively engaging in resource protection and renewal 3) provide tourism monitoring and assessing impacts, 3) clearly defined rules, regulations, monitoring, and mediation policies for resources management and measurement, 4) provide multiple forms of education to entire participant to increase public awareness, 5) creation of a dedicated tourism agency for the village, **6)** provide management system to partition resources equally, and 7) generate and develop ideas and management strategies to maximize environmental utility and aesthetics.



All three dimensions above are SCHAT development factors of BWM village which came from the study. The development of each dimensions are to increase the strength in order to be sustainable destination. The model of BWM village destination is summarized in Figure.

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Increasing Competitiveness of Tourism of Rural Areas through EU Financial Instruments

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Tourism development in Bulgaria has been the focus of numerous governmental activities and plans over the past decade. All efforts aiming at its stabilization have been performed by actions which establish sustainable European tourism as well as keep it in a good shape as a continuous process. Throughout the years, due to the development of society and the increased information awareness of the population it has established itself as a dynamic sector, which has been among the engines of Bulgarian economic growth in the past decade. In 2005 (OP "Regional Development" 2007-2013 - www.bgregion.eu) tourism has contributed directly to 4,5% of the GDP and 3,9% of employment (111 thousand work places). However, we should also consider its indirect effects - 15,9% of GDP and 13,6% of employment (400 thousand work places). Tourism contribution is a bit above the average level for the EU (direct contribution 3,8% of GDP and 4,1% of employment and indirect - 10,1% of GDP and 11,5% of employment) and is considerably higher compared to the one in Central and East Europe (direct contribution to GDP - 2%, and to employment -

1,7%; indirect - 9,1% to GDP and 7,4% of employment). During the past decade most tourism indicators have improved. It has been observed that the bed-capacity has increased substantially. It is also important to note that the share of higher category beds has increased significantly. After privatization processes in Bulgaria a huge part of the enterprises have become private and at present small and medium-sized enterprises prevail. As a result of the improved tourist basis, even though it has been achieved by small and medium-sized enterprises, the number of tourist arrivals has enjoyed a substantial rise in the past several years. Most tourists who come to Bulgaria do so in order to have a holiday. However, inner tourism has been developing significantly slower. On the one hand this has been due to the low income of the population, and on the other – to lack of information among local population. The aim of this work is to investigate the development of this branch in the periods before Bulgaria's membership in the EU and the outcomes after the implementation of not only the pre-accession programmes SAPARD, PHARE and the Programmes for Cross-Border cooperation of the European Union, but also the implementations of the programmes from the first programme period 2007-2013 after Bulgaria's membership in the EU.

The first steps in stabilizing Bulgarian tourism by using EU financial instruments were taken through the pre-accession programme SAPARD (prsr.government.bg). The major interests in the field of tourism at that time was the development of rural tourism i.e. reconstruction and modernization of existing houses and construction of new guest houses and family hotels with up to 20 rooms to accommodate tourists in rural municipalities (with a population of up to 30 000 in the municipal centers and density of 150 people per square km.). These opportunities have been given to 103 municipalities with a population of under 10 000, with the exception of resorts and places where mass tourism has been developed – they have been listed in a special order by the Minister of agriculture. PHARE programme – it supports NGO-s in the field of cultural tourism, municipalities - to improve infrastructure etc, Cross-Border programmes for cooperation with Bulgaria's neighboring countries.

Bearing in mind that Bulgaria is a country with rich and diverse potential for tourist development, the various tourist resources available allow the development of different kinds of tourism and their fusion/combination, as well as their being used during the whole year, or at least for two seasons. The objective of European Union funds is to emphasize on advantages, more specifically the ones of rural areas so as their available potential is developed. The implementation of the European programmes is a very complicated and continuous process. The people who are involved in their implementation are not only the local population, but also the experts in the countries members of the EU, who participate in their development and application. The human resources involved in their application need to possess some necessary competences - to know EU laws, to be able to analyze specific needs and problems, which may occur during their implementation.

Apart from motivation, the local population that would like to take part needs to possess the necessary resource in the form of competences and skills, which they will need in order to implement the activities in the programs for acquisition of EU funds. Their cooperation is an obligatory condition for the effective implementation of the European Union funds, whose main purpose is to improve and develop infrastructure, way of life and potential of the countries members in the EU.

As the European programs are being implemented in Bulgaria, there are numerous schemes and measures that are applied, which aim at improving life in rural areas, but tourism is seen as one of the main means for supporting regional and local development. The growth in the sphere of tourism may have a positive impact not only on the very sector itself, but also on the development of spheres that are connected to it like industry and services, employment and the general economic condition of the areas (accelerating and multiplying effect of tourism). This is of a huge importance for the peripheral areas, where opportunities for development are limited. Clear evidence of this is the fact that the municipalities with developed tourism have stronger economy when compared with similar municipalities without or with a limited opportunities for development of tourism, as well as the fact that in numerous cases tourism has successfully managed to compensate for the loss of work places and opportunities for income after establishing a specific region as a tourist one. Despite the efforts put in its development, the significant potential of a great part of the country's territory has remained unused or underused, and the local business and population cannot take advantage of tourism assets. Even though besides the measures whose objectives are to develop tourism in rural areas there is a number of measures implemented to different operational programs aiming at improving the qualification of the local population, training and development of human resources, tourism still has its weaknesses and problems. The quality of the services offered is closely connected to the availability and qualification of the personnel in tourism, inefficiency of education and professional training in the sphere of tourism, the limited knowledge of Bulgarian tourist possibilities (especially the ones of cultural and historical heritage) and the biased idea of our country, which is a result of insufficient, wrongly-targeted and ineffective advertisement; lack of trade mark and the absence of national tourist offices in the countries that generate tourists; insufficient information that tourists are provided with, which is a result of uncoordinated interaction between information centers, their limited possibilities etc. Owing to European fund numerous information centers have been opened, both in our specific municipalities and regions as well as in some of our neighboring countries that participate in the cross border cooperation programmes. Advertising informational subjects (Nojarov, 2005: 120) play an important role for the distribution of a specific tourist product. The demand depends on their

work, which refers to the income i.e. their importance in the economic development of a certain destination is huge.

The aim of this work is to investigate several criteria, which will make it possible for them to be used as a basis of comparison of the condition of small municipalities in the period before and after the EU funding. It is essential that we make feedbacks with the people who have used the financial instruments of the European Union, with the citizens, and with the ones who use the goods. This work will make a parallel analysis based on the acquisition of funds among the separate municipalities, regions in the country and geographical regions in general. The efforts put in acquiring resources from European Union funds aim not only at improving the infrastructure and superstructure, but also at providing the population with some assistance in the form of provision of employment, enhancing qualification and improving the general condition of rural areas. Rural development programme was implemented in the period 2007 -2014, and all the payments for the implementation of the measures in it ended in 2015. There were two major measures in the programme that were implemented.

The key target groups at whom the activities of management and acquisition of European funds aim are: potential candidates, beneficiaries who get support, journalists, key partners and society as a whole. The means for getting feedbacks are: seminars, courses and discussion forums for trainings of trainers, informational seminars for beneficiaries, for journalists, lectures, issuing information materials, media appearances, information centers and internet.

CONCLUSION

Tourism is perceived as a priority sector for development in the National Strategy for Regional Development, in all regional development plans and municipal development strategy, as well as in most municipal development plans. It is a priority of all governing state authorities and the respective local authorities to develop numerous programmes. Since the population has been concentrated in the big towns and investments have been made only in the developed municipalities, it is imperative that investments be made in the rural areas and the underdeveloped municipalities. Namely because of that reason, it is necessary that they participate in the European programmes as to improve their quality of life, work environment and provide opportunities for enhanced regional competitiveness and sustainable development. The analyses of this work will contribute to information awareness about the application of the schemes, measures and activities of European programmes, and will estimate to what extent they are beneficial for the population of Bulgaria. By implementing the actions included in the activities planned in the programmes for development of tourism in Bulgaria it is intended to increase the competitiveness and attraction of the regions and municipalities, to lower the differences between the industrial, housing, social, ecological and cultural environment of the town areas and the accessibility of the ru-

ral areas in reference with the road, information and communication network that concern the impact of tourism. In fact, up until 2000 there was a lack of experience in public investments in support of tourist development in Bulgaria. However, several successive projects of the PHARE programme as well as SAPARD programme identified this lapse and were meant to solve it. They not only noted the existing need of such intervention on local level, which cannot be satiated by using the pre-accession funds (evidence of this is the strong competition between the projects offered), but they also created the idea of the desired and most suitable actions, the typical setbacks by contributing to building up a capacity and getting experience in development and implementation of projects by a significant number of local and national participants. One of the most important lessons is that uncoordinated development and implementation of relatively small, but similar projects even in one and the same region may lead to missed opportunities for completion, synergy, impact, and last but not least – financial efficiency. By assessing the benefits of the support, the improved information awareness of the public and the life quality enhancement we would be able to estimate which the right direction is for development and where it would be necessary to focus our efforts.

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Values-Based Cross-Cultural Modelling of Measures for Visitor Satisfaction in National Parks

Doctor of Philosophy

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INTRODUCTION

Different types of national parks (Carruthers, 2015; Kupper, 2015) are presenting differentiated nature-based tourist products (Sustainable Tourism Online, n.d.) and are playing an important role in the international tourism industry (Li, Hsu, Lue & Absher, 2008; Li, Lai, Chick, Zinn & Graefe, 2007). According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (hereinafter: IUCN), each of them communicates common values of conservation, promotion of education and recreation (IUCN, 2014). Nevertheless, the “value, meaning and identity-significance individuals feel, associated with national parks” underlines “the character and intensity of opportunities sought” (Crouch, Marson, Shirt, Tresidder & Wiltshier, 2009, p. 180; cf. Carruthers, 2015) from each individual national park (hereinafter: NP).

Only recently has the broader spectrum of intangible values of NPs become part of scientific discussions (Dudley, Higgins-Zogib & Mansourian, 2006; Fei Ern & Hong Ching, 2015; Lockwood, 2006). According to Harmon and Putney (2003), *intangible or nonmaterial values* refer to recreational and therapeutic values of

NP's, spiritual and cultural values, aesthetic values, educational and scientific values, peace values (equity and social justice) and national and identity values. *Tangible or material values* as their counterpart refer to conservation values (ecosystem services), economic values (tourism revenue), land values and infrastructure values (buildings, roads, utilities). The same authors, together with Fei Ern & Hong Ching (2015) recognize the need for park management to manage tangible and intangible park values because visitors' values are manifested through their visit to the NP which is considered as "satisfaction of visitors' beliefs".

In relation to visitors' satisfaction, Pearce and Moscardo (in Reisinger & Turner, 2003) posit that satisfaction is higher if the value system of the tourists fits with the value system of the host (in our case the NP). Moreover, Reisinger and Turner (2003, p. 178) state that "where values and value orientations do not fit, mismatch can lead to feelings of stress, anxiety, uncertainty and may result in dissatisfaction. The one condition of tourist satisfaction with hosts is the match between tourists' and hosts' value systems". According to Reisinger and Turner (2003), the match of both value systems is therefore understood as a dimension of visitor satisfaction. A positive correlation between personal values and NP values should therefore result in visitors' satisfaction.

Moreover, the same values are shared by members of same culture. Differences in values indicate differences among cultures (Reisinger, 2009), therefore cross-cultural analysis requires a systematic comparison of similarities and differences in values (Engel & Blackwell, 1982 in Kozak, Bigne & Andreu, 2003). Since tourism has nowadays, more than at any point throughout history become international, it is crucial for tourist management to be informed about values of tourists coming from a range of countries and continents and therefore extract conclusions from cross-cultural analysis (Reisinger, 2009).

Research on cross-cultural differences in perception of values has therefore become essential for providing information on visitor satisfaction with purchased products, namely the visit and experience of NPs (Reisinger, 2009; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Kozak et al. (2003) and Li et al. (2007) recognize the need for more detailed research of cross-cultural values in relation to satisfaction and in relation to NP values-based management (Harmon & Putney, 2003; Li et al., 2007).

National parks are an important touristic product within the tourism offer of The United Kingdom (National Parks England & VisitEngland, 2013) attracting both domestic and international tourists (National Parks England, 2014). For this reason, The United Kingdom's NPs are interesting and challenging research destinations.

The aim of our research is to fulfil the research gap in the field of cross-cultural visitor satisfaction in NPs by bringing together two values-based models, namely the values-based management model and the cross-cultural visitors' value model. The proposed study will therefore provide extensive and multidisciplinary research on the importance of matching visitors' and hosts' values in relation to visi-

tors' satisfaction. The study will contribute to tourism literature by promoting management strategies based on cross-cultural values and enabling local NP management to better meet the expectations of international visitors resulting in increased satisfaction.

RESEARCH PROBLEM DEFINITION AND RESEARCH GOALS

The objectives of the research are as follows:

- 1) To test the correlation between the two values-based models:
 - the concept of **values-based management model of NP**, sustainably combining and promoting (in)tangible values of the NP and
 - the concept of **cross-cultural visitor values**: because of the intimate nature of people's values they affect visitor **expectations** and, in turn, visitor **dis/satisfaction**.
- 2) To examine how the correlation between both models reflects overall visitors' satisfaction in NPs.
- 3) To identify cross-cultural differences between personal values in relation to NP values.
- 4) To draw theoretical conclusions and make recommendations for management practice (based on values and culture-based classifications) from relations observed in objective 1, 2 and 3.

The research aims to test the following hypotheses:

- H1: There are statistically significant differences in the preferences of parks' in/tangible values between locals (Englishmen) and non-locals (Other Europe countries citizens, Americans and Asians).
- H2: A correlation between personal values of locals, other Europeans, Americans and Asians, will result in meeting their expectations and consequentially in overall visitors' satisfaction.

Figure 1 presents the hypothesized model. Local impact on personal values results in cross-cultural differences in personal values. Both models fitting (personal values model and NP values model) will result in visitors' expectations and furthermore in visitors' satisfaction.

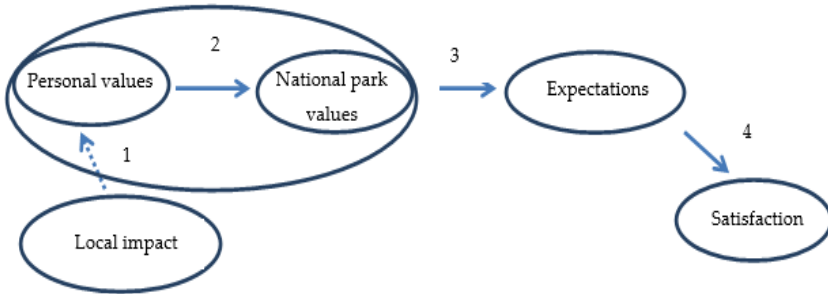


Figure 1. The Hypothesized Model

There are two stages within the study. The first stage will focus on field research. The second stage will use several statistical methods to test the hypotheses and examine the results. Based on our findings, conclusions will address the research gap in cross-culture research in relation to values and satisfaction in NP and also contribute to improvements of park management in relation to satisfying multicultural clientele.

METHODOLOGY

According to Li et al. (2007), appropriate methods for research of cross-culture values and their effect on overall visitors’ satisfaction should be based on a combination of focus group interviews and in-depth qualitative research. Additionally Kozak et al. (2003) proposes cross-cultural methodology on the basis of quantitative data to be obtained from structured interviews. In our case, a combination of both qualitative and quantitative data analysis (to secure methodological triangulation) would be the most appropriate approach and would also assure the validity and reliability of the collected data (cf. Munsters & Richards, 2010). In order to ensure a culturally diverse sample, stratified random selection should be used (cf. Li et al., 2007). The participants of the survey will be visitors of the Peak District National Park, the oldest NP in The United Kingdom and one of the most visited NPs in the world (Crouch et al., 2009). The sample size will be based on the visitors’ statistics of the Peak District National Park. The sample will consist of four subgroups, i.e., locals, other Europeans, Americans and Asians. Ethical standards will be met in all research phases dealing with visitors (and their personal information).

In relation to Li et al. (2007), the List of Values (Kahle, Beatty & Homer, 1986) will be adapted to test the difference between local and international visitors' personal values. The List of Values (LOV) has been developed to measure possible cross-cultural differences on a five-point response scale and has been extensively used in cross-cultural behavioural research. According to Kahle et al. (1986), there are several arguments in favour of using the LOV method, such as obtaining the

demographic predictions separately, so it is easier for the researcher to identify the source of influence. Moreover, the method is simple to administer.

Descriptive statistics will be generated to give a general overview of the data, while a one-way ANOVA will be applied to determine any statistically significant differences between the four subgroups of the sample. Moreover, correlation will be calculated between each subgroup's personal values and NP values.

The study will be based on the hypothesized model (Figure 1). Structural Equation Modelling (hereinafter: SEM) will be used to explore causal relationships among the constructs: Personal values (and their cross-cultural differences), Values of National park, Expectations and Satisfaction (cf. Li et al., 2007).

According to Kozak et al. (2003, p. 45), in order to “establish equivalence of constructs and measures across cultures”, cross-cultural research has to “provide precise comparisons and strengthen research comparability”. According to the same authors, in order to assure functional, conceptual, construct and measurement equivalence, a comparative study has to be conducted. In our case the comparative study will be placed in a NP in Germany, preferably The Saxon Switzerland National Park.

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Itinerancy in Round-The-World Travel: An Education in Meeting the Other and the Self

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to question the process of education during a round-the-world travel, marked by itinerancy and thus by non-integration with the cultures encountered. In this type of trip, immersion in depth would be achieved by remaining a foreigner, by accessing the intimate position of the guest through the rite of hospitality. The meeting thus considered would allow an opening to the "unspeakable" of the radical otherness of the other which, in hindsight, is used for emplotment through a reflexive linguistic return. This process appears to produce an emancipation vis-à-vis the sociocultural heritage of the traveller, fostering in him an understanding of his selfhood not as substance but as construct, through métissage (interbreeding- crossbreeding) with the other (Glissant 1997). Provided that it is located in the paradigm of lifelong learning, this type of recurring meeting in the course of an itinerant voyage would constitute a set of micro-liminalities that are productive of self-education (Galvani, 2006) and can lead to biographical turning points (Lesourd, 2009; Grossetti, Bessin, Bidart, 2009).

THESIS PROJECT

The aim of this PhD project is the experience of itinerant travelling round the world, questioned as potentially educational and located in the paradigm of lifelong learning (Colin, Le Grand, 2008). The trip around the world has become an important tourist phenomenon in various industrialised countries but remains little studied (Gauthier, 2012), especially in the contemporary form of the backpacker phenomenon on which we want to focus. The research on this topic underlines escapism and the search for authenticity as central values; it describes the interest of the experience in terms of a "cosmopolitan *Bildung*", considered as educational, of encounters between different cultural codes (Cicchelli, 2010). Although itinerancy is not questioned in itself but as an identification value, the work relating specifically to backpackers suggests that their experience is located in the field of contemporary rites of passage and self-education (Noy, 2004). We propose to consider that the itinerant journey around the world constitutes a particular form of educational rite of passage, for which we should address the specifics. In this case, unlike an integration travel, crossing many countries makes it difficult to develop knowledge of the cultures encountered; it rather has the specific quality of greatly extending the liminal moment, the experience of the lack of cultural reference frameworks. This research would thus make it possible to question the educational potential of a specific form of introductory experience both in its duration and its intensity while leaning on a tourism practice that is booming although still little known.

The central hypothesis of this research would be formulated thus: Travelling for one year in a country and a year travelling around the world refer to two different forms of encounter for other cultural codes. Much research has illuminated the first form of travel in which, by crossing ethnological acculturation levels, the traveller develops intercultural skills and builds a framework and a "place" in the host society. In the second form of travel, characterised by itinerancy, the traveller around the world would not experience a long immersion and, after visiting a few countries, the repeated test of the intense and destabilising work of a first phase of acculturation would lead him to change his way of travelling. Rather than working to become the other, he would learn gradually to remain an exote (Segalen, 1904), a passing stranger. It is as a foreigner that he could enjoy the ritual of hospitality (Simmel, 1908) and thus gain access to the intimate sphere of the host, its cultural specificity, developing a capacity to decentre yourself, to be guided by the other in the meeting. These would be two distinct forms of immersion, two capacities to meet that would lead to two different forms of acculturation. The first would form a Métis (crossbred) identity, between his own culture and the other, the traveller thus becoming, by integration, a "specialist" in the host culture. The second, which would not include this integration would produce a qualitatively different métissage. By decentring regularly, the itinerant journey, through the multiplication of encounters, would allow métissage with a multitude of

othernesses. In short, and this is where the qualitative difference arises, this type of journey would produce an acculturation no longer at the ethnological level (meeting others of a particular culture) but at the anthropological level (meeting the Other, in others from different cultures and in yourself).

PROBLEMATICS

My problematics, that is to say the placement of my work as located in debates and research fields previously built up and articulated, can be formulated as: by placing itself in the current research on the backpacker phenomenon (from Youth Tourism), but not reducing itself to this, questioning the itinerant journey around the world is expected to build an experience of otherness different from that seeking integration into a new culture, producing an acculturation distinct from that generated by most intercultural approaches through a specific modality of métissage and, via the encounter with the Other and the Self in a double emancipation movement, inside and outside, leading to a biographical turning point - all proposals that fit my research into the field of self-education in lifelong learning.

METHODOLOGY

For this thesis questioning the educational specifics of the itinerant round-the-world travel, following a qualitative approach, I will conduct interviews with travellers with the characteristics of the backpackers subculture.

This research will be done in two stages, each seeking to meet a primary goal:

1st stage: carrying out semi-structured interviews to go back over the overall travel experience. This study will also make it possible to include the preparation and social re-registration in addition to the experience of travel itself.

2nd stage: perform interviews of elicitation (Vermersch 1996) to build additional data following the specificity of this technique to allow fine verbal description, in first person, of lived experiences that are *a priori* unsayable, particularly during meetings.

All field data will be analysed through a theoretical reading crossing the scientific literature on travel and the work dealing with the dimensions of the initiatory test of self-education (Galvani, 2011), especially in the current of life stories (Lesourd, 2009).

EXPECTED RESULTS AND RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

Considering this travel around the world as a lifelong learning seems legitimate for at least two reasons. On the one hand, in our contemporary Western societies, the individual is forced to build an autonomous and powerful identity in each of its affiliation groups, a constraint from which the itinerant trip around the world and métissage with the Other would emancipate them at least in part, by exposure to

the impermanence of cultural frameworks being crossed, leading the traveller to experience himself not as a substance with permanence, but as something constructed and alterable, open to bifurcations (Bessin Bidart, 2010) or to the biographical turning points (Lesourd, 2009) that multiply in adulthood. Moreover, in a society that is increasingly globalised, it is not enough to be efficient in your own culture and it is impossible to acculturate to all cultures, hence the need to learn to navigate and communicate in a context that is increasingly culturally heterogeneous, which can be considered as educating oneself to meet the Other, in the sense that we propose. The round-the-world travel could thus constitute an initiation into an increasingly globalised world and identity construction through a long course that is increasingly leading to métissage.

This PhD thesis project aims to contribute to a theory of the journey capable of bringing a new intelligibility to the round-the-world travel, analysed in the paradigm of education throughout life. This research would also have social utility, contributing to giving this form of travel the recognition it lacks, especially in France. It may be of interest to several areas of research, such as studies on tourism and intercultural studies, but especially and above all in studies of lifelong learning as metamorphosis (Moreau, 2012).

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Destination Management Organisations Managers' Behaviour Towards Crisis Planning in Malaysia

Doctor of Philosophy

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INTRODUCTION

In the last several years, the world community has seen many tragic events with the latest one was in Jakarta and Paris attack in late 2015 as well as in Istanbul, Ankara and Brussel early of 2016, Nepal earthquake in March 2015 and Lufthansa's Germanwings budget airline crashed in a remote snowy area of the French Alps on 24 March 2015 killing 150 passengers and crews. The still missing of Malaysia Airlines MH 370 on 8 March 2014 and the downing of MH17 over Ukraine at noon on 7 July 2014 have shocked the whole world especially Malaysia as the owner of the national airlines. A number of studies on tourism crises have focused on response and recovery only, rather than on crisis planning (Wang and Ritchie, 2012). The tourism industry has been seriously undermined by a growing lack of safety and security caused by crime, terrorism, food safety, health issues and natural disasters (Breda & Costa, 2006). The tourism industry operates in a turbulent environment in which both global and local crises have major consequences for economic success, resulting in multi-billion dollar settlement costs, damage to business reputation and viability, even threats to industrial survival (Preble, 1997; Wall, 2006). Disasters and crises are becoming more frequent, intense, and geog-

raphically diverse (International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, 2006). Preventive crisis management is vital when competitive advantage is easily open to attack or can be destroyed by negative events (Augustine, 1995; Fink, 1986; Glaesser, 2004; Heath, 1998; Pearson & Mitroff, 1993). In an event where 2 crisis cannot be prevented, a disaster follow suit. The rate of the disaster ranged from the dwindling of tourists arrivals to a complete closure of an attraction, thus reflecting the important role of crisis management which inevitably requires a proper planning. Ability to control the crisis and the resiliency of DMOs has a direct relationship. A successful crisis management leads to a success and DMO, vice versa. Response and recovery to crisis are inevitably highly depending on how well the crisis planning was.

The planning rests on the shoulder of a small group of people led by some individuals in the Destination Management Organisations (DMOs). How prepared are these people and what motivate them to have plans for crisis management remain to be investigated. An understanding of their behaviour is investigated through understanding of their intention. Intention, although it is not being a perfect predictor of behaviour, it is however, still accepted as the best predictor available (Kim & Han, 2010). In Malaysia where tourism is becoming the number two foreign exchange income earner (Source, Tourism Malaysia Annual Report 2014) any crisis is being paid special attention by organisations that are related to it such as the National Tourism Board, Tourism Promotional Board, State Tourism Bodies, Local Councils, Destination Management Companies, Convention Centres and Regional Development Authorities. Therefore, in this study, the researcher wants to highlight the initial response with regards to the the importance of DMOs managers psychological factors, Environmental Contextual Factors (ECF) i.e. crisis prone location of operation (LO) and national culture towards Safety and Security (NC) and the importance of attitude (ATT) toward their intention to implement crisis planning (CP). This could be reflected in the framework (Figure 1).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Crisis Planning

As the crisis planning is important to the destination, there is a need for the managers or executives in the respective DMOs to be motivated and have knowledge and skills to implement the plan. In doing so, there is a need to have full understanding of their behaviour that is influencing their intention. Reid and Ritchie (2011) in their study of event managers mentioned that understanding of managers' beliefs and behaviours will identify individual risk management attitudes and sector norms. As individuals are strongly influenced by social reference groups like peers, colleagues and stakeholders this makes more essential to analyse these influencing relationship for policy and professional practices of the sector (Reid & Ritchie, 2011). Glaesser, (2004) expressed that anywhere where competitive advantage is easily open to attack or can be destroyed by negative events, preventive crisis management plays a particular role. However, the issue is that

how prepared Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) in dealing with negative events or crisis or disaster. According to Wang & Ritchie (2012) despite the crisis planning and preparedness to create resilient tourism organisations, the majority of past studies concerned with tourism crises have focused on response and recovery only, rather than on crisis planning. Wang & Ritchie, (2012) also suggested on the importance of the study on tourism crisis planning by a country. It is therefore, very important for organisation to be ready for crises and to take precautions to overcome the potential negative impact of the event (Augustine, 1995; Fink, 1986; Heath, 1998; Pearson & Mitroff, 1993).

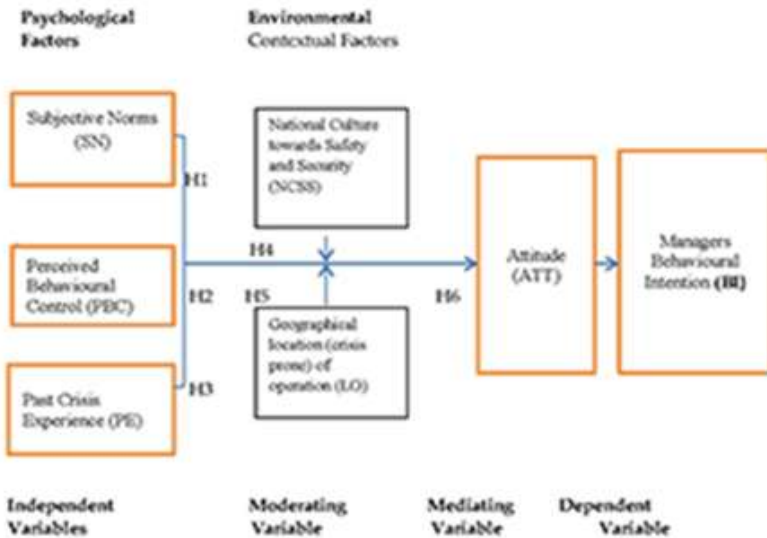


Figure 1: Modified Theoretical Framework Using Path Analysis Model Based on Wang and Ritchie (2010) Study:

Destination Management Organisation (DMOs)

Pizam & Mansfeld (2006) state that Destination Management Organisations (DMO) and the government are responsible to provide constant and accurate information about the actual security situation at the respective region, as to avoid the possible formation of negative risk perceptions by the media and other external communication channels like the travel trade and friends and relatives. Drabek (1995) and Prideaux et al. (2003) note that crisis preparation is still not an integral component of tourism business practice, and many tourism executives seem reluctant to anticipate the need. This leads to a question on what exactly influence such behaviour and what constraints them to implement crisis planning. Klimek (2013) identifies that DMO's role has far more complex as it requires finding the

right balance between competing and challenging environmental, social and economic goals. In view of the importance for DMOs to safeguard the reputation of the destination as mentioned in the above, thus, it is imperative for DMOs to be prepared all the time to deal with any crisis that may come in different forms.

THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR

Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) provides framework to study attitudes toward behaviours and the most important determinant of a person's behaviour is behaviour intent. Ajzen (1991) stresses that as in the original theory of reasoned action (TRA) a central factor in the TPB is the individual's intention to perform a given behaviour. The Theory of Reasoned Action provides a model that has potential benefits for predicting the intention to perform a behaviour based on two major factors: a personal or "individual's attitudinal" and a social or "normative beliefs" (Robert J. V., Paul D., Jean-Pierre C., Luc G. P., and Claude M., (1991). The intention to perform the behaviour is a combination of attitude toward performing the behaviour and subjective norm. The attitude toward the behaviour includes behavioural belief and evolutions of behavioural outcome, while the subjective norms are made up of normative beliefs and the motivation to comply.

METHODOLOGY

The study started with literature review to identify the variables and related issues. The researcher then interviewed expert in crisis that could help enlighten the important area to be covered in the study. Interview is guided by a protocol checklist of topics. Then based on the information by the expert, the researcher identified the population and sample size of this study. The senior officers of Tourism Malaysia, the Ministry of Tourism and Culture Malaysia as well as the key participants of National Key Economic Area (NKEA) Tourism Lab were engaged in the month February 2016. Prior to the interview, the respondents were contacted for permission either through telephone, whatsapp, email or short message (SMS). Two preferred for physical interview, three preferred semi structured questionnaire and two using whatsapp. The researcher is using qualitative approach for data collection. Fox, Hunn and Mathers (2009) suggested that the sample size for qualitative approach is small and it is considered enough until the information gathered is redundant. The interviews were carried with seven (7) people. This is allowed as suggested by Hair et al. (2007) that the sample size using qualitative approach can be minimum as one of unit which Kumar (2005) also indicated the amount of sample size is less important if the main focus of the study is to explore or describing situations, process, issues phenomenon in discovering new information.

The protocol questions asked included awareness and understanding of the word crisis, types of crisis known, the level of officer in charge, availability of crisis standard operating procedure (SOP), examples of disaster prone areas, perception

towards past experience, managers belief, safety and security, location of operation, attitude towards planning and intention to undertake planning.

RESULTS

This study involved seven (7) respondents as the data captured has been saturated on the 7th interview. Below are the key findings:

- Generally, all respondents are fully aware of the word crisis, emergency, disaster, risk and negative events.
- All of them have gone through economic crisis in their career life as well as the series of big negative events in the last three years like terrorist threats and attacks, airline crisis, floods and tsunami.
- Top negative events of the last three years in their minds are MH370, MH17, Paris attacks, Syrian refugees and oil prices also captured their mind as external factors.
- Boat threats, strikes, riot, rally, viral negative comments, national incidents are common negative events mentioned as crises that may affect destination image
- At micro level, they even mentioned their past experience in fire crisis, accidents at the mall, robbery and tourist vehicle accidents.
- The importance of managing crisis in perception towards organisation and destination.
- They are aware of the existing of crisis management committee and its role but admitted on its effectiveness and readiness should crisis happens as most of the time it is on reactive mode and seldom has simulation exercises.
- Chief Executive Officer (CEO), General Manager, Senior Management, Director and equivalent are mentioned should be the one undertakes crisis planning as he is expected to be in charge of emergency management and authorised spokesperson in the organisation in times of crisis.
- No preparation equates a disaster waiting to happen
- Crisis training is extremely important for preparedness
- Cameron Highland and Kinabalu as disaster prone areas due to recent incidents of flood and earthquake that need proper crisis planning but admitted that crisis can happen anywhere
- Learn from past experience and can act effectively and efficiently.
- Tourism stakeholders' pressure is important to undertake crisis planning because it is directly affecting their business.
- Managers' strong belief in preparedness is extremely important in planning as they are the doer.
- Crisis management is important for business sustainability

- National Culture towards safety and security is extremely important in undertaking planning as tourists will put this as the first thing priority when they choose the holiday destination. The lack of security and safety deters tourist arrivals.
- It is agreed that crisis planning is extremely important even though the location of operation is far from disaster area as crisis can happen anytime and anywhere, what more if the location of operation is crisis prone area, the need is obvious to have crisis planning.
- All agreed that managers should not have negative attitude toward crisis planning as every organisation should have crisis planning to mitigate losses and it would be bad to the organisation if the management itself does not want its managers to have crisis planning.
- While everyone in the organisation should understand the important of crisis management, the manager in charge should realise about his responsibility towards crisis planning.
- The intention to undertake crisis planning should not be delayed and must start immediately within one to three month.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are expected to contribute to the understanding of the importance of crisis planning and preparedness of the destination not only to the DMO managers but also to private sector. Crisis may happen anywhere anytime. The main challenge, however, in this study is that since crises have become rampant lately, thus it might affect the behavioural intention variables that need to be tested which might no longer applicable in the framework. In the case of Malaysia the word 'crisis' has become a buzz word due to series of incidents affecting Malaysia, thus, the intention of the managers planning may no longer of own responsibility but due the need of the industry and survival of a nation as top tourist destination.

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Organization and Management of Ecosystem Services in Context of Security in Tourism

Doctor of Philosophy

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of organization and management of ecosystem services in context of security in tourism is of a main interest of this research. Ecosystem services consist of flows of materials, energy, and information from natural capital stocks which combine with manufactured goods, culture and human capital services to produce human welfare. They are of extreme value to the functioning of the earth's life support system. The loss of services provided by ecosystems, or their disorder in any direction poses a significant threat to humankind's food safety, health, livelihood, and nature's overall capacity to provide for our needs and those of future generations is one of the greatest threats for the national security and tourism. Research provide information how to develop a national effort and promote an international effort to assemble baseline data, maintain an ongoing database, and answer the critical questions for further organization and management of ecosystem services in context of security in tourism in Bulgaria, based on developing a tourism parks.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The services of ecological systems and the natural capital stocks that produce them are critical to the functioning of the earth's life support system. They contribute significantly to human welfare, both directly and indirectly, and therefore represent a significant portion of the total economic value of the planet. Because these services are not fully captured in markets or adequately quantified in terms comparable with economic services and manufactured capital, they are often given too little weight in policy decisions. (Costanza et al. 1997) and their capacity to provide necessary services has been either overwhelmed or eroded. Ecosystem functions refer variously to the habitat, biological, or systems properties or processes of ecosystems. Ecosystem goods (e.g. food) and services (e.g. waste assimilation) represent the benefits human populations derive, directly or indirectly, from ecosystem functions. For simplicity, we will refer to ecosystem goods and services together as ecosystem services. A large number of functions and services can be identified (Daily 1997; Palmer et al. 2004), they are critical to our survival (climate regulation, air purification, crop pollination) while others enhance it (aesthetics). (Virtuosic et al.1997). The ecosystem services conceptual framework with integrative character strives to provide a solution to the drastic decline of the natural resources of our planet. Nonetheless, losses of ecosystem services accelerate more rapidly than ever. As humans interact with nature, increasing their global presence in both scale and intensity, the need for a new macroeconomic world emerges. This world should be based on an integration of nature and society (nature-societal) or society and ecosystems (socio-ecosystem), which will facilitate the transition toward sustainable ecosystem services management. (Vodenska et al. 2004). Functioning ecosystems produce multiple services and these interact in complex ways, different services being interlinked together, and therefore are affected negatively or positively as one service (e.g. food) increases.

PHASE ONE

Some ecosystem services co-vary positively (more of one means more of another) e.g. maintaining soil quality may promote nutrient cycling and primary production, enhance carbon storage and hence climate regulation, help regulate water flows and water quality and improve most provisioning services, notably food, fibre and other chemicals. Other services co-vary negatively (more of one means less of another) such as when increasing provisioning services may reduce many regulating services e.g. increased provision of agricultural crops may reduce soil quality, climate regulation and water regulation (Elmqvist et al. 2011) . Rio de Janeiro UN Conference on Environment and Development held in 1997 stated that biodiversity is the variety of life on Earth. It encompasses all life, from the smallest microorganism to the biggest whale and their interaction within their ecosystems. An ecosystem is a dynamic complex of plants, animals and all other living organisms, and their relationship with their environment, all interacting as a functional

unit. Examples of ecosystems are forests, mountains, wetlands, peatlands and mangroves, among others.

PHASE TWO

The EU Biodiversity Strategy to 2020 is built around six mutually supportive and inter-dependent targets which address the main drivers of biodiversity loss. They aim to reduce key pressures on nature and ecosystem services in the EU by stepping up efforts to fully implement existing EU nature legislation, anchoring biodiversity objectives into key sectoral policies, and closing important policy gaps. Global aspects are also addressed to ensure the EU contributes fully to implementing international biodiversity commitments. The six targets covered by the EU strategy focus on six goals: the full implementation of the EU nature legislation; better protection and restoration of ecosystems and the services they provide, and greater use of green infrastructure; more sustainable agriculture and forestry; Better management of EU fish stocks and more sustainable fisheries; 5. Tighter controls on Invasive Alien Species; and a greater EU contribution to averting global biodiversity loss. An European vision for 2050 EU biodiversity and ecosystem benefits that it provides, its natural capital to be protected, valued and appropriately restored, both the intrinsic value of biodiversity, as well as for their important contribution to human wellbeing and economic bloom, so be avoided catastrophic changes due to the loss of biodiversity. In today's civilized world it is considered extremely important society to fully benefit from the biosphere and to become a factor of security, stability and sustainable development of the territory. Management of ecosystem services is seems as important despite various difficulties (Robertson et al. 2005). Traveling in general gives the opportunity to the tourists to get acquainted with the culture of the visited destination, to enhance their knowledge and even skill in particular spheres like for instance the folklore, local crafts, music, and arts. In many cases the recreational tourist resources are usually fixed in space (they can't be moved from their place) i.e. the tourist has to go there in order to benefit from the specific psychophysical recreational function. Multi-stakeholder collaboration is a necessity for sustainable management of landscapes (Suzanne Ozment et al. 2013), so we develop an idea of tourism parks for better management of ecosystem services on tourism destinations.

PHASE THREE

There are different interpretations of the figures provides in regard with the ecosystem services. Organization and management of tourism parks which territory includes hotels, residential areas, golf courses, rural areas and preserved territories, are deeply interconnected to a range of urban and suburban environmental, social, and economic issues. These leads to different responsibilities in form of management of ecosystem services including, but not only, stormwater retention, climate moderation, and improved air quality, which in turn affect populous communities' health and well-being. Development of a system of regional tourist

parks will respond to global trends in tourism organization for preserving biodiversity that require to adopt a coordinated approach at the national level to introduce sustainable use of ecosystem services, while respecting the particularities of the regions of the country in every respect. By introducing sustainable use of ecosystem services in its territory, Bulgaria will be much better utilize the available natural, material and cultural resources to implement locally produced products, and on this basis to attract many new tourists from both traditional and the emerging markets. The research gives an idea of developing model of Park Albena where practically demonstrate the expected benefits offered by tourist parks, combining essential to society and local economies elements and accompanying activities by providing evaluation of ecosystem services. Painting the rules of real tourist park and indicating of legal steps of its establishing brings to possibility for further development of a network of regional parks in the Bulgaria. The research should fill the existing gap in the current legislation on tourist parks, which is the main contribution of scientific study.

CONCLUSION

Security in the context of protection of the biosphere and use of ecosystem services is critical to the development of tourism in the destination. Degradation and fragmentation of ecosystems not only affects tourism, local economies and national security, but it is considered as the main factor threatening global security. The situation related to ecosystem services by their nature can be defined as a problem. Problem is that situation that is the result of complex, diversified and interrelated causes and which cannot always find unique and timely decisions. Over the past two decades, the global conservation community has undertaken a number of initiatives which alerted the continuing dramatic loss of biodiversity. As a result of increased pressure from the public, governments also included in its agenda the issue of limiting the losses of services provided by ecosystems. The economic realities and the formation of specific policies in the tourism destination in particular require that "the eternal questions" are tackled by the executives based on their experience within the frame of local regulations and the international law provisions. It involves investigating industry's best practices in security in context of ecosystem services, analyzing and evaluating benefits provided, and implementing organizational structures as tourism parks for management of ecosystem services of tourism destinations.

FUTURE STUDY

The creation of newly constructed tourism parks in the tourist destinations for sustainable development of ecosystem services hotel giving life to the existing natural and cultural value in the area. Tourism parks will convince local society's for common efforts for conservation of biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components, and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from commercial and other utilization of genetic resources. The park will covers all eco-

systems, species, and genetic resources on respective area. Local park's policies for preserving biodiversity will be integrated to sectoral policies and be taken into account in wider national wide and European wide policy concerns. This will bring to increasing benefits and contributions of fisheries, agricultural and forestry policies to protecting biodiversity and will be key to success to national security, and will be part of Europe's 2020 Strategy for smart, inclusive and sustainable growth. Tourism park model also fully acknowledges the economic value of ecosystem services and the need to restore them for the benefit of the local and national economy. The Biodiversity Strategy underlines the need for close coordination between authorities at all levels – EU, national, sub-national – responsible for ensuring the implementation of the Strategy. The improvement of ecosystem services organization and management in context of security in tourism is vital for any society. Biodiversity loss is one of the main environmental challenges facing the planet. Organization of tourism parks should ensure that its natural capital is managed sustainably for the benefit of future generations.

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Conceptualising Three-Layer Cultural System in Mobilities: A Mobile Ethnographic Study of Chinese Outbound Backpackers in Europe

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to conceptualise the traditional three-layer cultural system (White, 1949; Keesing, 1974) in a mobile and intercultural setting through a mobile ethnographic investigation of Chinese outbound backpackers' travel experience in Europe. The traditional three-layer culture system is based on Marx's general evolutionary models, and is regarded as an integrated system formed by three subsystems: materiality, sociality, and ideology. This cultural materialist model of general evolution (Leavitt, 1986) has been metaphorically described as a 'three-layer cake' by Paris (2009) in his review of backpacker culture. In this 'three-layer cake', technological or material subsystem acts as the foundation, primarily provides the infrastructure and equipment through settle environment or media to communicate and negotiate. Secondary to material subsystem is the social subsystem, which is constructed by human systems such as social, recreational and ethi-

cal systems. This layer focuses on presenting interactions of human beings through their behaviours. The top layer is the ideological subsystem, which represents the perception, values, organisation of beliefs about human experiences.

This three-layer culture system has been widely applied in various disciplines to understand culture and experiences. In backpacker tourism, this theory has been adopted in the discourse of the backpacker culture (Anderskov, 2002; Paris, 2009). Although the interdependence among three layers has been mentioned, Paris (2009) understands the three-layer culture as a solid and stable system rather than a mobile and fluid one. However, embedded in a mobile and intercultural setting, it is essential to rethink the function of this system by breaking the hierarchy of the three-layer system of culture and re-positioning these three layers in a new order or perform in different model. While moving, the system of culture faces more complex scenarios, and relations, interactions among these three layers has been challenged; therefore, there is a need to re-conceptual the system of culture in a broader setting.

Chinese backpackers in Europe were chosen as research group for this study for the following four reasons. Firstly, Chinese backpackers in Europe creates an East meets West context. Negotiating ideologies between Chinese system of values and Western backpacker culture can be explored in this setting. In addition, this intercultural setting also facilitates investigations of sociality among backpackers, as well as backpacker and locals. Secondly, Chinese backpackers have distinctive characteristics of highly active online while backpacking, as well as group orientation. These characteristics helps to explore the intersecting network sociality and interactive relations of cultural values and materiality. Thirdly, methodologically, the dual identity of being a Chinese backpacker and a researcher have the advantage that quickly immerse with my informants. Without language barrier and cultural differences, issues such as misunderstanding and misinterpreting can be reduced. Fourthly, as an emerging market, studies of Chinese outbound backpackers in Europe has been overlooked. In the past three decades, backpacking studies mainly from a Eurocentric perspective focus on Western backpackers travelling to less developed countries. With the development of Chinese backpacker market, as well as responding the 'paradigm shift' of the mobilities (Cohen & Cohen, 2015), Chinese backpackers' experiences have been overlooked and required further studies. By investigating Chinese outbound backpackers' travel experience to explore the reconstruction of three-layer cultural system, it helps to fill the literature gap of Chinese outbound backpackers in Europe.

Mobile ethnography as the research strategy was adopted in this study. An ethnographic approach is preferred firstly because this study is about understanding Chinese backpackers this group of people, as well as exploring the structure of a culture system. In this case, ethnography provides an opportunity for me to immerse in Chinese backpacker groups to observe their daily activities and travelling together in order to understand their travel experiences. Secondly, although given three-layer culture system, this study determines to reconstruct the traditional

three-layer culture system and purpose a new format of culture in the mobile setting; therefore, the inductive nature of ethnography ensure the adequacy for exploration in this study. Thirdly, adopting multiple research techniques in ethnography (Hammersely, 2006) provides more flexibility for the researcher to combine various research techniques according to the research setting and occasions. In this study, assisting participant observation as the dominant research technique, semi-structured interview was utilised particularly to explore the ideological layer, which is difficult to access through participant observation. Combining various techniques in this study ensure the quality of data and the richness of the writing account.

When investigating Chinese backpackers, traditional ethnography, which stresses on immersing in one location fails to understand the dynamic, sociality and culture of the group; on the other hand, emerging ethnographies such as multi-sited ethnography and netnography make relevant research possible in this context. For Chinese outbound backpackers, the field is not only sited across multiple destinations they have been travelled, but also across multiple virtual locations, such as travel discussion forum, blogs, social networking sites, which requires the researcher to fully engage in their backpacker journey by moving with Chinese backpackers across both physical and virtual spaces. To clarify, mobile ethnography in this study includes multi-sited ethnography following backpackers corporally from site to site, as well as netnography tracking Chinese backpackers' online behaviours in online forum and social networking sites.

Table 1. 1 Research Design

	Before the trip	During the trip	After the trip
Netnography			
Research technique	Participant Observation	Participant Observation	Participant Observation
Research Locale	Qyer.com, Wechat	Wechat (Group chat & Wechat Moment)	Qyer.com
Multi-sited ethnography			
Research technique		Semi-structured interview, Participant Observation	
Research Locale		Spain, Portugal, UK, Poland	

The process of data collection is divided by three main stages: before, during and after the trip (Table 1-1). Various research techniques were adopted among these three stages. Between June to November 2014, I followed three groups of Chinese backpackers travelling in Europe by conducting participant observation and in-depth interview corporally and virtually. In the digital enclaves, Qyer.com, as the leading Chinese backpacker forum was chosen as online field to approach

potential informants, and also acted as the online field for data collection. In addition, online data collection also covered Chinese backpackers' posts and conversation through instant messengers and social media posts on Wechat, which currently is the most popular Chinese social media. All data was collected after informants' consents. In order to justify the role of myself in the data collection process, a reflexive journal was kept along the data collection process. Various source of data including field notes, interview recordings, pictures, travel journals, online posts and written itineraries were collected.

A thematic analysis was followed by adopting an abductive approach for analysing collected data. Deductively, the three-layer cultural system suggests a scope of the ethnographic fieldwork, and guides the coding as a theoretical reference; on the other hand, an inductive approach of coding was adopted parallel to the deductive coding in order to investigate the dynamic and re-construction of the three-layer cultural system in mobilities. 10 themes were emerged by combining ideas among and beyond three layers of the cultural system. They were clustered into three groups and allocated in three finding chapters by looking specifically at issues of mobile sociality, negotiating ideology, and materiality of Chinese backpackers.

The first finding chapter discusses the mobile sociality of Chinese backpackers by looking at Chinese backpackers forming travel group online to issues of harmony in backpacker group communications. Mobile sociality also looks at interaction with locals and other backpackers. This chapter although focus on sociological layer from the three-layer cultural system, but largely discuss roles of Chinese cultural values of harmony, guanxi, and risk avoidance, as well as Western backpacker influence of group dynamics and perception of intercultural perception. This chapter explores relationship and group dynamic of tourism, and gives new interpretation of harmony. This chapter also contributes to untouched literature of group forming behaviour and group dynamics of Chinese backpackers.

The second finding chapter looks at issues of negotiating ideologies by discussing the identity construction of Chinese backpackers, investigating how Chinese backpacker interpret and practice backpacker culture, and analysing how Chinese backpackers perceive and practice backpacking as a 'rite-of-passage'. Focusing on ideological level of the three-layer cultural system, this chapter emphasise in mobilities and the intercultural context, how Chinese backpackers' identities is paradoxically merged, negotiated and constructed by contradicting Chinese system of values and backpacker culture. By looking at negotiating ideologies, this chapter also argue the embedded Chinese culture influence the way Chinese backpacker perceive backpacking as a transformative journal, and conflict of these two cultural systems create a new practice of their backpacking journey.

The third finding chapter focuses on the materiality from the three-layer cultural system to analyse how this fundamental layer at bottom of the hierarchy re-define and re-construct its role in the mobilities by discussing various roles it

plays not only towards backpackers' experience making, but also its relationship with sociality and ideology. This chapter argues materiality in the mobilities is no longer only at the bottom of hierarchy as foundation, but also highly engage in mediated communication and play an active role of facilitating togetherness and connectedness of social network beyond distance. An intersecting network sociality interweaving between digital and corporal worlds was emphasised in this chapter to showcase strong linkage of material culture and sociality. This chapter also shed lights on relationships of materiality and ideology, which has been overlooked in previous studies. In this study, attentions were paid in looking how Chinese values as well as backpacker culture influence Chinese backpackers' consumption of materials, and how materials help to construct Chinese backpackers' identities. On the other hand, how material plays its part intercultural contacts.

This PhD thesis unpacks three-layer cultural system from a solid and hierarchical 'cake' into a fluid, liquid and dynamic network. It is a mobile social network mediated by ICTs, supported and facilitated by material culture, and highly governed and influenced by different streams of cultures and values. It is an interweaving network compressing time and space, and connecting togetherness virtually and corporally throughout mobilities. This PhD theoretically creates a new understanding of this cultural system and suggest an interpretation of this new cultural system in understanding travel experience. Practically, this PhD explores to the untouched literature of Chinese outbound backpackers, and contributes to both Chinese outbound tourism literature and backpacker literature. Methodologically, this PhD suggests a framework strategically combining multi-sited ethnography and netnography by following patterns of backpackers' activities to study a wider trend of interactive network and multiple identities.

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4th Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference

Research Papers

Ranking and Locating Regional Museum of Northern Iran: Case Study of Provinces Gillan, Golestan, Mazandaran

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays it's possible to preserve and display the cultural heritage in museums. Museum is as a geographical reality with performance beyond physical limits including types of events and negotiations and technology in the things format over the time which has made a set of communication between people and things. The importance of museums has been increased so that between the main elements of city, museums with outstanding architecture and different from urban buildings are known as a noticeable urban buildings. The museum replacing order in city and region and its relation with other urban controls and regional elements according to its specific performance is one of the important issues in designing and performing museum construction projects.

The Main of this research is to answer these questions:

1. Is studying location important in museum complex construction projects?
2. Can generalize the urban lands control planning methods and models to museum location?
3. What is the best province and city in Iran for museum construction among three provinces Gillan, Golestan and Mazandaran?

METHODOLOGY

The method is descriptive- analytical and comparative. In the study of the region, descriptive and analytical method is used and in the studying part of the type and museum location order in the level of one of these three regions in numerical

taxonomy analysis model is addressed. In the following to the appropriate city selection in the chosen province the major and minor criteria which are important in the location project, has been chosen. The major criteria as its title suggests are posing in general and mainly qualitative, and doesn't have high measurement capabilities. So it is necessary to provide the possibility of the evaluation desirability criteria by using the minor criteria in the format of each of major criteria.

RESULTS

In this step by using the numerical taxonomy analysis method in three north provinces of the country (Golestan, Gilan and Mazandaran) for 9 indexes that are effective in tourist attraction, rank and determine the development for regional museum construction. The amount of f_i is the development degree of each province based on the selected indexes. Amount of f_i is variable between 0 and 1 and as the amount goes to 0, that province in the possibility of tourist attraction perspective and of course regional museum construction is more suitable than other provinces that here Mazandaran province have the same situation. To select the best province for regional museum construction in province level due to the studying issue, a complex of criteria is regarded that would get examined together. But due to this subject that each of the selection criteria in issue are not equally important and affective, matrix of criteria list method has been used for place desirability evaluation according to the importance of each of factors. This method is trying to give specific weight and numerical value to factor with identifying the importance and the factor in specific issue which is nominated coefficient. Accordingly, perusing and studying in how allocate the optimized place to regional museum and applying regional and urban planning methods in the subject, a list of criteria are selected and are considered which are:

- Country and regional centrality access
- Access to infrastructure and services
- Historical and archaeological attractions
- Natural attractions
- Proximity to the political centrality of the country

As it had been mentioned in the previous subjects due to the urban network and distribution of attractions and archaeological works and regional facilities, 5 cities in Mazandaran province has been selected to select favorable city for regional museum construction in the province. In this topic characteristics and features of these cities with the selected criteria is being evaluated and finally with considering the obtained result of that scale of utility of above 5 cities are measured for regional museum construction in Mazandaran province. Comparison of the obtained average from the selected urban comparison table, it can be resulted that Ramsar city have more situation and desirability to construct the regional museum.

CONCLUSION

Construction of museum as a cultural institution in the society is essential because the culture of any society is a general concept that will embrace all the spiritual values and findings of that regions people. In between regional museums with respect to the mentioned goals can be known as tourism destination by introduction of all aspects in their region especially natural, historical and art and ..., in addition to maintaining social and cultural cohesion with appropriate locating and cause to create new jobs and extend new industries in the region. For this purpose it is necessary to achieve tourism development policies and increasing the incomes from tourism in national and regional scale which is known as very important economic and national topics of the day, it should proceed toward establishing and constructing and extending museum and the complex of museum in the proper level of city and region. This research show that Mazandaran province by using the numerical taxonomy analysis method in three north provinces of the country (Golestan, Gillan and Mazandaran) can be is more suitable than other provinces and Ramsar city has been introduced among other cities in Mazandaran province from the considered criteria in the article like ease of access, adjacent compatibilities or controls, place desirability and spatial quality development.

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An Analysis of the Relationship Between, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Affective Organizational Commitment, Psychological Contract and Organizational Justice

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INTRODUCTION

In today's market environment where there are intense competitive pressures in the service industry, service employees play a critical role in the survival and success of service firms. Therefore, the retention of motivated and satisfied employees, who can consistently provide quality work output, is as important to business success as customer satisfaction and retention (Paşamehmetoğlu, Guchait, 2015). The organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, psychological contract, organizational justice is important constracs for organizations' success. Employees in hospitality sector may feel stressed at work as they are confronted with several problems associated with this industry such as long work hours, excessive job demands, irregular and inflexible work schedules, service failures, customer complaints and aggressions, managing service recoveries, low job security, and low tolerance for mistakes, failures, and errors (Guchait, Pasamehmetoglu, & Dawson, 2014). This paper takes the position that organizational justice may be crucial to increase organizational citizenship behavior, affective organizational commitment, and psychological contract. Also employees who have high affective organizational commitment may have high organizational citizenship behavior and psychological contract. The present study contributes to the services literature in the following ways. First, although in literature there are lots of researches about organizational commitment and psychological contract; also about organizational citizenship behavior and organizational justice; this research is the first one that tries to explain the relations of organizational citizenship behavior, affective organizational commitment, psychological contract, and organizational justice. The current research addresses a critical problem in the service industry: lack of organizational justice.

Organizational Commitment

Steers (1977: 46) defined organizational commitment as; *“the relative strength of and individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization.”* (Mowday et.al., 1979, p.226). Ashforth and Mael (1989) clearly put forward organizational commitment may shift between organizations sharing the same goals and values as commitment is composed of acceptance of organization’s goals and values, willingness to perform for he organization and remain true. Allen and Meyer (1990) identified three components which constitutes organizational commitment as; *affective commitment* (related to the emotional attachment), *normative commitment* (related to the felling of responsibility toward the organization) and *continuance commitment* (related to the costs associates with leaving the organization) (Meyer et.al., 2002). The authors defined affective commitment as *‘affective and emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoy membership in, the organization’* (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.2). As the affective based commitment is about the emotions and the individuals stay in the organization as they feel that they are belong to that organization therefore, they are willing to stay (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Organizational Citizenship

Organizational citizenship behavior construct has received interest and studies by several researchers (Organ & Ryan, 1995). For the first time it has been studied in 1983. Organizational citizenship behavior defined as the ‘discretionary behaviors, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promote the effective functioning of the organization’ (Organ, 1988, p.4). The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and several organizational factors like, employee satisfaction and motivation, organizational commitment, leadership (Organ & Lingl, 1995) and also overall organizational effectiveness (Walz & Niehoff, 1996) have been studied. Gürbüz (2006) explained that in the organization, that has employoes with high organizational citizenship behavior, has high organizational performance and less conflict. Basım ve Şeşen (2006) states that the commitment, loyalty and working hard that are caused by organizational commitment increase the service’s and product’s quality. The following hypothesis is proposed:

- H1: There is a positive relation between organizational citizenship behavior and affective organizational commitment.

Psychological Contract

Roots of psychological contract based on Blau’s (1964) theory of social exchange and Adams’ (1965) equity theory. Psychological contract has gained importance in the field of organizational psychology, organizational behavior and human resource management. Psychological contracts are not written contracts that are the sum of the organization’s and employees’ mutual expectations (Levinson, Price,

Munden & Solley, 1962). Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni, (1994) states that psychological contract is; dynamic, non-written, reciprocity between employers and employees, and including emotional expectations. In this context, the psychological contract helps explain the both side's responsibilities and commitments in the same working environment. There are two conditions to be the psychological contract. The first is that there should be personal liberty (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000). The formation of the psychological contract is the development and yield depends on the individual's personal choices. The lack of individual rights in the organization prevents the formation of the psychological contract. In an organization where there is no justice cause high employee turnover. The second requirement is social stability. Social stability occurs with trust. Employees should have trust to employer about having a mutual agreement to comply with each other. Today managers give more importance to the employees' emotional expectations and by satisfying them they try to connect employees to the organization. In time, satisfied employees may develop psychological contract. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- H2: There is a positive relationship between psychological contract and affective organizational commitment.

Organizational Justice

According to Adams (1965), individuals are compared with others in the same position with their own permanent location. Organizational justice can be defined as the employee's perception of justice concerning various practices and activities of the organization (Greenberg, 1996, p.24). When an employee's perception of justice with regard to organizational procedures and processes is favorable, then he/she believes that the organization values and respects him/her. This initial attitude and behavior, which an employee develops, might result in the employee's psychological attachment to the organization and his/her positive, voluntary and collaborative behavior (Gürbüz, 2008, p.57). Organizational justice consists of three sub-dimensions in general; distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice (Folger & Konowsky, 1989). Lack of organizational justice is based on the discrepancy between the values of the organization and the individual's value. Employees who has problem with organizational justice may want to leave the organization. Also they may loose their motivation, satisfaction, organizational commitment and psychological contract. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H3: There is a positive relation between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior.
- H4: There is a positive relation between organizational justice and affective organizational commitment.
- H5: There is a positive relation between organizational justice and psychological contract.

METHODOLOGY

Data was collected from 5-star hotel employees. Overall, 187 surveys were distributed and a response rate is %100. %59.8 was women and %40.2 was men. The survey questionnaires were distributed and collected personally by the author. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to everyone and made a genuine request to participate in the study. No gifts or incentives were provided. To ensure confidentiality, envelopes were provided and employees were asked to seal the completed surveys in the envelope and hand it back to their researcher. Supervisors or coworkers did not see the responses of the employees. Additionally, the respondents completed the surveys during regular business hours. These reasons could explain the high response rate in this study.

Psychological contract was measured with a 20-item scale developed by Millward and Hopkins (1998). Items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.82. Items of 11, 16, 17, 19 and 20 were excluded.

Affective organizational commitment was measured with six items developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1997). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.88.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior was measured with 24 items developed by Hoffmann, Blair, Meriac and Woehr (2007). Items of 2, 4, 16 and 19 were excluded. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.93.

Organizational justice was measured with 20 items developed by Niehoff and Morgan (1993). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.95.

All items are above 0.40 and this is the indicator of convergent validity (Hair, Black & Babin, 2010). In order to test the hypothesis path analysis was conducted in LISREL.

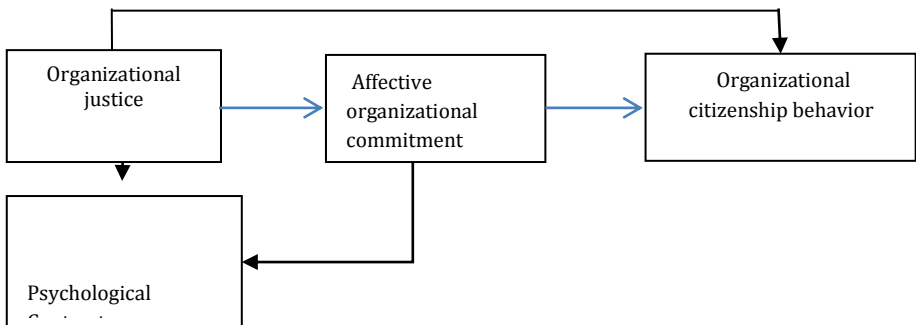


Figure 1. Research Model.

RESULTS

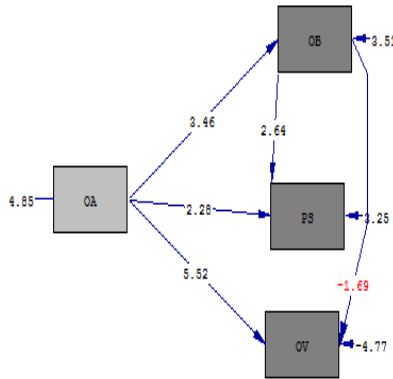
Correlation results were listed in Table 1. According to correlation analysis; ‘psychological contract’ is positively correlated to ‘affective organizational commitment’ (r=.453, p<.01). ‘Organizational citizenship behavior’ and ‘affective organizational commitment’ has positive correlation (r=.520, p<.01) and also ‘organizational citizenship behavior’ and ‘psychological contract’ is positively correlated (r=.204, p<.01). Lastly, ‘organizational justice’, ‘affective organizational commitment’ (r=.608, p<.01), ‘psychological contract’(r=.246, p<.01) and ‘organizational citizenship behavior’ (r=.374, p<.01) are positively correlated.

Table 1. Correlation Table

			Affective organizational commitment	Psychological contract	Organizational citizenship behavior	Organizational justice
Kendall's tau_b	Affective organizational commitment	Correlation Coefficient	1			
	Psychological contract		.453(**)	1		
	Organizational citizenship behavior		.520(**)	.204(**)	1	
	Organizational justice			.608(**)	.246(**)	.374(**)
			N	187	187	187

** p < 0.01 *p < 0.05

Path Analysis Result



Chi-Square=0.00, df=1, P-value=0.98399, RMSEA=0.000

Table 2. Results of the Study

X2	df	X2 /df	CFI	GFI	AGFI	NFI	RMSEA
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0,00

According to path analysis results, the model of the study has perfect fit. As a result H2, H3, H4 ve H5 were accepted and H1 was rejected.

CONCLUSION

This research, which was conducted on the 5 star hotel employees in Turkey, aimed to explore the relationship between 'organizational citizenship behavior', 'affective organizational commitment', 'psychological contract', 'organizational justice'. According to results; there is a positive relation between 'organizational justice' and 'organizational citizenship behavior' and 'affective organizational commitment' and finally 'psychological contract'. Other result of the study is there is a positive relationship between 'psychological contract' and 'affective organizational commitment'. According to results, there is no relationship between 'psychological contract' and 'affective organizational commitment'. This research shows the importance of organizational justice.

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An Approach to the Destination Image Management in Iran's Tourism Market Case Study: Tabriz Metropolis

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INTRODUCTION

The mentality of a destination includes the spiritual concept and the perception of a person or a group from a destination. In addition, the mentality of a destination can reflect a simplified set of fragmented perceptions that covers a lot of information about a place. Predigestedly, the mentality of a destination is a personal perception that can vary from one person to another (Chao, 2005, p.8). Our main purpose of this study is to offer some efficient suggestions in the form of some applicable methods in managing the tourists' mentality of Iran and especially Tabriz Metropolis as a tourism destination. Undoubtedly, responding to all the questions of both foreign and domestic tourists before entering Tabriz, does not seem very realistic because the tourism product is a complex set of values, intangible, inseparable, variable and unreliable that there is nothing in hand to be examined or carried by the customer, but offering some methods proper to Tabriz's social, economic, geographical and cultural features is possible.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The second half of the twentieth century was the starting point for research in the field of tourism. With the accelerated growth and development of the tourism service industry, the academic studies in this field also began.

In 1985, Hung started the social and environmental evaluation of tourism in the developing and third world countries and he released a book as the consequent of his studies that it can be said that it was the first attempt in studying the challenges in the development of the tourism (Kian & Hosseinzadeh 2014). There has been done many researches in the field of managing the depiction of the destination and its significance and the realization of this significance by the Iranian researchers that some of the important ones of these studies are:

In a research entitled, "An analysis of segmentation of urban tourism market with an emphasis on destination image management in the case of Tabriz" (Porkhaneh Bargh, 2013) the mass media and propagandas against Iran are mentioned as the most important tools in creating negative mentality in tourists, and the research findings indicate that the mentality of the bulk of the tourists has been totally changed and modified after their first trip to Iran.

Baghbani (2013) in a study entitled "An Analysis of urban tourism market segmentation of Tabriz using SWOT ", has mentioned the foreign tourists' wrong notion about Iran and the high number of traffic accidents in the creation of a negative image, as the available challenges in destination image management.

METHODOLOGY

This research has been done in a descriptive – analytical method and its main emphasis is on the theoretical and analytical principles of the current status by offering some practical suggestions. The method of data collecting of this study is based on studying of library books, journals, articles and using electronic resources in the case of Iran and Tabriz metropolis.

PRAGMATICS

Tourism Destination

Countries, regions, cities and other areas that attract tourists, are the main places of the tourists' activities and most of their time and money is spent in these places. They are the main zone of the tourism attractions, tourist's stay and other facilities and all the tourism effects (social, cultural and environmental) take place there. Destination is a place that presents all the tourism services and generally destinations are the places that are geographically well- defined and from the visitors' point of view they contain some unique features (NadAli pour, 2010).

In the year 2001, Bigne and his co-workers presented a different definition of the tourism destination image, that is a tourism destination image is an image that is close to and in order to create a proper image in the mind of the tourist, beside the quality of the presented services, the tourist's emotions and character should be also considered (Dehghani, 2009).

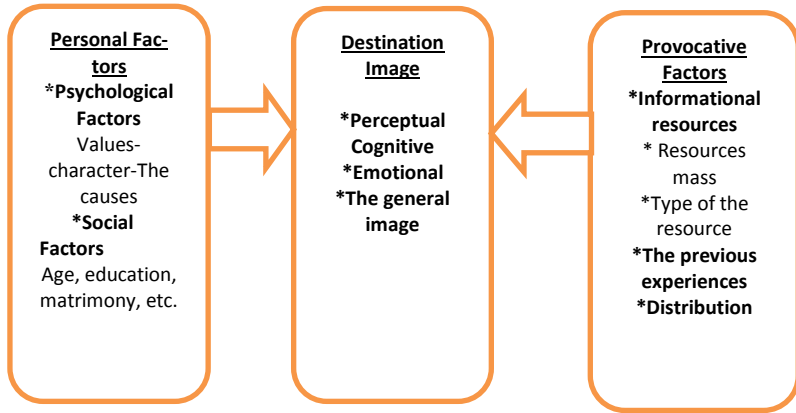


Figure 1. The general framework of the mentality of destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, p.870)

Tourism Destinations Management and Development

In the case of tourism destination management (TDM) it should be said that this issue is faced by many factors but perhaps the most important of them in the competitive status of markets can be the stability of the destinations. Hence, the development of tourism destination management’s information system (TDMIS) is vital in this regard (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003, p.417). Therefore, the establishment of destination management organization (DMO) as the custodian of the aforementioned activities seems very necessary and on this basis, preparing a model for the development of tourism destinations with regard to these cases is very important.

Table 2. Effective factors of tourism destination management

Resistance	Competitiveness
Environmental management capacities	Commercial skills management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -environmental quality management -trash management -air pollution and quality management -wild life management -forest and plant management -visitors management -local residents management -material marketing -site protection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -marketing -financial management -operation management -human resource management -organization management -project development management -strategic management
Information management	
Destination investigation	Destination control

Source: Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003, p.417

DISCUSSION

In this part with the studies and the researches about the current status in hand, and the data achieved through the research background, among the methods and different tools used in the tourism destination management, there has been suggested and discussed four proper methods available for destination image management and data collecting about destination in Iran and Tabriz's tourism marketing.

Oral Advertisement

Today tourists prefer a substantial part of their needed data to be received from unofficial sources such as relatives, friends and others, in the form of a conversation. Oral advertisement is the title that the marketers give to these types of uncommercial conversations that are about a trade product or a tourism service and destination and are not economically profitable for the sides. The research done by Zanganeh and Shamsollahzadeh (2011) shows that 76/8 % of data collection before a trip to Tabriz has been done through friends and relatives, and also Sadrmosavi and dakhili kahnamuyi in another research found that 78% of tourists' data collection of the tourism destination in case of East-Azerbaijan has been done through friends and relatives (Shamsollahzadeh & Zanganeh, 2011).

Internet

Internet is both a data source and a transactional source, and it can be said that it's a new marketing Intermediate. It's an advantage of the internet is that anyone in the tourism industry, from the largest to smallest operators, can use it. (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003, pp. 214-219-420). In a research done by Soleymani (2011) findings show that from the tourists' point of view, internet is the most important tool for collecting data about the destination and it is efficient in the tourists' emotional image of the destination. As the emotional image of tourists who use the Internet as their source of information and those who do not use the internet, is quite different. Also, there are significant differences between the mentality of tourists who have traveled to Iran before and use the Internet and the mentality of those who have not traveled to Iran.

Radio and TV

The mass media can be the transmitter of thoughts and ideas to the mass of people in its role as an assistance to improve the human relations, and it's capable of expanding the essential information and transmit them to the farthest places in the country and make clear the development policies ruled by its managers and leaders for the people (Karrubi, 2009).

The findings of the researches done by Mansuri Moayyed and Soleymani show that using TV and radio in order to collect data before traveling to Iran is in the

third range of importance after the oral media and internet and it is efficient in introducing the destination people's culture and traditions.

Brochures, magazines and manuals

Among the various tools of marketing, tourism magazines and brochures after the Internet, Word-of- Mouth advertisement and TV are in the last level of importance. Although internet is known as the most important marketing tool, manuals and magazines have the greatest impact on the tourists' mentality of Iran and then, Word-of- Mouth advertisement , in terms of the effect on tourist mentality, are in the second level of importance (Mansouri Moayyed & Soleymani, 2012).

According to the findings Mansouri moayyed and Soleymani (2012) in their research of comparing the other informational resources' consumers, among these resources magazines and tourism brochures are the most effective ones in their impact on the foreign tourists' mentality of Iran.

CONCLUSION

In this part of the study, according to the investigations and discussions there has been suggested some customized packages applicable to the social, economic, geographical and cultural status of Tabriz Metropolis.

Oral advertisements

- Using positive words and praise for the spirit of hospitality of the locals, in Daily conversation
- Institutionalizing a culture of positive thinking and optimism to the city in the minds of local residents

Internet

- Launching a comprehensive tourism portal in order to provide statistics and detailed information of the attractions, accommodations and welfare facilities for domestic and foreign tourists.
- Setting up some specialized websites by Municipality of Tabriz with an emphasis on introducing attractions and hotels in Tabriz and East-Azerbaijan.

Radio and TV

- Producing series and animations with the purpose of introducing Tabriz.
- Producing advertisement teasers and documentaries to introduce natural, historical and human attractions of Tabriz and broadcasting them in international medias.

Brochures, magazines and manuals

- Preparing and printing brochures, maps and manuals in English, Arabic, Turkish and Azeri Turkish
- Preparing and printing brochures on tourist attractions and accommodation centers in Tabriz and distribute them free among tourists during the peak tourist attracting period in Tabriz.

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Grand Parenting and Holidaying

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INTRODUCTION

Although family holiday research covers issues such as ideals for childrearing, decision-making processes, family patterns, child participation etc., it does so with nuclear families in mind and not much research studies extended families or three-generational holidays. This paper discusses the under-researched issue of grandparents and grandchildren vacationing together. Drawing predominantly on interviews with grandparents, the paper shows how holidays enable grandparents and grandchildren to interact more intensively and in ways they cannot do (as easily) at home, thus extending knowledge on family holidays beyond nuclear family contexts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, theory on how families 'do family' during the holidays has matured, and a promising theoretical framework for studying family holidays is emerging. Studies of family holidays predominantly discuss issues such as cultural ideals for good childhood, child participation (predominantly in regard to up-front decision-making), habits and routines (how families 'do' family, domesticity and thick sociality 'by the pool') and conflicts and compromises as integral parts of such holiday (e.g. Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2013; Blichfeldt et. al., 2011; Gram, 2005; Johns & Gyimóthy, 2002; Larsen, 2013; Larsen, 2008; Lehto et. al., 2012; Nanda et. al., 2006; Nickerson & Jurowski, 2001; Obrador, 2012; Schänzel & Smith, 2014; Shaw et. al., 2008; Therkelsen, 2010). Furthermore, children are increasingly given voice in studies of family holidays (e.g. Blichfeldt et. al., 2011; Carr, 2011; Cullingford, 1995; Gram, 2007; Hilbrecht et. al., 2008; Mikkelsen & Blichfeldt, 2015; Schänzel et. al., 2012). Despite the maturing state of family holidays as a research stream, studies of family holidays still emphasize nuclear families, thus

neglecting other types of family types, including rainbow families, extended families and relations between children and other family members than parents and siblings, for example grandparents. To focus on nuclear families doing two generational holidays made much sense during the 20th century as the modern nuclear family led to the 'role-less role' of the aged in westernized societies. But as years of shared lives between generations; women's economic and social emancipation; and numbers of 'binuclear' family forms have increased, grandparents' roles in socializing and supporting grandchildren might have changed. Through longer years of shared lives; increasing pressures on parents and subsequent increasing needs for grandparents to ensure family functions; increasing strength and resilience of intergenerational solidarity, opportunities and needs for interaction, support and mutual influence across more than two generations may increase as older family members represent a resource for help and support for both children and grandchildren. Grandparents may 'do' contemporary family by acting as role models in the socialization of grandchildren; providing economic resources to younger generations; contributing to cross-generational solidarity and family continuity over time; and mustering up in times of crisis and emergency.

Although research on families emphasizes everyday life contexts, holidays may be an especially fertile context to study families and family time in. Family time relates to the social production of memories and this may particularly be the case during the holidays, characterized by the ideal of family togetherness. Consequently, perhaps holidays may be especially relevant in order for family members to actually share place, accomplish togetherness and build memories. In terms of intergenerational solidarity, grandchildren/grandparents holidays may increase both type and frequency of intergenerational contact, thus facilitating associational solidarity whereas grandparents providing instrumental services during these holidays may enhance functional solidarity between three generations. The fact that researchers have not investigated grandchildren-grandparents holidaying together seems rather surprising as children's socialization processes, including their socialization into consumers, do not happen in a vacuum, but rely on significant 'others', including members of their extended families. Emphasizing holidays as times during which these issues play critical roles, this paper focuses on the under-researched issue of grandparents and grandchildren vacationing together, with or without parents being present.

METHODOLOGY

This paper is part of a larger-scale qualitative study that focuses on caravaning/camping in Denmark and includes 210 qualitative in situ interviews with 437 people spending the holidays at Danish caravan sites. These caravan sites are predominantly visited by families with children and empty nesters. This paper focuses on the under-researched topic of grandparents and grandchildren spending time together at a caravan site. In doing so, we draw in 81 interviews with family groups (in total 173 interviewees) that mainly consist of Danish couples

over 50 and thus, the paper emphasizes domestic tourists. Most interviewees have caravans (and a significant number spend more holidays at one specific caravan site), followed by recreational vehicles. 31 out of the 81 interviews were done with grandparents, who vacationed together with their grandchildren when we did the interviews (summers 2013 and 2014). However, most interviewees have their children and/or grandchildren visiting them while they are vacationing at domestic caravan sites.

RESULTS

Especially domestic 50+ tourists staying at Danish caravan sites are visited by their children and/or grandchildren during the holidays. Sometimes the children and grandchildren visit together, but at other times the grandchildren visit alone. As for three generations holidaying together (i.e. parents also being present), interviewees point to such holidays providing quality time across generations and particularly to the fact that the children can go play without the adults having to come along, thus allowing both for quality time across all three generations when the children return to the family space and for adults spending quality time together while the children play. These holidays resemble those portrayed in the existing literature (particularly Blichfeldt & Mikkelsen, 2014; Gram, 2005; Johns & Gyimothy, 2002; Larsen, 2008; Larsen, 2013; Obrador, 2012 and Schänzel & Smith, 2014) and consequently, existing literature covers most central issues regarding tree generation holidays.

Two generation holidays (grandchildren-grandparent holidays in which parents do not partake) seem to be a common aspect of domestic caravanning and holidays for grandchildren and grandchildren seem critical to how many families 'do' contemporary family. For some grandparents, it is an annual ritual to take the grandchildren on holiday, whereas others take their grandchildren caravanning several times a year. As an example, a 60+ Danish couple, who stopped caravanning when their children became teenagers, started to go caravanning again when they had grandchildren. The grandmother explains why this happened as follows:

"When we had grandchildren, we could, again, see the advantages of caravanning. So now our grandchildren often come along, so that our son and daughter-in-law can get a break at home. [...] As grandparents we are able to give the grandchildren experiences that our children don't have the time or opportunities to."

As another example, a grandmother in her 60ties vacationing with her 15 years old grandchild explained that:

"We like to stay in Denmark during the summer holidays. That allows us to help out with the grandchildren when our children don't have holidays."

As exemplified by these quotes, through caravanning grandparents provide instrumental services and childrearing by taking the grandchildren along, hereby providing time for parents to focus on work or other obligations. As Danish parents typically have shorter holidays than their children, these grandparents thus

provide functional solidarity between three generations through caravanning. Furthermore, often grandparents take it upon themselves to help children acquire knowledge, skills and competencies during these holidays that parents have difficulties finding time for, as exemplified by grandparents who teach the children to ride a bicycle during the holidays as well as by grandparents opining that during these holidays, the grandchildren who have tight schedules during everyday life learn to 'slow down'.

Grandparents also point to caravanning as an opportunity for them to *be* with their grandchildren. For example, a grandfather whose 8 grandchildren visit (in pairs of two) argues that:

"It's such a pleasure for us 'oldies' that they want to go with us and for us to see that they are having a good time."

Most grandparents see these holidays as a way to achieve togetherness and family time together with their grandchildren. However, the grandparents also point to caravanning as a superior way to be with their grandchildren because the caravan site offers opportunities for children to use the facilities (playgrounds, pool, etc.) and play with other children, thus allowing grandparents "to get some relaxation yourselves". In fact, both the children and grandparents participating in our study prefer to be together at a caravan site to being together at home, or as a grandmother, who has caravanned for more than 30 years explains:

When our granddaughter was told that she was going to visit us this month, her first reaction was: 'Can we go camping? Can we go to [the specific caravan site]?' We have taken her here before and she knows this place. And it's so nice for us, because we get to sit down and relax. At home we live in a suburban area – what should she do there? It'd be a nightmare for be frank. Because even though there's a playground back home, I'd need to follow her there. But here, she can manage on her own."

In the same vein, a couple bringing along their two grandsons (10 and 12) opined that:

"At our place, the grandchildren don't know what to do – so that ends up being TV, computers and computer games."

As indicated by these two quotes, caravanning allows for grandchildren and grandparents to be together in a setting that provides a 'multi-generational' space that allows for grandchildren and grandparents to be *both* together and apart, thus ensuring that both generations satisfy their needs for both own time and quality time together.

CONCLUSION

The study points to grandparents playing critical roles in regard to how contemporary families 'do' family during the holidays and thus, the study suggests that grandparents should be subject to further studies in order to paint a fuller picture

of family holidays. Especially the study points to the important roles grandparents play in socializing and supporting grandchildren and how associational intergenerational solidarity is achieved by grandparent-grandchildren holidays characterized by a high frequency of intergenerational contact. Finally, the study point to the under-researched issue of grandparents providing functional solidarity to their children by taking the grandchildren holidaying, thereby reducing the pressures on parents.

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Residents' Attitudes towards Tourism: A Case Study of the City of Zadar

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INTRODUCTION

Zadar is a destination in the Republic of Croatia situated on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea. Zadar as a city has been there continuously for more than 2,000 years, while the human presence on its territory has been recorded since the Neolithic Period (Croatian Encyclopedia, 1999-2000). The main pull factors of the destination are high quality tourist attractions, preserved environment, an indented coastline, mild Mediterranean climate with moderate winds and rich cultural and natural heritage. A total of 392,332 guests visited Zadar in 2014 and 1,428,425 overnight stays were recorded in the same year. Compared to 2009, in 2014 there was an increase of 42.82% in the number of arrivals and 43.68% in overnight stays. Tourist arrivals have a strong seasonal character, therefore 53.86% of arrivals in 2014 took place from 01 June to 31 August. The destination itself has 19,346 accommodation units, mostly part of family accommodation and it presents a supplementation to the basic working activities of the residents. According to Butler's (1980) model of destination life cycle and the elaboration indicated by Buhalis (2000) it has been ascertained that Zadar is in its development stage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the most commonly cited definitions of tourism, given by W. Hunziker and K. Krapf (1942), defines tourism as "the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, insofar as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity" (Čavlek et.

al, 2011). Based on this definition, it is clear that tourism is the relation established between tourists and local residents during their stay in the destination. This relationship has multiple effects on both tourists and the local community (Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach, 1988; Türker & Öztürk, 2013). The most common consequences of this relationship are observed through the Triple Bottom Line theory (Elkington, 2009; Dwyer, 2015) as well as the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts which tourism as a phenomenon has. Based on these effects both the local population as well as the tourists go through certain changes. Changes, however, can be positive (economic effects, increasing employment, improving the infrastructure in the area, etc.), but also negative such as increase in deviant behaviour, jams, environmental pollution etc. (Archer, Cooper & Ruhanen, 1998). The ratio of tourists and local residents is according to Krippendorf (1986) based on their completely different, moreover, contradictory positions. Something that presents freedom or pleasure for tourists for the local population on the other hand presents a burden and work especially for those involved in the tourist offer (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005; Almeida, Balbuena & Cortes, 2015). This relationship, however, has the weaker intensity the longer tradition of a destination, in other words the biggest differences are at those destinations where tourism is still in its infancy of development (Rudan, 2012). Butler (1980) also developed a stage-related model but focused on the more general issue of the evolution of tourism areas. However, the model considered the attitudes of residents and community support for the industry as part of wider issues of development (Tosun, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted on a representative random sample of 1,314 residents of the City of Zadar in June 2015. A questionnaire was used as a measuring instrument and it consisted of two parts. The first part included 17 questions about the residents' attitudes towards tourism in Zadar, out of which 9 questions were used to determine, through the Likert scale, the views and attitudes about Zadar as a destination and the impact of tourism on them and the destination itself. The second part of a structured questionnaire contained 18 questions about socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and it was used to determine the level of their involvement in the tourist offer of the destination. The survey was conducted along with the presence of the interviewer. The collected results were tested using descriptive statistics methods (ANOVA test) to analyze the differences between population groups in the tourism destination.

RESULTS

The examined population believed that tourism had a positive or very positive impact on the Republic of Croatia (93%), the County of Zadar (93%) and the City of Zadar (94%). This was an expected response since the share of tourism in GDP in 2014 in Croatia was 17.2% (Croatian National Bank, 2015) and 10.6% of the

total revenue in Zadar County was part of the tourism sector, which at the same time employed 13.7% employees (Ikić, 2015). The respondents most often assessed the impact of tourism on themselves (60%) and their families (57%) as positive and very positive. However, more than 30% of them stated that tourism did not affect their family and themselves. These data showed an awareness of the population about the positive impact of tourism on their destination which did not arise from the impact of tourism on themselves. 46% of the total population was involved in some form of tourist activities (including trade), mostly (23%) in renting their own accommodation capacities.

It was expected that the very inclusion in the tourist offer would change the perception of respondents on tourism. When it comes to the satisfaction of the utilization of tourism potential of Zadar as a tourist destination some statistically significant differences were affirmed ($p=0.003$). These differences were in particular evident among residents who were already involved in tourism activity and those not involved, especially when it comes to satisfaction with the quality of roads, traffic signalization and tourist signalization. However, the biggest difference between the groups depending on the inclusion in the tourist offer was recorded in relation to the tourists, i.e. bonding with the tourists in the destination and keeping the contact once the tourists leave.

The results showed statistically significant differences among the observed groups of residents, but also individually within the groups ($p<0.000$). Opinion on the need for season extension also varies depending on the level of the respondent's involvement in the tourist offer ($p<0.000$). All observed groups of respondents had no prejudice against tourists of other religions, other races, and any other features and there were no differences among them when it came to the desire to increase the number of tourists. Furthermore, the willingness of respondents to participate in certain activities in order to improve tourism showed that there were no significant differences between those respondents who were involved in the tourist offer and those who were planning to get involved, while these two groups differed significantly from those that were not involved in the tourist offer, especially when it came to the investment into accommodation facilities ($p<0.000$), catering capacities ($p<0.000$) and the other segments of tourism offer ($p<0.000$) such as production for the purposes of tourism ($p<0.000$); arranging the area ($p<0.000$); landscaping ($p<0.000$) and foreign language learning ($p<0.000$).

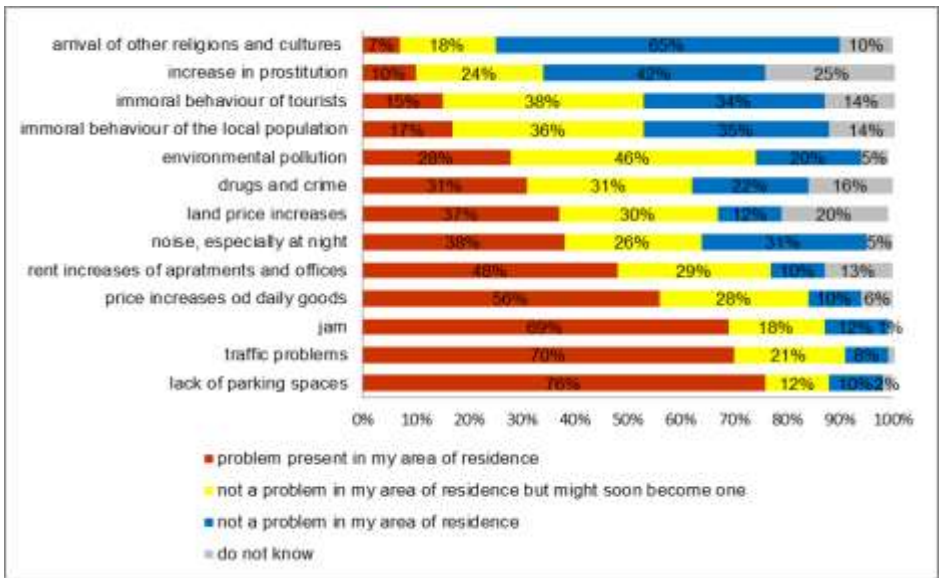


Figure 1. Residents' perceptions about the negative impacts of tourism on Zadar

Source: Author's analysis

Residents' perceptions on the negative impacts of tourism on Zadar were examined and it was found that the major problems caused by tourism were considered to be jams, traffic issues and lack of parking space. They also indicated the various forms of price increase as a problem caused by tourism, as well as deviant behaviour of tourists and the locals. It has been found that there were no significant differences in the identified problems that tourism causes within the destination regarding the involvement of the respondents in the tourist offer ($p > 0.005$). Therefore it was concluded that perceptions on the negative consequences of tourism in all three observed groups divided according to the level of involvement in the tourist offer did not significantly differ.

The difference in the attitudes towards tourists and tourism in the destination, the ways of engagement in certain activities with the aim of improvement of the tourist offer regarding the employment status of the respondents was determined by ANOVA analysis. Groups were defined as (1) employed in the public sector; (2) employed in the private sector; (3) self-employed worker (4) pupil/ student, (5) unemployed and (6) pensioner. The results showed that differences among groups were only present in several observed categories out of which statistically significant was the difference concerning desire to learn foreign languages to engage in tourism activities ($p < 0.000$). These differences were particularly significant among pensioners who had the least desire to learn and pupils and students whose desire was the greatest. Pensioners differed from other groups as well when it came to the increase of the arrival of young guests ($p < 0.000$). Chi-square test confirmed the differences among the recognition of the noise problem of the

observed groups. Noise as a problem was mostly recognized by the pensioners, while it was the least recognized by the entrepreneurs and students and pupils. When it comes to this issue entrepreneurs stand out, which was expected given the high share of tourism in the overall economy destinations.

CONCLUSION

The link between the involvement of the residents in the tourist offer and their attitudes towards tourists was demonstrated in the example of Zadar as a tourist destination in the growth phase. At the same time it is clear that at this stage there is a stronger perception of the positive impacts of tourism on the destination than the negative ones, whose existence is unquestionable, but the local population do not recognize them as a threat. We can conclude that the inclusion in the tourist offer as well as the employment status do not affect significantly the satisfaction elements of the destination offer. It therefore follows that the raising of the quality of certain elements of destination offer affects positively the entire population, and not just those involved in the tourism industry.

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Instagram Usage of Hotel Industry as a Dialogical Communication Space

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INTRODUCTION

The dazzling speed of technological changes affects all aspects of our lives. We are in the “Digital Age” in which the majority of the business world prefers using digital media in their commercials or customer relations. Nowadays more and more institutions, political groups and/or non profit organizations tend to benefit from the advantages of internet and world wide web in an effective way. It’s the main objective of Public Relations discipline that the relationship between the institutions and their target audience be managed effectively. Having become an important part of our daily lives, the social media sites offer the institutions the chance to have a direct communication with their present or future customers. Likewise, the usage of instagram, a social sharing site based mainly on photography sharing, increases every passing day. This paper mainly focuses on how the tourism sector uses the social media, especially instagram, to build a dialogical communication with their clients. The aim of this paper is to make a comparative analyzes of 19 different hotels’ communication with their clients over the instagram, based on dialogical communication approach.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Habermas’ view; communication is boilt in order fort he human being to reproduce himself. (1984, p.397) Communicative Action Theory is developed in the frame of social sciences. Habermas uses communicative action theory to express the rationality and improvement of society. According to Habermas; “there is a

very close relationship between how the subject attains information and how he uses it". (1984, p.11) Dialog builds a relationship among the participants. In the same way, Habermas considers canonical personal relations as a result of the successful sharing of meaning. In this process, information about objective world is shared and the person sharing the information is trusted. Thus, dialogue serves to renew and rehabilitate the interpersonal relations (Kemna, 2013, p.13).

Dialogism is the creation of relative meaning as a result of the interaction on two different bodies in different places simultaneously. This two bodies do not always have to be physical bodies; they can be political, ideological or cultural as well. In Bakhtin's view; the position of the observer is the base of dialogical communication. In order for meaning to be created, there must always be an observer who has a command over the nature of the relation. This acentric nature of the bodies encloses the centrality of an observer. Bakhtin's observer is an active participant as well. He participates in the dialogue process concurrently. Being dialogical is not only the perception of reality but experiencing it as well (Holquist, 2002, p.20).

Kent and Taylor develop dialogical communication approach intending the relation process between institutions and their target audience. They clarify their approach as "exchange of negotiated ideas and thoughts" (Kent & Taylor, 1998, p.325). Kent and Taylor put forward that the web sites of institutions should be designed strategically so as to improve their relations with the targeted audience. Researchers put forth 5 strategic tenets in web designing: Dialogical loop, ease of interface, usefulness of information, conversation of visitors, generation of return visits. Dialogical loop refers to the discussions held online between the institution and its followers. Dialogical loop refers to the discussions held online between the institution and its followers. Dialogical loop allows its visitors to make comments, participate in contests, make sharings, play games and like photos. One of the most important features of dialogical loop is the return visit of the institution to its users. Thus, dialogical context is created when the institution answers the user's question (Agozzino, 2015, p.8).

Currently, institutions seek the ways of founding one to one relationship with their clients by opening accounts in social media, such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram and they develop their strategies accordingly.

Dialogical condition can be characterized as all participants having equal rights in order to participate. Besides having equal access, dialogue is not limited and not complex. In addition, a distinctive feature of dialogical communication is the condition of arriving at a consensus without having any communicational symmetry and imposition (Brand, 1990, p.11).

Dialogical principles developed by Kent and Taylor (1998) in order to clarify the capacities of websites to improve relations are based on the institutions' ability to communicate openly with public by means of their websites. Dialogical principles can be explained through the ability of the institutions to respond to

the public categories. Improvement of dialogical capacity in web sites is important in constituting a direct and open relationship between the institutions and their target audience (Ozdemir, 2010, p.11). In other words, reciprocity and act of responding are basic principles of dialogical communication.

Instagram users can follow whoever they want and they can even communicate with the users they don't follow by means of "@". Instagram is an effective tool to reach the consumers. Today 5 million photos are shared on Instagram on a daily basis. On his book called *Instagram Power: Build Your Brand and Reach More Customers with the Power of Pictures* Miles states that today 50% of the top brands use Instagram as a marketing channel (Miles, 2013, p.11).

METHODOLOGY

The text explores dialogic communication as it is used by the accommodation sector through a content analysis of international chain hotels' and boutique hotels' Instagram pages. Considering Kent and Taylor's (1998) 5 dialogical communication elements, 10 random boutique and 10 chain hotels, which have more than 4000 followers, official Instagram accounts will be examined in the light of the principles of dialogical communication: dialogical loop, usefulness of information, generation of return visits, ease of interface and conversation of visitors.

The sample hotel chains were chosen from the list of top ten hotel groups worldwide by their current number of hotel projects Top Hotel Projects website (Top Hotels Project 2016). The Table 1 which was created with data from 'www.tophotelprojects.com' and hotels' websites shows top ten hotel groups worldwide. These hotel groups have 153 hotels totally in Turkey. These hotels' Instagram accounts were followed and analyzed during March 2016. It's seen that 114 of them have official Instagram accounts and just 9 of them have followers over 4000 (See table 2).

Table 1. Top 10 hotel groups worldwide by their current number of hotel projects

	Hotel Group/Brand	Country	Number of existing hotels in world*	Number of rooms in world*	Projects*	Number of existing hotels in Turkey**
1	Wyndham Hotel Group	USA	7,812	16,939	80	26
2	InterContinental Hotels Group PLC	United Kingdom	5,032	75,910	343	19
3	Hilton Worldwide	USA	4,525	147,985	710	39
4	Marriott International, Inc.	USA	4,200	101,646	465	10
5	AccorHotels	France	3,873	34,922	161	23
6	Carlson Rezidor Hotel Group	USA	1,370	33,396	171	12

7	Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide, Inc.	USA	1,222	116,997	475	16
8	Hyatt Hotels Corporation	USA	638	39,631	170	3
9	The Ascott Limited	Singapore	208	14,502	74	(10opening 2016)
10	Fairmont – Raffles Hotels International	USA Singapore Switzerland	115	16,008	46	5

*Source: *www.tophotelprojects.com, March 2016**Itwas obtained from each hotel's own website.*

Table 2. Selected Hotels and Their Instagram Usage

	Hotel Name	City	Number of Follower	Number of Sharing
1	Hilton Dalaman Sarigerme Resort & Spa	Mugla	4063	612
2	Crowne Plaza Istanbul - Harbiye	Istanbul	6777	137
3	Sheraton Adana Hotel	Adana	6509	592
4	Sheraton Istanbul Ataköy Hotel	Istanbul	5407	361
5	The St. Regis Istanbul	Istanbul	5875	139
6	Ramada Encore Istanbul Bayrampasa	Istanbul	17k	68
7	Radisson Blu Hotel & Spa, Istanbul Tuzla	Istanbul	10k	234
8	Raffles Istanbul	Istanbul	7736	335
9	Swissôtel The Bosphorus, Istanbul	Istanbul	4724	579
11	Katre Otel	Izmir / Alacati	14,2k	1274
12	Moyy Mini	Rize	6980	1060
13	Museum Otel	Nevsehir / Kapadokya	13k	237
14	Argos in Cappadocia	Nevsehir/ Kapadokya	10k	540
15	Kurabiye Otel	Izmir / Alacati	21,2k	316
16	Alavya Otel	Izmir / Alacati	7443	469
17	Patiska Bozcaada	Canakkale / Bozcaada	23,3k	3335
18	Casa Lavanda	Istanbul / Sile	4211	196
19	Taş Otel	Izmir / Alacati	4169	413
20	Kaikias Bozcaada	Canakkale / Bozcaada	10,2k	1593

Source: Data wasobtained fromhotels' official Instagram accounts in March.

RESULTS

In this study, Instagram accounts of 9 hotel chains belonging 10 largest hotel group and 10 boutique hotels chosen at random have been analyzed comparatively in the axis of dialogical communication principles. Taking the Instagram accounts which have been analyzed comparatively, into account, it has been observed that boutique hotels use their Instagram accounts actively, thus constituting an open, direct and close communication with their followers. On the other hand, it has been seen that chain hotels have fewer followers and they prefer to have a one way communication with their followers. In the light of this in depth analyses, it has been concluded that the communication that followers do not abide by dialogical communication principles whereas this situation is just the opposite for boutique hotels.

CONCLUSION

Hotels are service oriented organizations, which depends on building relationships between service providers and customers. Hotel chains need to have strong relationships with their customers to obtain competition advantage. Hoteliers need to focus on customer interaction to enhance service experience. At this point, communication with customer is important because communication helps organization to understand customer and to satisfy customer needs. If a customer is happy with an experience at a hotel, she/he may come again and again, and thus loyalty will be achieved. Communication with customer should be maintained at every stage of service. It is starting with the hotel online. Thus, the hotel industry uses dialogic principles to create relationships and obtain loyal customers, which in turn equals competition advantage and more revenue.

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The Impact of Authentic Leadership on Organizational Commitment, Ethical Climate and Organizational Performance

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership plays a key role in hotels as it determines the organizational culture, the policies, rules and values that will be followed and sets the path to a successful hotel performance. Out of the various leadership styles that exist, e.g. transformational, transactional, etc., one type of leadership that has hardly been examined by the hotel literature is the authentic leadership and its impact on various aspects of hotel operations. The purpose of this study is to bridge this gap by investigating how authentic leadership relates to organizational commitment and to what extent it can create a positive ethical climate in hotels and affect their organizational performance. Studies that took place in other non-hospitality-related fields and tested some of these relationships, such as Blake, Blayney, Loera, Rowlett, and Schmidt's (2012) study, which revealed that authentic leadership supports a healthy work environment, showed that authentic leadership does have the power to determine key operational factors in organizations. Based on these facts, the researchers argue that this could also occur in hotel settings. Actually, this critical assumption initiated the need for the current study. Taking into consideration that this study is among the first attempts to explore the impact of authentic leadership on hotels, increases considerably its importance and significance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature has defined authentic leadership, organizational commitment, ethical climate and organizational performance in various ways and through different approaches. According to Luthans and Avolio (2003) authentic leadership is defined "as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a

highly developed organizational context which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p. 243). Whereas, Walumbwa et al. (2008) defined authentic leadership "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" (p. 94).

Organizational commitment is defined as a relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Other researchers described organizational commitment as having the ability to work like a "psychological bond" to the company that influences people to act according to what is best for the company and its interests (Mowday & McDade, 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Organizational commitment is a key factor when it comes to understanding and explaining the work-related behaviors of employees in organizations (Lee, 2000).

Victor and Cullen (1988) defined ethical climate as "the prevailing perceptions of typical organizational practices and procedures that have ethical content" (p. 101). The importance of fostering an ethical climate in organizations is immense as it drives their values and encourages expected behaviors which ultimately influence the ethics of the employees involved (Verbeke, Ouwerkerk, & Peelen, 1996). Furthermore, Valentine and Barnett (2003) found that employees of any type prefer working in companies that have a positive ethical climate. This is a critical piece of information for hotels as it would help them tackle one of their major problems, the high employee turnover rates. Therefore, it is important to examine exactly how authentic leadership might help create a positive ethical climate in hotels and, in turn, lead to this result.

Singh, Darwish, Costa, and Anderson (2012) define organizational performance in terms of financial indicators, i.e. profits, sales, return on assets or investment or capital market outcomes: market share, Tobin's q, stock price, and growth" and note that it could be "judged by individual and institutional investors by quarterly net profit results; this is now a fairly established practice that can be evidenced almost daily in business news section of the media" (p. 656). Additionally, Dyer and Reeves (1995) argued that human resource outcomes, e.g. absenteeism, turnover and individual or group performance as well as organizational outcomes, e.g. productivity, quality and service, define and determine organizational performance.

The literature offers a number of studies which demonstrated a positive linkage between a leadership style and organizational commitment such as Keskes' (2014). Nelson et al. (2014) in their study of nurses found that authentic leadership not only positively impacts the work climate, but also increases nurses' levels of psychological well-being at work. Several studies found that supportive and

participative leadership styles are positively related to organizational performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Zehir, Ertosun, Zehir, & Muceldili, 2014). The current study proposes that similarly to other leadership styles, authentic leadership will also have a positive relationship with organizational commitment, help foster a positive ethical climate and positively impact hotel performance.

Conceptual Model

The purpose of this study is to theorize and test a model of the impact of authentic leadership on organizational commitment, hotel ethical climate, and organizational performance in hotel settings. The model is represented in Figure 1.

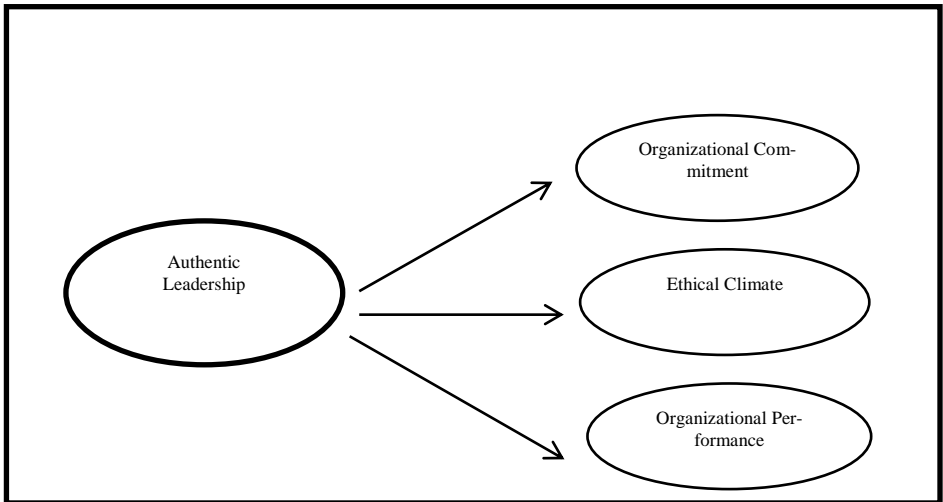


Figure 1. Research Framework

Hypotheses

The current study aims to test the following hypotheses:

- H*₁: Authentic leadership will impact the organizational commitment of hotel employees.
- H*₂: Authentic leadership will impact the ethical climate of the hotel.
- H*₃: Authentic leadership will impact the hotel's performance.

METHODOLOGY

The population of this study will be hotel managers and employees who work in various hotel segments (midscale, upscale, luxury, etc.) in the United States. Based on their responses, this study will assess how authentic leadership impacts organizational commitment, hotel ethical climate, and organizational performance.

The researchers are planning to collect data from a total of three hundred (300) hotel managers and employees working in the United States. A paper-based questionnaire will be mailed to hotels. The printed questionnaires will also be translated in Spanish as a large number of people employed in hotels in the U.S. speak Spanish. Therefore, back translation will also be implemented. The researchers will contact the Human Resources managers of all hotels in the sampling frame to ask for permission to disseminate the questionnaires. Once permission is granted, the questionnaires will be mailed to them for distribution to the various hotel departments. The completed questionnaires will be mailed back to the researchers. The questionnaire will contain five sections and will be based on 5-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The authentic leadership will be measured through the use of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) which consists of four dimensions: a) self-awareness, b) balanced processing, c) transparency, and d) internalized moral perspective (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). The nine-item version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire created by Mowday et al. (1979) will be used to measure the organizational commitment in this study. The ethical climate scale which was based on work by Qualls and Puto (1989) will be used to measure the ethical climate. The scale that Zehir, Ertosun, Zehir, and Muceldili (2011) used to measure the organizational performance will be adapted in this study. The fifth section will refer to demographic information of the respondents.

SPSS 20 software will be used to analyze the data. Reliability and validity of the measures will be assessed. Coefficient alphas will be studied to test the reliability of each measure. Confirmatory factor analysis will also be used to test the convergent and discriminant validity. Hypotheses will be tested through the use of regression analyses.

CONCLUSION

Non-hospitality-related research indicates that authentic leadership can influence working environment, organizational commitment, and organizational performance. This proposed study will hopefully support the idea that authentic leadership, if implemented in hotels, will yield results similar to those reported for other fields. More specifically, industry professionals who will take the lead in hotels and decide to promote and adapt authentic leadership in the places they will be hired to work at will have a very strong possibility of generating high levels of organizational commitment for managers and employees, fostering a positive ethical climate where employees will be happy and satisfied to work in, and also bring a positive change in the organizational performance of the hotel company. If the results of this study turn out to support the hypotheses, this may create new options for how hotels should manage their properties. It will also contribute to solutions for how to effectively tackle significant operational problems and challenges that the hotel industry is currently facing. The importance of this study may be im-

mense as it will set the foundation for a very different kind of leadership style that is genuine, authentic and will lead the hotel industry to new levels of success.

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"Keeping up Appearances": The Emotional Work of Tourists

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INTRODUCTION

From a sociological perspective it is widely recognised that in any social setting there are emotions that should be felt or expressed and individuals are socialised to experience and display appropriate emotion norms for a given situation. Failure to comply can lead to formal or informal social sanctions. Emotion management stems from the idea that these 'feeling rules' (Hochschild, 1983) influence the process by which people actively manage and express emotions. Emotion management is then the effort directed towards the production of suitable emotions (Bolton and Boyd, 2003) and is used to realign non-normative feelings and expressions to the cultural norm.

Hochschild's (1983) seminal work distinguished between emotion management and emotional labour arguing that the latter possessed a commercial value. The concept of 'emotional labour' and the notion that organisations have norms about the emotions that employees are expected to display has become an area of interest for tourism researchers. This is not surprising given that "*the display of employees' positive emotions is directly related to customers' positive affect and evaluations of performance*" (Constanti & Gibbs, 2005, p.104). Research studies have explored different employee contexts, emotion labour strategies and the consequences for employees in performing emotion labour. A key argument from these studies is that employees are active, skilled emotion managers and emotion control is code for being 'professional' (Hochschild 1983).

In the focus on how emotion management works from an organisational perspective there is a degree of inequality (Tumbat, 2011) and the role of the tourist has been neglected. For instance, given that holidays take place in a social setting emotion norms exist for all participants. Furthermore within the marketing literature it is widely agreed that experiences are co-created or co-produced which suggests emotion management of tourists is as important as that of employees. Holidays are also social experiences and are most frequently enjoyed in the company of others and as with any behavioural norm, "*others may deliberately encourage,*

discourage, or mould our emotions to fit the situation" (Francis, 1997:153). They are also emotional experiences (Hosany & Gilbert, 2013) and whilst tourists may wish for only positive emotions the experience can trigger both positive and negative emotions which fluctuate over time and in intensity (Coghlan & Pearce, 2009; Hosany & Gilbert, 2013; Nawijn, 2010).

Furthermore Laurier (2007, p.204) argues that "*leisure is constructed around notions of appropriate emotions, having a bad time is the ultimate failure of precious investment given over to leisure"* and in his auto-ethnographic study of yacht cruising he noted the considerable amount of effort required to keep up the appearance of having a good time, to maintain a sense of a defined situation and to 'fit' within the constructed boundaries of appropriate behaviour. However with the exception of Tumbat (2011) and Malvini Redden (2012) little is known about the emotion management of tourists.

This paper will provide insight into the emotion management of tourists. The aim is to show how tourists are similarly skilled emotion managers and in the same way that emotional control is code for being 'professional' for employees (Hochschild 1983), this paper will demonstrate that appropriate control of one's emotions is a key element of the performance in the role of a tourist. The paper also explores the notion of emotion as an interactional phenomenon and will explore the process by which others shape, work, or manage our emotions; how interpersonal emotion management is accomplished.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the rich body of literature on emotion management various different service contexts have been explored. It would be impossible to review all studies due to space constraints and so instead this review will highlight some key areas of study. Primarily these studies have focused on service employees' emotion management. More specifically studies have explored the implicit and explicit emotion rules in a given context along with how these rules are communicated to employees informally via colleagues and formally through staff training and company literature. A large body of literature explores the emotion management strategies of service employees and taking a lead from Hochschild (1983) many studies acknowledge surface and deep acting strategies. Studies have also explored the negative consequences for employees of emotion labour. However the notion that emotion labour should always be perceived as having negative outcomes has been disputed (for example see Bolton and Boyd, 2003).

A rare exception to the lack of research on tourists' emotion management is a study by Tumbat (2011) which explored emotion management of both guides and customers involved in a mountain climbing expedition. Tumbat notes that in this extreme and challenging environment there is a co-dependence on one another and argues that "*customers feel that they should be and are expected to induce or suppress feelings in order to produce a proper state of mind in others and for them-*

selves" (2011, p.199). Through highlighting the emotional expectation on customers the study challenges the inequality in emotion management suggested by Hochschild (1983).

Malvini Redden (2012) also explored emotions from the customers' perspective and identified that in the context of the airport, in order to negotiate passage through the airport and interactions with security staff at various points, passengers were required to perform organisationally preferred emotions; a type of emotion labour.

Whilst these two studies make important contributions to the understanding of tourist emotion management, both were conducted in fairly extreme environments. Little is known about tourist emotion management in other, more mainstream contexts.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this paper stems from a wider research study which explored tourist evaluations of their package holiday experiences and derives from in-depth interviews with holiday-makers and from two, two week periods of observational research in mainstream holiday destinations. Interviewees were purposefully selected (Silverman, 2000) in that individuals with experience of package holidays were sought. The interviews lasted between one and three and a half hours and were conducted in the interviewees' home. With the permission of the interviewees they were data recorded. The position taken by the researcher in the interviews was akin to that of the 'traveller' (Kvale, 1996) whereby the researcher explores the unknown territory and wanders along with the participants, asking questions that lead the participant to tell their own stories of their world. The initial question was therefore designed in such a way to encourage the interview participants to talk at length about their experiences with the participants simply being asked to 'tell me about your holiday/s'. For the field research an 'active membership role' (Adler & Adler, 1987) was adopted allowing participation in the routine practices of members. Data collected included detailed turn-by-turn interactions between tourists, conversational exchanges, daily recorded notes on tourists' movements and the details of exchanges between tourists and the holiday representative.

The interview transcripts were read and then re-read in conjunction with the field notes, each time noting anything which might be of interest. Drawing on discursive psychology approaches (see Potter & Edwards, 2001) focus was afforded to how emotions were described and what actions these descriptions performed. Naturally however, the way in which data is analysed depends upon the questions being asked and so the analysis was guided by questions relating to the rule system in use for appropriate emotional expression, the strategy used to manage emotions and what social and discursive functions were enabled by the emotion talk.

RESULTS

The paper highlights the emotion rules that govern the package holiday experience. Whilst it may appear an obvious statement, holidays are supposed to be enjoyable, provoking positive emotional expression and although it is appropriate to display more negative emotions at certain points these generally serve to reinforce the dominant emotional norm. Expression of negative emotions in response to certain events are tolerated, however such expressions should be short-lived in duration.

In terms of managing emotions the study found that tourists undertake various preparatory strategies and during the experience tourists suppress negative emotions in much the same way as service employees. Tourists were also found to routinely reappraise or reframe events to avoid experiencing undesired emotions or to manage those already felt. Fundamentally the findings suggest that tourists are accomplished emotion managers and appropriate control of one's emotions is a key element of the performance in the role of a tourist

During the holiday experience interpersonal emotion management also occurred through various mechanisms. For example, there were numerous instances of competitive storytelling whereby one individual described an experience which would immediately be countered by another similar, but more extreme tale, by another tourist. The portrayal of a more extreme experience realigns the speaker to a more positive stance rather than dwelling on a negative incident which potentially leads to negative emotions. Other storytelling instances socialise newcomers whilst also reaffirming the emotion norms. Another interactional mechanism observed was the 'befriending' of employees (Guerrier & Adib, 2003).

CONCLUSION

With the exception of Tumbat (2011) and Malvini Redden (2012) little is known about the emotion management of tourists. This paper makes a unique contribution to the literature on emotion management by highlighting the strategies used by tourists to manage non-normative emotions. It is argued that emotion management is part of the 'work' of tourists and so just as failure of tour guides to display appropriate emotions constitutes a failure in their work role (Wong and Wang, 2009) failure to display appropriate emotions constitutes failure in the role of a tourist.

Holidays are widely accepted as providing positive psychological and physiological benefits however this may not always be the case. Just as emotion labour has been found to have negative consequences for employees (burnout, emotional exhaustion), the continued suppression of emotions to adhere to the norms of the situation may similarly have negative consequences for tourists. This is an area that needs further research.

Whilst positive emotions are for the most part, the expected norm for tourists there are exceptions to this feeling rule. This information provides a more sensitive understanding of emotions in tourism and may be useful for tourism organisations in training staff to respond with appropriate emotion displays.

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The Role of NGO's in City Marketing and Local Economic Development: The Case of Konya City, Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

City marketing is the promotion of a city, or a district within it, with the aim of encouraging certain activities to take place in. It is used to change the external perceptions of a city in order to encourage tourism, attract inward migration of residents, or enable business relocation. Today, competition between cities exists at the regional, national and international level; and is an effect of globalization (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993; Gordon, 1999; Smyth, 1994; Unusan & Sezgin, 2005; Dinnie, 2011)

NGOs in Turkey and Konya city play an important role in tourism for city marketing and its economic development. 2023 Tourism Strategy of Turkey prioritizes diversification in tourism activities, in line with the global tourism and development trends. The 2023 Tourism Strategy aims at generating employment and income increases for all segments of the society through increases in tourism revenues with a balanced use of strategic natural, cultural, historical and geographical assets and conservation (Tourism Strategy of Turkey-2023 Ministry of Culture&Tourism, 2007)

Tourism organization and governance, service quality, marketing and promotion, diversification has importance as well as support of new initiatives. This current strategy aims at institutionalizing governance structures that allow various segments of the society including NGOs, private sector and local actors into the planning and implementation processes.

Public policies on tourism are responsible for planning, economic development and promotion, while tourism marketing is responsible for attracting tourists to a destination, develop goods and services to meet their needs and also is responsible for promoting the resources of a destination.

The destinations are tourism goods difficult to control and market, due to the complexity of the different relationships in the local community and the diverse interests involved in the development and production of tourism goods. In this sense, strategies and actions should consider the wishes and needs of all participants in the tourism sector. A non-governmental organizations (NGO's) is very important for local economic development and marketing of the cities.

NGO's is a legally constituted organization created by private organizations or people with no participation or representation of any government. The increasing use of partnerships forums and NGO's and the enhanced devolution of authority to local government, potentially can reduce central government's ability to coordinate and steer tourism policy making and activities of tourism destinations and businesses, to be able to continue to prosper and achieve long-term benefits for the economic development of the cities.

METHODOLOGY

In this paper, literature reviews, in depth interviews with interest groups in tourism sector in Konya were conducted and the past experiences are take in hand.

RESULTS

Konya, is the sixth largest city having 2.108.808 population, has a long and diverse cultural heritage, flourishing during the early ages. Konya carries a deep history since 9000 B.C. like Çatalhöyük. Konya has a very rich heritage such as ruins, historical and natural protected areas, caverns and civil architecture. Konya, once the capital city of Seljuk Empire, has an important tourism potential with Rumi and Nasrettin Hodja who are well known personalities worldwide.

Examination of the development of NGO's in Tourism at the Konya city shows that the first example of NGO's in Tourism was Konya Tourism Association. It was founded by Mr. Fevzi Halıcı in seventies and Association did it many beneficial non-governmental activities for developing tourism until end of 1989s. In 1989, KONTID was established by some hotel owners in Konya. It operated until 2002. Unfortunately, early examples were not very successful. In 2004, a destination management organisation, Konya Tourism Forum was established like similar examples of The Nova_Scotia Tourism Forum in Canada; The York City Tourism Forum in U.K. and The Pompeii Tourism Forum in Italy.

Konya Tourism Forum provided very important activities to the development of tourism and providing encouragement for new tourism investments like hotel, restaurant businesses. In fact, The Destination Management Organisations like Tourism Forums engage residents and the business community on destination stewardship. A logical extension of enhancing destination competitiveness through clusters is establishing a destination management organisation. The destination management organisations is an implementation body for the tourism strategy, offering a political continuity and integrity to the destination develop-

ment process and serving the interests of the entire value chain (Tourism Destination Management, Sustainable Tourism: International Cooperation for Development: US Agency for International Development, 2008).

Particularly, arrival of international hotel chains to Konya city opened a new era in Tourism after year of 2004. First example was The Hilton Konya.

In 2012, Konya Skal Club was established by tourism professionals under the umbrella of The Skal International and The Turkish Federation of Skal Clubs'. Skål International is a professional non-governmental organisation of tourism leaders around the world, promoting global tourism and friendship. It is the only international group uniting all branches of the travel and tourism industry. Its members, the industry's managers and executives, meet at local, national, regional and international levels to discuss and pursue topics of common interest.

Internationalisation of tourism business in the city of Konya triggered establishment of NGO's like Konya Skal Club that is implementing important activities for the development of tourism in Konya today. Consequently, new NGO's in sub-sectors of tourism started to be established.

CONCLUSION

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) has an important role in Konya City in terms of the development of tourism at the local level in past, present and future.

In order to be effective, NGO's in Tourism should:

- initiate stakeholder dialogue on community involvement in tourism development,
- recognising social and gender divisions in communities;
- promote consultation processes in tourism planning, involving local communities;
- launch educational and awareness programmes on tourism for local communities, support and promote history research and museums;
- promote the respect for indigenous peoples and local communities' self-determination, autonomy and social and cultural integrity;
- strengthen their efforts to empower disenfranchised groups (in particular women) to become involved in local tourism planning and management;
- develop participatory programmes to support the integrity of local cultures and economies;
- support the sustainable resource use and initiate environmental actions on different levels to conserve the environment while the tourism is developing;
- analyse the experience with sustainable tourism in different parts of the world, in order to disseminate methodology/positive examples of community involvement in tourism;

- support the use of traditional knowledge, practices and innovation systems relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological resources and promote actions on different;
- levels to eradicate poverty, protect human rights and conserve the environment while working in tourism (Sustainable Tourism: A Non-Governmental Organization Perspective, 1999).

Particularly development of the communication strategies by NGO's in Tourism is very important. NGOs, some important points to note before embarking on devising communication strategy:, Know its target audience, Clearly chalk out its goals:, make the communication strategy a strategic one, make sure that NGO's marketing and fundraising teams speak the same language, ensure the message has the correct pitch, make the best match of quantity and quality, choose the medium carefully is important (Arora, 2016).

To sum up, the tourism sector in Turkey has an important place in Turkey's economic development and growth policies. Sustainability of tourism has been supported by incentive policies, thus positively affecting the development. Besides, the success by NGO's in Tourism sector shows that NGO's play very important role in tourism. Particularly, in case of Konya the existence of international and national hotel chains provided professionalism to management and communication side to NGO's in Tourism.

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Relationship between Challenge and Post-Travel Culture Involvement

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INTRODUCTION

Emerging research on transformative travel suggests that challenging experiences should be actively facilitated in guided tour programs (Christie & Mason, 2003), given that they can be stimulating and enriching, and generate interest in continuous engagement with the host culture (Kanning, 2013). However, the close relationship between challenge and post-travel culture involvement has not been sufficiently researched. This paper aims to develop a conceptual framework for this relationship, drawing on theories from acculturation (Berry, 1997; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001), cognitive appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and positive psychology (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), as well as relevant literature on immersive, memorable and transformative tourist experiences. The paper concludes that acculturation process models and the stress, appraisal and coping theory are the most helpful for conceptualising this underlying relationship.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture Involvement During and After Travel

Culture involvement, also known as culture immersion, is a domain of qualitative research on backpackers, lifestyle travellers and voluntourists (Buddhabhumbhitak 2010; Coghlan & Gooch 2011). Current research on this subject has been underpinned by the contact hypothesis and has focused on tourists' immersive behaviour during travel. Emphasising the primacy of contact between

tourists and hosts, the literature maintains that people are more likely to seek cultural involvement when engaging in a participative, interactive, authentic and creative experience (Reisinger, 2013). Only then the foreign is likely to become highly personal and consequently meaningful, despite cultural differences. Personal growth and self-identity transformations are exemplified as individual-level outcomes of such tourist experiences.

There is a lack of research, however, on how individual-level changes resulting from travel continue to evolve over time. Post-travel culture involvement is a noticeable example of an insufficiently explored theme in this context. Indeed, previous studies have mainly focused on post-trip satisfaction and intentions to revisit (Kastenholz, Eusébio, & Carneiro, 2013). Published in Reisinger's (2013) timely volume on transformational tourism, some exceptions include the studies of Grabowski (2013) and Kanning (2013) who examine the changes experienced by tourists after they returned home, including their relationship with the places visited. This gap in research on post-travel culture involvement is not surprising, given that 'the effects of travel are often only temporary, falling by the wayside as more pertinent concerns capturing one's attention upon their return' (Lean, 2012, p. 152). As found by Raymond and Hall (2008, p. 537), even the intimate and frequent contact provided in voluntourism programs may not be enough for tourists to 'stay connected' with the destination and its culture.

In search of solutions, a growing number of scholars are recognising the need to facilitate not only pleasant and immersive but also challenging experiences. Tourists who seek deep cultural experiences are motivated by learning about others as well as themselves. As demonstrated by the rich post-travel interview data collected by Kanning (2013), improved awareness of the self and one's position in the world are accompanied by changes to cultural assumptions; increased personal relevance of what was experienced; and stronger emotional connection with the place and interest in it. The next, more advanced stage, behavioural involvement with the host culture after returning home is discussed by Grabowski (2013). She turns to acculturation theory to understand what stimulates tourists' psychological transformation, as well as adoption of foreign cultural practices into one's 'daily routine' (p. 185). Her paper shows that these changes come not with any cultural contact but with experience of associated challenges as their triggers.

The Notion of Challenge

Tourism and Leisure Studies Perspectives

Discussion of challenging experiences can be found in studies directly referring to challenge, as well as in the wider literature on difficult, demanding, uncomfortable and confusing experiences (Stebbins, 1997). Despite differences in terminology and quality of conceptualisations, most scholars posit that manageable stress is beneficial to tourists' learning. The key distinction lies in understanding what makes these experiences challenging. One subset of literature looks purely at envi-

ronmental stimuli as given sources of challenge or demand, such as a language barrier and lack of facilities (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2015). The second group also approaches challenge as a source of external demand but within broader situational context which should meet other conditions in order to be described as challenging (Tsaour, Lin, & Liu, 2013). It is this kind of research that demonstrates engagement with theory.

The main theoretical perspectives and frameworks applied in these studies include the theory of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), frameworks of memorable tourist experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), and the transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1990). The ideas of challenge-skill balance and importance of motivation, central to the flow theory, have found application in adventure tourism literature on highly risky and physically strenuous activities (Tsaour et al., 2013). Research on memorable tourist experience approaches challenge as one of its dimensions, highlighting the link between difficult experiences, long-term memory and emotional connection. The limitation, however, lies in interpreting challenge as a source of only physical demand and stimulant of improvement of physical abilities (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). What differentiates the literature on transformative or transformational tourism from the studies above is its focus on improving tourists' understanding of other cultures. It advocates for deliberate facilitation of cognitive dissonance and disorienting dilemmas to challenge tourists' cultural assumptions and stimulate attitude and behaviour change (Christie & Mason, 2003). The research also highlights the crucial role of on-tour support of ongoing critical reflection and dialogue.

Cognitive Appraisal and Acculturation Psychology Perspectives

As already highlighted, acculturation psychology is another discipline that explores difficult cultural encounters and their positive change outcomes related to involvement with host cultures (Berry, 1997). It examines how behavioural and attitudinal orientations towards host cultures change along two dimensions, host culture immersion and home culture maintenance, in response to the external environment. The two most widely applied models belong to Berry (1997) and Ward et al. (2001).

In particular, Berry's (1997) model of the acculturative stress process interprets acculturation attitudes and behaviours as coping responses to external stressors. Depending on whether or not the stress presented by the demands of intercultural contact is manageable, travellers choose an appropriate bidimensional strategy. When demands are too high, they decide to separate or marginalise, and when stress is manageable, assimilation or integration occurs. In addition, an individual's ability to deal with cultural demands is significantly moderated by a number of individual and situational-level variables. The relationship between acculturative changes and stress is underpinned by the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) on stress, appraisal and coping which was later incorporated by Lazarus (1990) into the CMR (cognitive-motivational-relational) theory. Both the-

ories position cognitive appraisal as a process, mediating the relationship between a stressful situation and its outcomes.

Depending on whether a potentially stressful encounter is appraised as generating harm or benefit, it is evaluated as threatening or challenging. When it imposes no demands on an individual, it is appraised as either irrelevant or benign-positive. Critically different from the current understanding of challenge in tourism literature, cognitive appraisal psychology conceptualises challenge as a stress appraisal of personal significance and a complex psychological state. This evaluation is separate from the source of stress, and Lazarus (1990, p. 82) defines it as a positive evaluation of experience as effortful, motivation-relevant and congruent, and offering opportunity for 'goal attainment or the movement toward it'. This approach emphasises the interaction between the individual and the environment (situation) and highlights the diversity of situational conditions influencing experience appraisal. Special attention is given to how a situation impinges on achieving something personal at stake and demands substantial effort for its attainment. In relation to positive change and adaptation, challenge appraisal has been linked to personal growth and expansion of one's behavioural repertoire; strong interest in the pursued activity; and feelings of eagerness and excitement. Furthermore, unlike the flow research, the CMR theory shows that skill mastery is only one of possible gains, together with knowledge and new abilities.

CONCLUSION

Although current literature shows no direct link between challenge and post-travel culture involvement, there is substantial indirect theoretical and empirical evidence to suggest that challenge can play an important role in stimulating this longer-term tourism outcome. In particular, the acculturation and cognitive appraisal theories reviewed above provide theoretical rationale for the relationships observed empirically in tourism literature, and position challenge and post-travel culture involvement within a system of variables. They also provide a more nuanced understanding of challenge than the research on flow and memorable tourist experience. As for post-travel culture involvement, it emerges as a matter of change in cultural orientations.

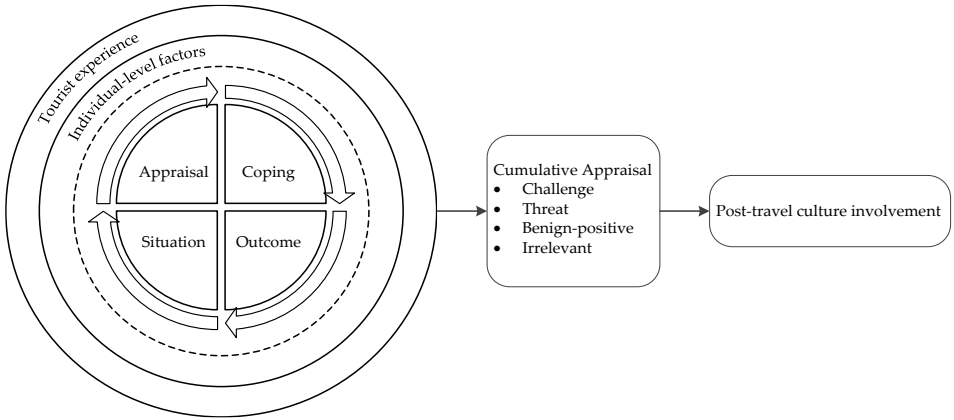


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

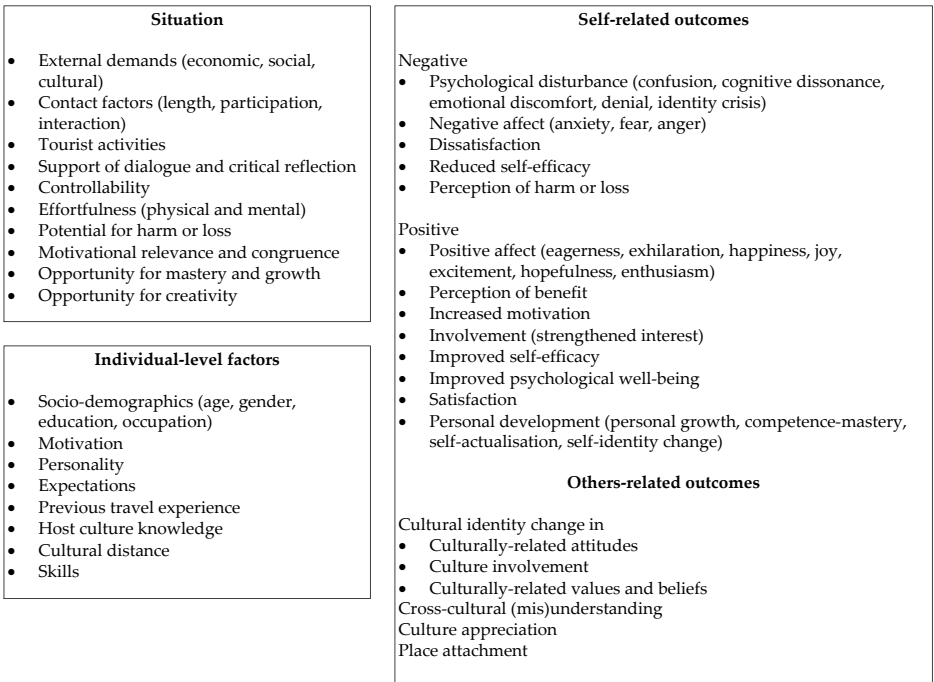


Figure 2. Situation(al) and Individual-Level Factors, and Experience Outcomes

The conceptual framework proposed in Figure 1 shows that ongoing tourist experience appraisal during a trip results in a cumulative evaluation of the overall experience. The evaluation may identify the experience as challenging, threaten-

ing, benign-positive or irrelevant, influencing post-travel culture involvement as one of experience outcomes. The circular diagram represents the overall tourist experience as a combination of all activities undertaken during a trip. It replicates the sequence of the steps in the stress and coping process but unlike the acculturation process models by Berry (1997) and Ward et al. (2001), this framework uses circular flow to illustrate that an evaluation and outcome of one situation (activity) influences the experience of the next one. This interdependence is particularly important for understanding extended trips. Figure 2 breaks down the 'situation' and 'outcome' stages into key factors relating to the experience context and types of outcomes which can develop to various degrees both during and after travel. It also lists individual-level factors the continuous influence of which on the experience is communicated by the dashed circle surrounding the stress and coping process as a symbolic 'frame of mind'.

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‘Time’ to Explore the Theoretical Underpinnings of Last Chance Tourism

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INTRODUCTION

Various terms have been used, sometimes interchangeably, to describe people visiting places or objects that are in danger of disappearing. These include, climate tourism and extinction tourism (Leahy, 2008), doom or doomsday tourism (Salkin, 2007), and ‘last chance to see’ (Hall & Saarinen, 2010). More recently the preferred label that has emerged is ‘last chance tourism’ (LCT) (Lemelin et al. 2010). To date, most of the research conducted in LCT is descriptive, usually based on one particular species such as polar bears (Lemelin & Wiersma, 2007), or considering tourism in a particular fragile environment i.e. the Polar Regions (Eijgelaar, Thaper & Peeters, 2010). Whilst an important body of literature has emerged, LCT currently lacks theoretical underpinnings, and we also suggest there is more to LCT than disappearing environments or species. Examples could also include the expected change in political regimes, such as Cuba, visiting people before they die, such as friends and relatives, or musical and other performers, and places where social change is occurring due to developing economies, or even seeing a destination before it gets too commercialised or making a point of seeing a show before the run ends. We argue that it is critically important to conceptualise LCT in the context of ‘time’, which has received little attention in the study of tourism (Urry, 2000). Given LCT is dependent of the belief that time is running out and that tourism might facilitate “last chance to see” experiences, an analysis of the way time should be conceptualised in tourism is required in order to advance the theoretical positioning of LCT.

LITERATURE REVIEW

For many visitors to 'doomed' places the motivation is loss aversion. Kahneman and Tversky (1982) showed that losses have more significance than gains. LCT seems to suggest that losing something before one has been able to experience it is even more dissatisfying. Blavatsky (2011) developed a model that extended notions of loss to include loss that may not have a monetary value and concluded that "traditional definitions of comparative loss aversion...necessarily imply risk aversion" (pp. 140-1) and that a more risk averse an individual is, also the more loss averse. For LCT this may result in an awkward paradox. Many LCT destinations are in areas that would not appeal to risk averse individuals. Additionally, a sense of impending loss is directly related to time.

Time is a seriously lacking area of investigation in tourism, though it is a fundamental concept, for LCT, which cannot exist without some sort of conceptualisation of time. Hall's (2009) analysis of the literature of time in tourism focuses on two main forms of time. The first is what he calls 'physical time', or 'clock' time, which is made up of discrete units, and is traditionally considered linear. The second form is 'social time' which emphasises "the content of time". He argues that tourism is dependent on time and space, and the movements within these. Technology has allowed for an extension of the time budget as well as the monetary budget.

What Hall does not consider is Bergson's concept of *durée*, or subjective time. "People should be viewed as in time rather than time being thought of as some discrete element or external presence." (Urry, 2000, p.116). The consequence of *durée* is that the past and the future are created in the present by the individual. O'Driscoll and Rizzo (1985) use the analogy of a piece of music to illustrate this. Each note is heard in a separate instant of time but the music only has meaning when all the instances are put together. The present becomes an aggregate of all the pasts in which each note existed. The future also changes and various pasts are accumulated with different levels of knowledge and awareness. An individual's perception of the future changes as the present changes. With the change in perception comes a change in behaviour, or at least in choices made.

Developing a theoretical basis for LCT

Whilst LCT is dependent of conceptualisations of loss aversion and on time, there are a number of other characteristics that need to be taken into account before a model for LCT can be created. These we identify as the parameters of LCT. There are four main parameters of LCT. First the global: Some events that would be attractive to last chance tourists are of a global nature, whilst others are local. It may be the last chance to see a particular kind of site anywhere in the world. Alternatively, a type of attraction may only be disappearing in one place. Second, the level of interest: Only a few individuals may want to see a particular place or object whilst many more may go to an iconic site. Third, is personal: On the de-

mand side an individual may be want to make a visit before they are unable to for health or income reasons. At the other end of the spectrum would be a belief that some external factor, such as relative cost, may prevent travel in the future. Fourth are social constraints: these range from no external social control to absolute social control. An individual may believe that they will be inhibited from some forms of travel in the future. On a more general level social attitudes towards flying may change because of the belief that it contributes to climate change.

What all the last chance parameters have in common is the sense of time running out. On the supply side the destination or attraction may soon disappear. On the demand side is the belief that travel will not be possible. This is Heidegger's time horizon or his "anticipation of death as the transcendental horizon of human temporality" (Urry, 2000, p. 115). With LCT the death is not (just) of the individual but also of the toured object. It could be argued that inanimate objects also have 'being' because non-human entities have a presence in human experience. An object's being is created through meaning (Douglas & Isherwood, 1996; McCracken, 1986). The degree of meaning will dictate the level of loss and the impact of the 'horizon of temporality', as well as the level of demand.

Deckers (2005) takes this argument further by illustrating that the value of incentives for a particular action are determined by the size of the incentive and the time delay involved. Current behaviour is affected by the return on an action and the time it takes to realise that return. As the delay interval decreases incentive increases. In terms of LCT the delay interval is the time that is available to visit a particular destination.

More complications occur when considering two incentives. Generally people prefer larger incentives over smaller ones. They also prefer more immediate incentives to distant ones. The acceptance of a smaller reward rather than a larger reward occurs when the smaller reward is imminent. For LCT, tourists may visit somewhere with a smaller reward if they believe that that site will disappear in the immediate future.

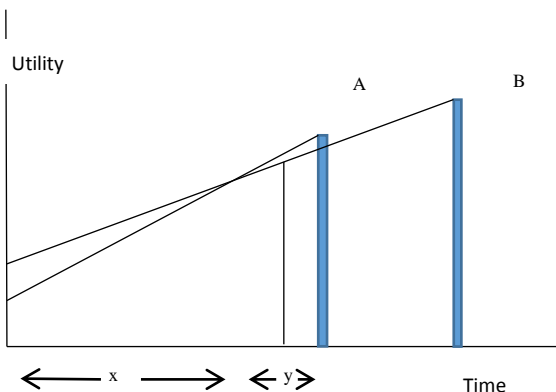


Figure 1. Time Event Horizon and Changing Utility of Visit

In Fig 1 the utility gained from two possible visits, A and B, changes over time. Whilst the absolute utility from destination B is always greater than from destination A, the time horizon for destination A is closer than that of destination B. Consequently, as the last chance to visit destination A nears, the utility gained from visiting destination A, in time period y , is greater than that of destination B.

CONCLUSION

Up to now LCT has been defined as seeing something before it disappears. We have included doing or experiencing something before the opportunity disappears. This extension of the definition is important because it allows for the inclusion of the individual into the conceptualisation of LCT and, consequently, a more coherent and complete understanding of the demand side of this type of tourism. Whilst the supply of a particular type of attraction or destination may disappear, that, on its own, is not enough. What is important is the effective demand for visiting such sites. For both the continued existence of the attraction and the ability of an individual to visit a site, time is the key to understanding the demand and motivation for travelling. Perception of time, or the lack of it, changes how the prospective tourist perceives the value of the visit. For many prospective destinations there is uncertainty about the length of time left to see them, just as there may be uncertainty about whether the change will be gradual, or cataclysmic. Similarly, an individual tourist does not know when factors such as age or health will prevent travel.

In short, an individual who exhibits a sense of impending loss for an attraction is likely to spend more in terms of both time and money in order to see the site before it changes than they would to see a newly created version of that site. The theory on loss aversion suggests that those who are more loss averse are likely to obtain greater utility from visiting doomed sites. By understanding the parameters of this type of tourism it is easier to understand the form that a particular example of LCT is taking. The four parameters presented here also illustrate potential contradictions. As the desire to see an example of LCT increases with the growing perception that time is running out, so too may some of the social constraints on air travel increase, for example. How these factors work together, and the consequence on actual travel will change over time.

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Tourists' Ethical Decision Making

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the exponential growth of tourism, concerns regarding the social responsibility of individuals and organizations involved in tourism have been raised. A proliferation of codes of ethics and sustainability toolkits and certification schemes have been designed to direct tourism organizations towards a more ethical operation. However, the role of tourists as agents of ethical decision-making has been paid less attention to. Indeed, tourism has been discussed as a predominantly hedonistic endeavor which promotes subterranean values and dubious behaviors that are repressed in the usual place of residence (McKercher, 2015; Seliinniemi, 2003). Thus, it is perceived that tourists are more likely to exhibit unethical and deviant behavior during travel than at home. Tourists are also likely to employ various normalization tactics to justify such behavior (McKercher, Weber & du Cros, 2008).

There is a continuously growing body of knowledge related to the ethical decision making process. Normative ethical theories of teleology, deontology, virtue ethics and ethics of justice are often employed to determine what action may be deemed ethical (Fennell, 2006a; Schumann, 2001). Tourism and tourist behaviour is especially relevant from a cultural relativist perspective. Ethical relativism stipulates that there is no universal truth regarding what is right is what is wrong, because different societies and cultures have different understandings about what constitutes an ethical action (Velasquez, 2002). Due to inter-cultural nature of tourism different ethical perspectives may clash within a destination.

The present study contributes to the important, but somewhat under-researched area of ethics in tourism, in particular to the understanding of tourist ethical decision making process. The present study employs various ethical theories in order to explain tourist decision-making process. Moreover, it addresses the question of relativist nature of ethics and tests whether tourists are likely to demonstrate deviant behaviour in the place of residence or during travel.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The present study is predominantly informed by the normative ethics: the branch of ethics that studies how to make moral decisions. Although, cultural relativism is usually discussed in terms of the metaethics: the nature of morality, the present study is more concerned with its normative aspect as guiding the moral decision-making rather than the metaethical debate of relativity versus universality of morality (Gensler, 2011). Normative ethics include a variety of ethical theory. Two largest groups of conflicting ethical theories are teleology, i.e. an action is judged as moral based on its consequences, and deontology, actions are moral or immoral in themselves irrespective of the consequences. There are two branches of teleology (Clark & Dawson, 1996). The first, Utilitarianism is concerned with consequences of actions. Individuals should act so as to produce the greatest good for the greatest number. It is more other-person focused. Egoism, the other form of teleology is concerned with the consequences for the individual. Deontology is concerned with the concept of 'doing the right thing' because it is the right thing to do (Hunt & Vitell, 1986). Kant (1797) was one of the theorists of deontology and proposed ethical judgment based on the application of an action as a universal law. Kantian deontology is also a basis of contractualism whereby individuals within a society agree to act with respect towards each other and maintain social contract. Another group of normative ethics is ethics of justice. Ethics of justice are related to fairness, including fair benefit distribution, to human rights, and to positive laws (legal system) (Hansen, 1992). Virtue ethics derive from the ancient Greek philosophy, where actions are judged as moral based on whether they demonstrate that a person undertaking such action possesses good character traits (virtues) (Fennell, 2006a; Gensler, 2011).

METHODOLOGY

Few studies of tourist ethics have been undertaken to date. The literature review for the present study has not yield any examples of analysis of ethical decision making among different tourist segments. The present study uses a Multidimensional Ethics Scale (MES) developed by Reidenbach and Robin (Reidenbach & Robin, 1988, 1990). A 10 item 7-point semantic differential scale was developed to assess the perception of the respondents regarding how ethical the activities were. Table 1 presents the scale and the ethical theory behind each measurement:

Table 1. Multidimensional Ethics Scale used in the present study

Ethical scale	Ethical theory
Fair / Unfair	Ethics of Justice
Acceptable / Unacceptable in my culture	Relativism
Acceptable / Unacceptable for me if there is no punishment	Egoist Teleology
Acceptable / Unacceptable to my friends and family	Relativism
Based / Not based on sound judgment	Egoist Teleology
Personally / Not personally satisfying and pleasurable	Egoist Teleology
OK / Not OK if it can be justified by positive consequences	Utilitarianism
Does not / Does compromise important principles by which I live	Deontology
Does not / Does violate established social norms	Contractualist Deontology
Morally / Not morally right	Deontology

As with previous research, a typical method to evaluate ethics is to present respondents with a brief scenario in which a ethically questionable behavior is described (Mudrack & Mason, 2013). Five different scenarios of ethical behavior were tested. The scenarios can be applied to behavior that can be done both at home and while on vacation. The scenarios were chosen to represent actions of different moral intensity as per Jones (1991). The scenarios also represent the activities of dubious nature that are often associated with tourism. The scenarios are 1) knowingly purchasing a counterfeit handbag at an open-air market 2) disorderly conduct in public due to drunkenness 3) jumping the queue so that there is no need to wait in line for entry into a restaurant / attraction 4) the possibility of the respondent lying about the age of a child in the travel party so they qualify for entry into an amusement park with a child price and 5) engaging the services of a prostitute. The research has been undertaken in Hong Kong as the issue of unethical behaviour among visitors of different backgrounds, especially from Mainland China, has been highly debated in the recent years (Cornwall, 2014; Lai & Lam, 2015). Hong Kong has been continuously described as an “East Meets West” destination, thus it is highly suitable for a cross-cultural study.

The data collection method used involved in-person intercept surveys among the three cohorts: Hong Kong residents, Mainland Chinese tourists and ‘western’ international tourists. A total of 1,827 surveys were completed. A stratified sampling technique was employed to ensure representative samples based on age and gender for the three cohorts.

RESULTS

The results demonstrate significant differences among the respondents’ perceptions of how ethical each scenario is. The differences are also evident when respondents are asked to employ different ethical theories. Moreover, there are sig-

nificant differences between the three cohorts: Hong Kong residents, Mainland tourists and International tourists.

Overall, engaging the services of a prostitute is considered the least ethical, followed by cutting the queue, lying about child age and disorderly conduct due to drunkenness. Purchase of counterfeit products is considered the least unethical overall. The mean scores for all scenarios except purchase of counterfeit products is below 3.5 signifying that respondents perceived the scenarios as rather unethical than ethical.

Respondents were not very likely to participate in the deviant behavior neither at home nor on vacations. Nevertheless, significant differences have emerged within and between scenarios. Among the presented actions, respondents were most likely to participate in purchase of counterfeit products both on vacations and at home. Mainland Chinese tourists were more likely than international tourists and Hong Kong residents to participate in three out of five activities: purchase of counterfeit products, cutting the queue and lie about the age of a child. International tourists were more likely to behave disorderly due to drunkenness and engage services of a prostitute. International tourists were less likely to purchase counterfeit products than the other two groups, as well as lie about a child's age. Hong Kong residents were comparatively less likely to behave disorderly due to drunkenness, cut the queue and engage the services of a prostitute. In all cases, while the absolute results for the "on vacation" versus "at home" scenarios were different, the differences were not high enough for different ranking to occur between three respondent cohorts.

CONCLUSION

Attitude towards and participation in unethical behavior appears to depend on a scenario presented to respondents. The results and the pattern of MES responses varied between scenarios. Jones (1991) and Mudrack & Mason (2013) suggested that the importance of scenarios presented to respondents in ethical judgment studies is often overlooked. Nevertheless, the scenarios and the context in which study takes place has a great impact on the results. As Mudrack & Mason (2013, p.591) state: "Ethical judgments do not occur in isolation". For example, it is to be expected that from the perspective of family engaging the services of a prostitute will be considered highly inappropriate. Respondents were the least likely to engage in this behavior, yet it does not mean that friends and family have decisive role in the ethical decision making process for other activities. The second least ethical issue besides prostitution is cutting the queue. Yet the two scenarios are very different if Jones' (1991) concept of moral intensity is applied. Engaging services of a prostitute may have severe consequences on both personal (i.e. destroying a marriage or reputation loss) and societal levels (i.e. human trafficking and exploitation). Meanwhile, the result of someone cutting a queue results in a few minutes extra wait for other people in the queue. There is a lack of social consensus on the issue across nations and cultures, whereas the ambiguity regarding cut-

ting the queue is low. This may be also linked to the uncertain probability and low immediacy of effect of engaging the services of a prostitute, whereas cutting the queue has a definitive and immediate effect.

The present study contributes to the rarely researched issue of ethics in tourism. The study investigates ethical decision making among tourists from “western” countries, mainland Chinese tourists and Hong Kong residents. The results evidence that ethical decision making process cannot be divorced from the context in which the decision is to be made. Decision makers may refrain from engaging in dubious activities based on different grounds: egoism, deontology, relativism. Prostitution and cutting the queue were the two least ethical activities within the present study despite being very different as discussed earlier. The finding supports the relativist nature of ethics. On contrary, the theory that individuals are likely to engage in dubious activities on vacation rather than at home did not find strong support.

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Tourism and Peace in the Mediterranean Area: The Museums of Lanzarote and Lampedusa

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ABSTRACT

Tourism can stimulate and favour the dialogue among different cultures. Tourism, as a socio-cultural phenomenon, is a powerful means for raising awareness about cultural diversity and cultural heritage (Wohlmuther & Wintersteiner, 2014). Moreover global institutions for tourism, as well as scholars and other professionals involved in tourism industry, are becoming increasingly interested in looking at tourism's potential for peace making (Moufakkir & Kelly, 2010; Blanchard & Higgins-Desbiolles, 2013). The European Tourism Academy – in charge for proposing a European tourism strategy up to 2020 – has highlighted the role of tourism in building bridges and contributing to peace. In order to promote the use of tourism as an instrument for peace, UNWTO launched the project “Tourism and Peace” in collaboration with the Austrian Government and the University of Klagenfurt, Centre for Peace Research and Peace Education. The project was carried between 2012 and 2014.

The existing literature (for example UNWTO 2007, 2011; Wohlmuther & Wintersteiner, 2014) has highlighted the need for: raising awareness and promoting the contribution of (religious) tourism to intercultural and interfaith dialogue and understanding, and socio-economic development; developing research to improve knowledge about the characteristics, motivations and trends of different forms of religious tourism, as well as its impact on hosting communities.

Starting from these premises, the paper highlights the present and future contribution of tourism in promoting intercultural dialogue and peace education and encouraging cultural pluralism on all levels.

In such a framework the paper will dwell upon some innovative practices of tourism and heritage enhancement based on socio-cultural awareness: the “Museo Atlantico”, a new underwater museum in Lanzarote, Canarias Islands (Spain), hosting underwater sculptures of the refugees and migrants arriving at Lampedusa; and the coming “Museo della Fiducia e del Dialogo Mediterraneo” (Museum of Trust and Mediterranean Dialogue) on the island of Lampedusa (Italy), with items from the Bardo Museum of Tunis (Tunisia), which was hit by terrorist attacks. These museums, which offer multi sensorial experiences, are expression of global trends in heritage and tourism (Marra, Ruspini, 2010; Melotti, 2014). Nevertheless, they invite visitors to reflect on the complex relationships between migration, peace and tourism as well as on the new migration processes and on the new fears, which are deeply transforming the Mediterranean area and its cultural heritage.

The paper is part of an ongoing interdisciplinary research project carried out at LIST (Laboratorio Internazionale di Studi sul Turismo/International Atelier on Tourism Studies, University of Milano-Bicocca) by the three authors, which seeks to identify the role of tourism in promoting intercultural dialogue in Italy and in Europe.

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Local People's Perception on the Importance of Traditions in Ecotourism Development in Subatan, Iran

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, the impacts of ecotourism development have received increasing attention in studies but the importance of traditions on related development still remains mysterious. This paper examines the importance of cultural and religious tradition on the subject of ecotourism development in Subatan village of Lisar (a protected area) placed in northeastern Iran. Few studies have examined whether or not there is relationship between local people's traditions and their support toward ecotourism development. Recently, in addressing the significant points associated with traditions, academic community has drawn attention to tourists' attitudes toward indigenous people traditions and its impacts on their support to ecotourism development. According to UNWTO, "respecting and preserving the traditions and property of local populations is an important aspect to consider in terms of today's globalization" (2012, p. 100). The focus of this study is to examine the impact of cultural and religious traditions on local residents' perspective toward ecotourism development in Subatan. The paper begins with a literature review about traditions and inhabitants' insight to eco-tourism development. It is followed by reviewing research method and results. In final part, conclusion and implications are presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

'Tradition' is described in many ways in literature. According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005), 'Tradition' is a set of belief, custom, or way of doing something that has existed for a long time among a particular group of people. It could be included religious, cultural, etc. traditions. With respect to the significant points associated with tourism and indigenous people traditions, Wall and Long (1996) assert that the indigenous people are using their unique tradition, including traditional culture, knowledge etc. to provide a sociocultural experience to the tourist. It is important to note that there is an extensive debates in tourism literature regarding the complex relationship between tourism and cultural traditions. For instance, as Joseph and Kavoori (2001) have argued that the link between

tourism and culture is a multifaceted and nuanced one in that it is mediated even while it is resisted rhetorically. Recently, from a comprehensive perspective, Xu, Cui, Sofield and Li stated that "... cultural factors play a significant role in ecotourism development both from the supply side and the demand side" (2014, p. 1132). They emphasize that earlier researchers have found that traditional culture plays a key role in Chinese ecotourism.

Currently, there is considerable proliferation and variety of arguments on how local traditions are to be respected and preserved regarding tourism development. Special emphasis is placed on the understanding the critical link between tourism development and residents' perception. In ecotourism literature, the issue of the importance of traditions remains unclear because of diversity of local communities' characteristics. For example, Kayat (2002) conducted a study among the residents on Langkawi Island, Malaysia, to evaluate residents' assessment of the impacts of tourism and its effects on their attitude. He pointed out that residents who depend on tourism have a tendency to focus more on economic returns than even religion and retaining their cultures. In contrast, Joseph and Kavoori (2001) intended to present a framework for recognizing the impact of Western tourism in the context of Hindu religious community. They explained that "locally, tourism as perceived as a threat to 'tradition' and religion even while a large segment of the population is dependent on its economic benefits" (2001, p. 998).

Using a broad view, Stronza and Gordillo argued that "anthropologists have long pointed to the need to pay greater attention to values, social relations, and institutions, as opposed to just economic change, in conservation projects" (2008, p. 452). In line with the tourism development, Wang and Pfister argued that, "in the examination of attitudes, researchers recognized that residents' attitudes towards tourism are not simply the reflection of residents' knowledge about tourism impacts but also influenced by residents values and personality..." (2008, p. 85).

This paper examines inhabitants' perspective on the subject of ecotourism development focusing cultural and religious traditions in Subatan, Iran.

METHODOLOGY

The present research considers the Subatan as site study since it is a protected area with variety resources which is attractive for ecotourism. On the other hand, local people of the Subatan have strongly religious beliefs. It is important to mention that cultural and religious traditions are significant to them. This section presents the proposed conceptual frame work developed based on earlier studies (Figure 1). Then, considering the objectives of this study and the literature which has been reviewed, six hypothesis have been formulated.

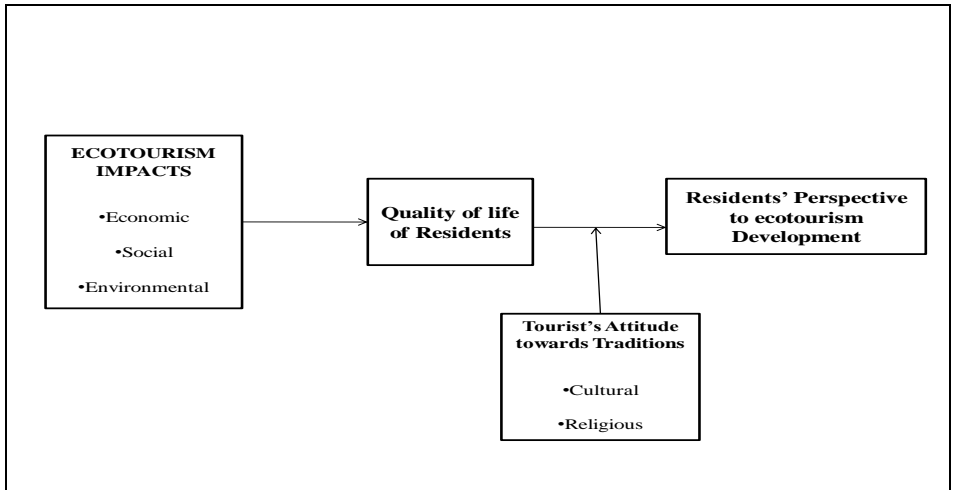


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study

Hypothesis that assumed to be relevant to this paper are presented in the following.

- H0: There is no relationship between tourists' attitude towards cultural traditions and local resident perspectives on ecotourism development.
- H1: There is positive relationship between tourists' attitude towards cultural traditions and local resident perspectives on ecotourism development.
- For tourists' attitude towards religious traditions,
- H0: There is no relationship between tourists' attitude towards religious traditions and local resident perspectives on ecotourism development.
- H1: There is positive relationship between tourists' attitude towards religious traditions and local resident perspectives on ecotourism development.

For this study, primary and secondary data collected in Subatan on April 2013. For collecting primary data, a survey with 231 respondents was conducted in Subatan village. The survey questionnaire included five parts. The 5-point Likert questions collected information about tourists' attitude towards cultural and religious tradition followed by a set of questions regarding residents' perspective on ecotourism development in Subatan. Then, respondents were asked their views about the type of tourist and its development. Demographic information of respondents was provided as the final point.

RESULTS

This study examined the existence relationship between ecotourism impacts, traditions and local residents' perspective on ecotourism development. To test the hypotheses of this study, path analysis has been used. SEM was conducted since it has a multivariate statistical method often applied to confirm the casual relationship between latent variables. With reference to Path analysis results, it was identified that Sig is less than 0.05 in confidence level of 95%. Regarding the aforementioned hypothesis, summary of the model is presented in Table1.

Table 1. Summary of the Model (Mediators)

Mediator Variables	β	Dependent Variable
Cultural	.116	Perspective on ecotourism development
Religious	.283	

This paper presents the outcomes of analysis regarding the relationship between traditions and local residents' perspective toward ecotourism development. The results of this study demonstrate that tourists' attitude towards cultural tradition has influence on indigenous' view on ecotourism development. Moreover, the result showed that tourists' attitude towards religious traditions had significant influence on local residents' perspective on ecotourism development.

CONCLUSION

The investigation reported in this paper represents the relationship between tourists' attitude toward cultural and religious tradition and its influence on local residents' view toward ecotourism development. This study has assessed Subatan as a remote ecotourism destination using a framework that examined relationships among ecotourism impacts, cultural and religious traditions, and ecotourism development. This study showed that religious beliefs affect the attitudes and behaviors' of residents in destinations in which religion is a main social factor. Moreover, it is revealed that in order to enjoy local support for ecotourism development, it is imperative to consider their traditional rights.

Very few studies have explored the local's perceptions regarding visitor's attitude toward traditions, and its affect on their view on ecotourism development. This study makes an important contribution to the ecotourism literature by providing evidence that empirically investigated indigenous perspectives regarding the critical role of cultural and religious tradition on the subject of ecotourism development. Consequently, the findings of this study offer theoretical and managerial implications to address ecotourism development in the protected area, particularly in Subatan. The study has extended the existing body of knowledge, particularly to the literature of ecotourism in protected area. Importantly, the results of this research will provide imperative information for destination managers and

ecotourism providers to consider conservation of traditions in ecotourism development planning, particularly in Iran.

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Creating Value for Restaurant Customer: The Role of Other Customers in Dining Experience

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INTRODUCTION

Turkey has experienced tremendous growth in the food industry during recent years. In 2015, Turkish food and beverage sector has reached up to \$300 billion market with 40,000 companies in the sector (USDA, 2015). Several factors explain the increased motivation of Turkish people to dine out more often. These factors are mainly; increasing participation of women in the labor force, longer workdays, growing number of households living on at least two-income sources, decreasing household sizes, urbanization, growth in tourism, longer life expectation, increasing education level of consumers, increasing per capita income, and increasing number of restaurants (Akbay, Tiryaki, & Gul, 2007).

As dining out has gained importance in people's lives, planning and managing various restaurant attributes are much more crucial for the restaurant business in hospitality industry. To understand customer satisfaction in restaurants and how satisfaction affects post-consumption behaviors of customers, different restaurant attributes are identified in previous studies (Ha & Jang, 2010; Sulek & Hensley, 2004). These studies have mainly focused on food quality, atmospherics as well as service quality to explain satisfaction and future behavioral intentions. However, customer dining experience has seldom been studied by analyzing the service encounter with all social factors in a restaurant setting. Even the importance of other customers as a part of the social factors in a service environment has been acknowledged in the literature (Wu & Liang, 2009), relatively little is known about how other customers as a part of service experience affect satisfaction well as future behaviors of restaurant customers.

As a result, the purpose of this study is to address this gap by developing and testing a conceptual model that explains the effect of other customers along with

other restaurant attributes on perceived value and behavioral intentions of restaurant customers in İstanbul, Turkey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Reuland, Coudrey and Fagel (1985) argued that hospitality services are composed of mainly three elements, which are product, attitude and behavior of the employees as well as the environment. In line with this conceptualization, studies in the restaurant industry have identified food quality, service quality, and atmospherics as the most important attributes to understand the satisfaction of the customers as well as their future behaviors (Ha & Jang, 2010; Sulek & Hensley, 2004).

While food quality was found to be the most important factor for the success of a restaurant (Sulek & Hensley, 2004), service quality performed through employee behaviors and attitudes was also argued to be a determinant factor to explain the customer satisfaction and post-consumption behaviors (Olsen, 2002). On the other hand, as a source of first impression, Wall and Berry (2007) reported that atmospherics influence customer's emotions and expectations regarding service and food quality. However, previous studies have usually ignored that restaurant experience also includes other customers. Lovelock and Wright (1999) described customers' role as a product element and proposed that other customers' traits such as appearance, age, apparent income bracket, and dress could influence customers in high-contact, interactive services. Therefore, they suggested that the construct, other customers, should be approached strategically. As a result, this study included other customers as one of the attributes that might affect the experience of restaurant guests.

In a restaurant setting, customers' service experience is mainly based on how they perceive these different restaurant attributes during their dining experience (Jeong & Jang, 2011). These perceptions mainly form the basis for perceived value of customers, which in turn, affects their satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) have conceptualized perceived value as having two dimensions that are utilitarian and hedonic value. While utilitarian values are related with more functional attributes, hedonic values are more related with subjective attributes such as the interaction or service process (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Therefore, restaurant attributes are crucial to understand the perceived value of customers and their consumption behaviors.

Significant number of researches has argued for the role of perceived value to explain satisfaction and behavioral intentions of customers in the service context. Especially, behavioral intentions to predict future consumption behaviors have become crucial in recent years. Specifically for the restaurant industry, previous studies indicated that perceived value affects restaurant selection decisions, customers' revisit intention, and behavioral intentions (Liu & Jang, 2009). As a result the following hypothesis is proposed:

Based on the above discussions and theoretical foundations, this research proposed the following hypotheses and conceptual research model (see Figure 1.):

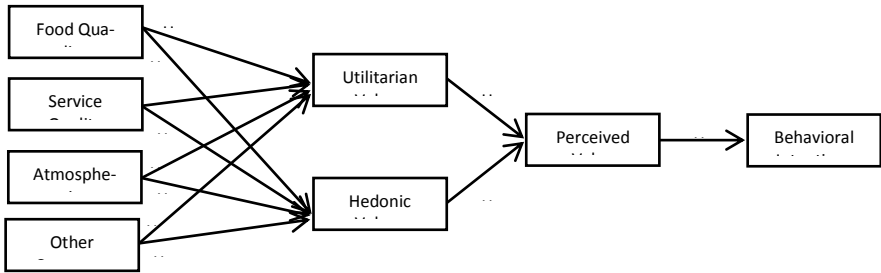


Figure 1. Conceptual Research Model

METHODOLOGY

For the purpose of the study, this research collected data from a restaurant group, which operates different restaurant brands in İstanbul. A convenience sample of restaurant customers was selected to collect data. A self-administered structured questionnaire was conducted to the respondents, who were willing to participate in the study. At the end of the data collection, 227 questionnaires were used for the further analysis.

Restaurant attributes, which are food quality, service quality, and atmosphere, are measured through 17 items adopted from the study of Andaleeb and Conway (2006). On the other hand “other customers” dimension is measured by 5 items (Kim & Lee, 2012). For hedonic and utilitarian values, respondents were asked to report their perceptions for 9 items. The questions for perceived value and behavioral intentions are both measured through 3 items each. The scale items are adopted from the previous study of Ryu, Han, and Kim (2008). All items are measured on a five five-point Likert scale.

Data were analyzed through using SPSS 20.0. Descriptive statistics were obtained for assessing the demographic profile of the study participants. Additionally, the study employed structural equation modeling using Mplus to test the hypothesized paths of the proposed conceptual model.

RESULTS

In order to test hypothesized paths in the study, structural equation modeling was used by Mplus. All models were estimated using full information maximum likelihood estimation. The model fit indices reported as CFI = 0.923; TLI = 0.912; RMSEA = 0.045; SRMR = .06, indicating a good fit for the model to the empirical

data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Table 2 summarizes all path coefficients of hypothesized paths as well as their significance.

The results supported the hypothesized effects of food quality, atmospherics and other customers on utilitarian values (H1a, $\gamma_{11} = .303$, $t = 5.776$, $p < .01$; H1c, $\gamma_{13} = .167$, $t = 1.976$, $p < .05$; H1d, $\gamma_{14} = .207$, $t = 3.215$, $p < .01$). For the effect of restaurant attributes on hedonic values, the effects of food quality, and service quality were all significant supporting H2a and H2b (H2a, $\gamma_{21} = .418$, $t = 7.385$, $p < .01$; H2b; $\gamma_{22} = .474$, $t = 4.981$, $p < .01$). Moreover, both hedonic and utilitarian values were found to positively and significantly affect perceived value of restaurant guests, supporting H3 and H4. Lastly, the overall perceived value positively influenced the behavioral intentions of customers in the restaurant setting.

Table 2. Results of Path Analysis

Path to	Path from	Std. Coeff.	t-value
Utilitarian Value	Food Quality	.303	5.776**
	Atmosphere	.167	1.976*
	Service Quality	.232	1.672
	Other Customers	.207	3.215**
Hedonic Value	Food Quality	.418	7.385**
	Atmosphere	.047	.648
	Service Quality	.474	4.981**
	Other Customers	.022	0.198
Perceived Value	Hedonic Value	.518	14.614**
	Utilitarian Value	.165	4.322**
Behavioral Intentions	Perceived Value	.455	8.824**

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to understand the effect of different restaurant attributes on different perceived value dimensions as well as to investigate the influence of overall perceived value on behavioral intentions of customers. The findings suggest that food quality, atmosphere and other customers positively affect utilitarian value of restaurant guests. In other terms, it might be argued that restaurant customers perceive both other guests sharing the restaurant environment, atmosphere of the restaurant as well as the food as a part of the product in restaurant context. Therefore, restaurateurs should consider the other customers as a part of the service physical environment when they are designing their restaurant concept and determining their target customers for their business. On the other hand, food quality and service quality were found to positively affect hedonic values of the guests. Therefore, it could be concluded that food quality is the most important attribute to affect perceived value in restaurant environment. This re-

sult is also consistent with the previous findings in the literature. This research further supported importance of value dimensions for overall perceived value. Therefore, restaurant managers need to adopt a more holistic approach in designing their restaurant attributes. In particular, different dimensions satisfy the different value needs of customers, which, in turn affects their overall restaurant experience. Moreover, the perceived value created by dining experience is an important determinant of predicting future behavioral intentions. In order to create positive word of mouth as well as repeat business, restaurants would be better to create a service environment satisfying both emotional and functional needs of their customers.

Even this study has acknowledged the importance of other customers in creation value for restaurant customers as well as the importance of different restaurant attributes on perceived value, it has its own limitations. First of all, this study analyzed the proposed conceptual model based on the data collected from the customers of a specific restaurant management company. Therefore, sampling method used in this study may affect the external validity and generalizability of results. Additionally, the selection of customers depends on their own will and the participants asked to indicate their self-reported attitudes regarding scale items. However, it is difficult to guarantee that participants truly reflected their own attitudes and beliefs. Lastly, previous studies also used price fairness to understand restaurant experience (Sulek & Hensley, 2004). As a result, future study may benefit from incorporating price fairness to understand its contribution to perceived value and behavioral intentions.

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Iranian Nomadic Tourism Development Strategies, Case Study: Qashqai Tribe

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INTRODUCTION

Now a days tourism be remembered as development passport (Swarbrook, 1998). In the period after the world war tourism was one of the most dynamic parts of the developing world economy (Coccosis, 2006). So that the world tourism organization predicts that in 2020, the number of tourists reached to 1.5 billion people (Shaw & Wiliams, 2004). In this way, tourism with multi-dimensional nature that depending conditions, contain (have) various types (Cater, 2000) one type of tourism is the nomadic tourism. In the age of post modernism, adventurous and explorer. Tourists who have a sense of historical and archeological nostalgia, turned it nomadic groups and so another types of tourism, in the age of post modernism is formed (Papoli Yazdi, 1385). In this way, rural and nomadic tourisms considered the golden key far the countries that expose the natural life instead of virtual life in the modern market and computer age. Perhaps, there is no comprehensive and brief definition for nomadic tourism. But based on the definition and characteristics of nomadic tourism can be defined as any travel or trip on the geographic territory of nomadic society for the tourists in order to take advantage of natural attraction and familiarity with the cultural traits of this people. It should be noted that according to the above definition, this type of tourism is the combination of ecotourism and cultural tourism and in fact use both of these concepts (Gholamrezayi, 1391). Since, tribal areas as a cultural heritage contains special features such as local habits, customs related to migration, type of housing, music, local languages and spiritual moral values (Rezvani, 1379). Qashqai with rich culture, unique landscape in winter and summer, clothing and crafts have immense capabilities to develop nomadic tourism, so in this research we try to introduce tourist attraction of Qashqaees tribes and check the strengths, weak-

nesses, opportunities and threats. In addition to the appropriate strategies for nomadic tourism. development of Qashqaees with the use of SWOT technique. In the second part of this article, the literature will be presented. In the third part, research methodology will be discussed. The fourth part of the research contains the results of the research and finally, conclusions and recommendations of research will be presented.

The Qashqai

The Qashqaees with the population more than half a million, is scattered in six provinces in southern Iran (Fars, Esfahah, khoozestan, Bushehr, Kohgiluyeh Bouyer Ahmad and Chahar mahal bakhtiari) in the form of nomadic, rural and urban society. The people of this tribe are Shiite and speak a Turkic (Turkish) language. Fars province is the largest province that place more than the Qashqaees (Gharakhloo, 1378). Some people have considered the word "qashqai" from two other words that one of them is "Ghachghid" that means "warned get away" and the order is "Ghashgha" which means "with the for head horse" and the reason is that, this people one interested in horse riding. Shiraz lyricism, Hafiz shows his love to Turks Shiraz in some of his poems and more than eight times mentioned them in his poems (Jabbari fard, 1386)

METHODOLOGY

In this Research which is a descriptive survey research of case study Qashqaees is selected as a sample that it's creation of nomadic tourism investigated. In order to data analysis and providing nomadic tourism development strategies the SWOT technique have been used for this purpose a list of strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats were assessed SWOT analysis in briefly the strength; weakness; opportunity and threat (Hala, 2007). This technique is an important tool in making a decision and used generally to analyze and identify the systematic strategic situation in internal and external factors. Through SWOT analysis the organization can identify its positive and implement it's strategies in order to optimize these factors (Gao & Peng, 2011). SWOT technique not only can be used in the assessment stage but also in the strategy formulation. According to the four factors of SWOT, the final questionnaire was set. Regarding the determination of sample size, It must be said that traditionally in descriptive research survey and scaling is necessary that the sample size at least should be a hundred people (Hafeznia, 1377). So in this research, the sample was selected from among administration of Nomads office, tourism agencies of Fars province and some Nomads of Qashqaees.

RESULTS

The purpose of this stage is to evaluate the tourism internal environment in order to recognize strengths and weaknesses (Table 1).

Table 1. The results of the analysis of internal factors affecting the development of Nomadic tourism of Qashqaees

Key factors of internal environment.	average	rank
S1 .Suitable climate, winter and summer.	4.49	1
S2. Self nomadic life (The ability to produce the necessities of life).	3.39	9
S3. The need for low cost in order to travel to nomadic areas.	4.13	5
S4.Existence of unique handicrafts to sell to tourists.	4.47	2
S5 .There are special customs and rituals celebrations, mourning, planting and harvesting and etc...	4.44	3
S6. There are beautiful landscapes in winter and summer areas.	4.40	4
S7. susceptibility of the area to invest and plan to create Nomadic tourism as one of the major poles of tourism.	4.07	6
S8 .Accommodation possibilities for tourists in the tents to stay along with nomads tribe at night.	4.01	7
S9. Access to the villages which are on the way of tribe.	3.53	8
S10. Nomadic tourism is not seasonal.	3.35	10
W1. Lake of planning and public investment in nomadic areas.	4.16	4
KW2 .Lake of awareness of the benefits of Nomadic tourism.	4.04	6
W3 .Lake of research about the development of Nomadic tourism.	3.89	8
W4. Lake of native skilled workers in Nomadic tourism.	4.21	2
W5. Anonymous tourist attraction in national and international level.	4.13	5
W6. debility of Nomadic tourism commercial.	4.19	3
W7. Lake of enough funding currency and kial for the development of Nomadic tourism.	4	7
W8. Lake of infrastructure and health facilitie.	4.23	1
W9. Reduced nomadic life and the desire to settlement.	3.73	9

Source: Research findings.

The purpose of this stage is to check the impact of the external environment tourism in order to recognize opportunity and threats that Qashqaees faces with it.

Table 2. Results of the analysis of external factors affecting the development of Nomadic tourism in Qashqaees.

Key factors in the external environment	average	rank
O1. Environmental protection.	4.22	4
O2. Earn money by tourism for nomadic society.	4.13	7
O3. Protection of the customs and culture of the nomadic communities.	4.25	3
O4. Using appropriate methods in management of Nomadic tourism.	4.16	5
O5. Increased government attention to the welfare of the nomadic communities	4.2	10

and investment in the sector of Nomadic tourism.		
O6. Increasing the motivation of private sector in order to invest in nomadic areas.	4.07	8
O7. Nomadic community education to deal with tourists.	4.14	6
O8. Increasing the tendency of nomadic youth for employment in traditional activities of nomad and introducing the customs to tourists.	4.35	1
O9. Avoid the sedentarization of nomad.	3.65	11
O10. Introducing the Nomadic tourism attractions through the mass media.	4.31	2
O11. Providing the necessary fields to introduce different aspects of nomadic life in the forms of museum, memorial or a live and exhibition.	4.02	9
T1. The loss of native and traditional cultures (local customs, language and etc..	4.34	1
T2. Destruction of agricultural land and meadows.	4.23	2
T3. Hardness of life, poverty, drought and land constraints	4.08	4
T4. Population growth and lake of jobs.	3.89	6
T5. Lake of provisioning and facilities by the government to the private sector in order to develop services, equipment and tourism facilities.	4.22	3
T6. The existence of negative propaganda of foreign media in order to create unfavorable (bad) image of the country and isolate Iran.	3.37	10
T7. Lake of researches and evaluation the satisfaction of tourists.	3.78	8
T8. Economic issues such as lake of protection of nomads, no guarantee to buy their production of nomads, market and lake of market recognition, The role of intermediaries and etc...	3.92	5
T9. Parallel activities in government organs and lake of human resources in planning the development of tourism areas.	3.82	7
T10. Preserving the customs of nomad by tourists and refrain from entering into their privacy.	3.77	9

Source: Research findings.

Prioritize the strategies

From comparing internal and external factors in the martin of SWOT, acceptable strategies were selected from among these initial strategies.

The process of prioritize the strategies which are acceptable for the development of Nomadic tourism was carried out in two steps below:

First steps: Prioritize the four factors of SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats).

At this stage the average of comments of respondents and showed in Fig (1).

The chart results showed that the opportunities with the mean of 45.5 are in the first rank, strengths with the mean of 40.28 in the second rank, threats with

the mean of 39.42 in the third rank and weaknesses with the mean of 36.58 are in the fourth rank.

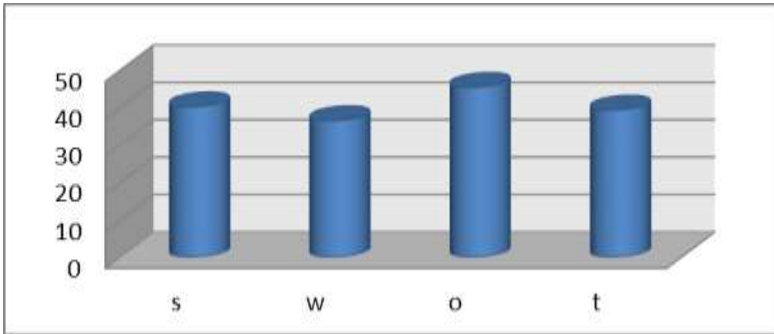


Figure 1. Prioritize the four factors of SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats)

Second steps: prioritize the acceptable strategies

Strategies and executive priorities determine the acceptable strategies. Acceptable strategies in planning according to the chart number (2). Obtained from the combination of four factors of SWOT. According to this chart the average of factors two.

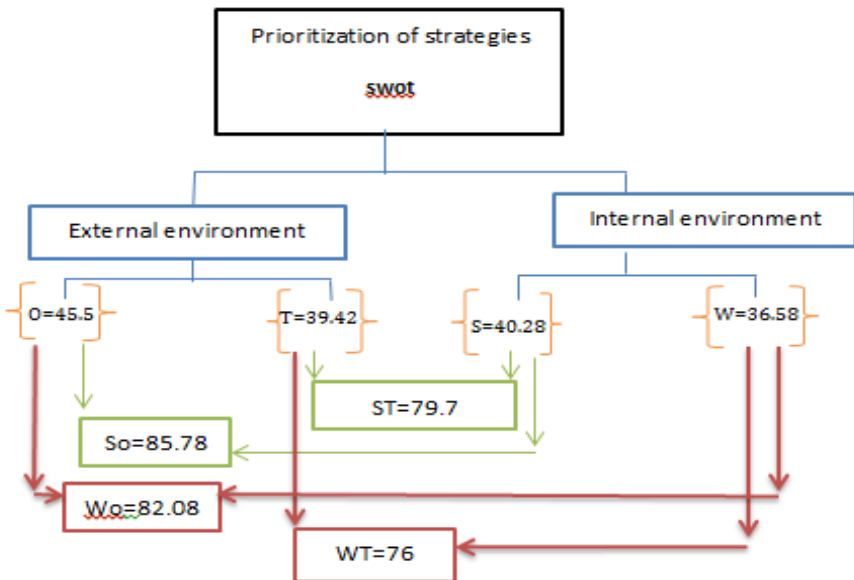


Figure 2. The mode of production strategies and calculating the mean strategies

The final result of prioritization of strategies show in the table. The results of charts shows that «SO strategies» with the mean (average) of 85.78 are in the first rank and the «WO strategies» with the means of 82.08 are in the second rank, «ST strategies» with the mean of 79.7 are in the third rank and «WT strategies» with the mean of 76 in the fourth rank.

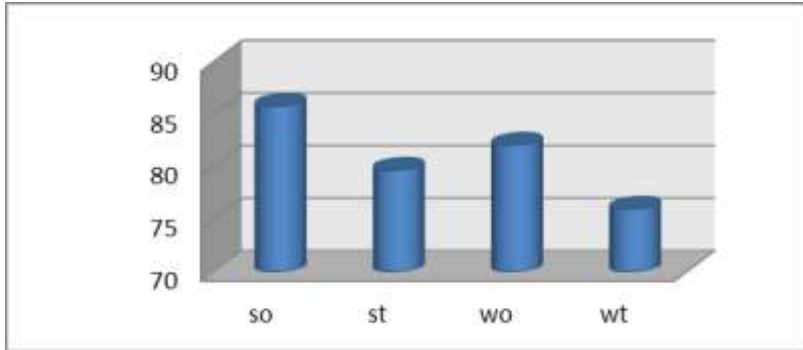


Figure 3. The prioritization of acceptable strategies in development of Nomadic tourism.

CONCLUSION

Qashqaees in terms of tourist has a great natural and cultural potential that so far, effective actions hasn't been taken to identify and use them. The important of attention and investment in the part of nomadic tourism by officials and investors is the reason that why the nomadic are of the society and with its unique sub cultures can attract many domestic and foreign tourists and let to the survival of nomadic life and one the other hand a way to inject money and currency into the economy and be secure income source for private investors. The results showed that both the internal environment and the internal environment are influential in the development of nomadic useful and practical strategies were provided and finally strategies were ranked and "so strategies" were put in Executive priority.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Creat the between read facilities.
2. Launch incentive and discounts tours from across the country.
3. The offering of special and cheap tourism loans for the students.
4. The offering of special tours for the relatives of the country.
5. Prepare a nomads tourism logo to create interest and recognition.
6. Marketing in order to attract Nomadic Tourism.

7. Codification the strategy to introduce the handicrafts of Qashqaees.
8. Implementation of incentive and supportive policies to attract investors and entrepreneurs to promote nomadic tourism.
9. Holding the national and international festivals with presence of the nomads of order countries with media coverage, specially in Iran and countries that are at the festival. To introduce the nomadic culture of Iran in the international area.

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Assessing Tourist Satisfaction Forms the Basis for Destination Improvement

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INTRODUCTION

Assessing tourist satisfaction and its impacts on loyalty provides a strong body of evidences in the tourism literature. Many studies have underlined that satisfaction is a crucial antecedent for loyalty in terms of revisit and word of mouth (WOM) recommendation. Moreover, to cope in the global competitive market of tourism destinations, the decisive role of destination management organization (DMO) in tourism development and destination improvement is documented by several scholars (e.g. Dmitrovic et al., 2009). Tourism literature provides sufficient evidence that satisfaction is an imperative antecedent of destination loyalty. Recently, Song, Li, Veen and Chen (2011) assert that a range of studies have examined satisfaction on tourist destination but there are a number of matters such as the link between tourist satisfactions with a specific service provider and that with the destination as a whole still remains unknown.

While loyalty studies has focused on satisfaction, it would be proposed that a comprehensive assessment of tourist satisfaction that comprises basic elements (BEs) in destination including attraction, accessibility, image, amenities, price, and people working in tourism (Fabricius & Carter, 2007) is crucial since it provides the basis for improving the issues, particularly when “its influence on repeat visits and positive word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendation is considered” (Ozdemir et al., 2012, p.511).

Based on these foundations the main premise in this paper is: assessing tourist satisfaction of BEs in destination develops information of service providers and DMOs by learning tourists’ needs and interests and, in turn, leads to improvement, revisit and recommendation. The author argue that improvement and development in tourism destination is impacted by learning from tourists and focuses on those destinations that DMO takes a prominent role in tourism development. This paper examines the way in which assessing tourists’ satisfaction provides the ground for destination improvement and outlines Penang in Malaysia as an example. It suggests that by measuring tourist satisfaction of BEs in destination, signifi-

cant information can be gained for improvement and development products to remain competitive in marketplace.

The paper begins with a literature review concentrating on the importance of measuring tourist satisfaction and, DMOs' role in creating new or advanced products in destination. This is followed by reviewing the finding of a study has done by the author in Penang to draw attention to the importance of measuring tourist satisfaction which led to improvement. In conclusion, some academic and managerial implications are presented.

Assessing Tourist Satisfaction

The important aspects of assessing tourists' satisfaction are: a) destination loyalty and b) destination improvement.

Due to the increasing competition in tourism destinations, some destination managers are faced the critical challenge to achieve competitive advantages creating loyalty. Notably, revisit and WOM are regarded as indicators and tourist satisfaction is recognized as one of the most important antecedents of destination loyalty (e.g. Kozak, 2001).

Tourist satisfaction and its assessment are receiving considerable attention as it supports destination loyalty. Furthermore, Yoon and Uysal (2005) highlight assessing tourist satisfaction to evaluate the performance of destination services and products. Most studies adopt this thought focuses on the significance of assessing tourist satisfaction and loyalty relationship. In spite of these documented relationship (Mostafavi Shirazi & Puad Mat Som, 2013), less has been said about the guidance of the assessing tourists' satisfaction on the subject of improvement and/ or development. In this regard, a review of the tourism literature corroborated the imperative role of DMO in tourism development (e.g. Pechlaner et al. 2012).

Destination Improvement and DMO

To gain and maintain competitiveness, business unites must be offer new products continuously (Pechlaner et al. 2012). They accentuate the key role of DMO in destination quality and improvement. As a matter of fact, the task of measuring satisfaction should be assumed by a DMO to facilitate improvement (Dmitrovic et al., 2009).

The responsibilities of DMOs may be dissimilar in different tourism destinations (Tuohino & Konu, 2014). They argue that in some areas, the DMO may play a crucial role in destination development, while in other regions they may only a minor role in some issues and in some tourism destination there may be no DMOs at all. This paper focuses on those destinations that DMO as a leadership takes a major role in tourism development.

In order to enrich the abovementioned issues, it is fitting to point to the recent survey has done by the author in Penang. It is presented in the following sections

including two parts: a) method and b) findings. The case of Penang, illustrates how evaluating tourist satisfaction was accomplished.

METHODOLOGY

On the basis of earlier studies, a survey was conducted in Penang in 2011. Penang Island is one of the most important tourist destinations, ranking third in tourist arrivals in Malaysia.

To collect data for this study, a quantitative method was used. A survey questionnaire based on the earlier studies was developed and applied. First, international tourists were asked concerning trip characteristic. Then, they were asked the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding six BEs in Penang as well as their future intention for revisit to Penang and recommend it to others. Constructs have been considered using 5-point Likert scales (ranging from 1= strongly dissatisfy to 5=strongly satisfy), with expectation of questions associated to the importance of BEs in Penang, which were evaluated on scale ranging from 1= not important to 5= strongly important. Moreover, respondents were asked their view about the BEs of Penang that they like or dislike the most. In the last part of questionnaire, demographic questions were asked. Judgmental sampling was applied at the departure lounge of International Airport of Penang.

Out of 500 questionnaires distributed, a total of 445 usable questionnaires were collected. Based on the finding of the aforementioned study, relevant issues that assumed to be important to this paper are presented.

RESULTS

This paper reports the descriptive analysis regarding respondents' view about the BEs of Penang that they like or dislike. It also discusses the service improvement in Penang based on the aforementioned analysis. Table 1 shows the rank of respondents' view about the BEs of Penang that they like the most. Respondents were asked to indicate the most liked elements in their trip to Penang that would affect their intention to revisit or recommendation in the future. The results revealed that a total of 43.6% of respondents pointed to 'attraction' as the most liked element in their trip that affects their intention to revisit Penang in future, followed by 'price' (24.8%), 'image' (10.4%), 'amenities' (8.7%), 'people working in tourism' (7.1%) and 'accessibility' (5.4%).

Table 1. Ranking of the Basic Elements that Respondents Liked the Most

Rank	Basic elements in Penang	Valid Percent
1	Attraction	43.6
2	Price	24.8
3	Image	10.4
4	Amenities	8.7
5	People working in tourism	7.1
6	Accessibility	5.4

In addition to evaluating respondents' satisfaction on the subject of BEs, they were asked to specify the issues they dislike the most (Table 2). They were asked to specify 'others' if applicable. Interestingly, 45.8% of them pointed to 'others'. They complained about 'cleanliness', 'public toilet', 'local transportation', 'dirty beaches', 'taxi services', 'traffic', 'poor pavements for walking' and, 'safety road'. In addition, 17.7% of respondents have pointed to 'amenities' as the most disliked element in their trips to Penang, followed by 'accessibility' (12.9%), 'price' (7.5%), 'image' (7.2%), 'attraction' (6.7%), and 'people working in tourism' (2.1%).

Table 2. Ranking of the Basic Elements that Respondents Disliked the Most

Rank	Basic elements in Penang	Valid Percent
1	Others	45.8
2	Amenities	17.7
3	Accessibility	12.9
4	Price	7.5
5	Image	7.2
6	Attractions	6.7
7	People working in tourism	2.1

Moreover, the mean scores of the importance of six BEs in Penang for repeat visitation or recommendation were evaluated. The importance of the items was measured by five point Likert –type scales ranging from 1 being 'Not Important' to 5 being 'Strongly Important'.

As evidenced by respondents' comments, accessibility (M= 3.81) was one of the most important subjects should be concerned for tourism development and destination loyalty in Penang. Notably, it must include local transportation.

CONCLUSION

Tourist satisfaction is crucial for destination loyalty in terms of revisit and recommendation. The significance of this study goes beyond the fact that measuring

tourists' satisfaction provides valuable information for key players to identify tourists' needs and interests which led to improvement products as well as forms the basis to achieve competitive advantages. Accordingly, the responsibility of DMO as a leadership is imperative to facilitate stakeholder's cooperation, in turn, improve and develop destination quality.

Notably, complains must be decreased by a coherent strategy and DMO should be taken a leading role in this theme and lead operators (e.g. taxi owners association) to bring improvements of such services. Considering accessibility as an imperative and critical issue in Penang, destination managers should improve and develop approachability and connectivity to Penang to fulfill international travellers' needs and interests.

As future situation of tourism development as well as loyalty in Penang will be affected by accessibility, it is important to point to the recent changes in Penang as significant signs of service improvement. George (2015) stated that based on the results of recent surveys have done by Universiti Saince Malaysia in Penang, improvement strategy in terms of accessibility, amenities, accommodation and food was developed. She also mentioned that it is vital to develop Penang International Airport (PIA) with a second runway to present broader air connectivity coverage within Asia. Moreover, Emmanuel (2015) asserted that plans are set to increase at the Penang international airports as well as the innovative ship is considered for bringing more tourists to Penang.

The main issue that can be concluded from this study is that evaluating tourist satisfaction forms the basis for improvement strategy. This paper contributes to a theoretical enrichment of the current level of knowledge in the existing literature on tourist satisfaction, destination management, and improvement. This study was attempted to provide destination manager with analytical insight on how to improve Penang's quality by evaluating tourist satisfaction consistently. The major findings of this study have significant managerial implications for destination managers, particularly in Penang. The current study presents a basis for future research.

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Evaluating Impacts of Urmia Lake Drying on Urban Development: The Case Study of Sharafkhana Town, Iran

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INTRODUCTION

Water is one of the main attractions in the tourism industry. Beaches and oceans, along rivers, around ponds, Large and small lakes absorbs millions of tourists who seeking recreation and relaxation or adventure. History shows that beach trips that were famous later to 3s (sea, sun and sand) became the first favorite types of tourism. The economic value and importance of water in attracting tourists to the extent that today, if a region without of water or away from the natural water resources, its manegers have to looking for investors in man-made forms of lakes and artificial waterfalls, pool, dock and fountains (Majnouniyan, 1997). Among the tourist attractions of Iran, Urmia Lake in Azerbaijan is one of the best tourist attractions in both natural environment and human frameworks (Saghaei & Abdollahi, 2004).

Urmia Lake is the best source of study and planning for health tourism in the national and regional level. While the withdrawal of lake water, drying of beaches and the loss of health benefits humankind destroyed a significant tourism opportunity. this Lake for marine and leisure tourism as well as its dependent activities, was an enormous diversity (Orams, 1999). presence of salts and minerals in mud on the banks of the lake, had produced a highly treatable conditions. The mud with its therapeutic properties could be helpful to improve diseases such as Rheumatism and arthritis disease, which is a kind of health tourism (Gara Nezhad, 1995).

In summer, large numbers of people use the lake for water and sludge treatment of sewage and wastewater entering the port, But now because of the drying lake, such a possibility does not exist of course all of the above relate to the time that the lake's water. After the recent drought dried up the lake in about eighty percent instead of the blue coast, now been replaced kilometers of desert salt And

virtually no water to swim or canoe and actually becomes a desert of salt. The present study sought to answer the question of how the Lake City Sharafkhaneh has affected the development of tourism?



Figure 1. Change detection of Urmia lake since 2000 to 2016

A spa is a location where mineral-rich spring water (and sometimes seawater) is used to give medicinal baths. The term 'Spa' is derived from the Latin phrase, *Salus per Aquam* which means health by water, in ancient time people used to travel to hot or cold springs in hope of effecting cure for some illness. Even in modern times the therapeutic property of water is being used to treat various health disorders. One of the main forms of Spa tourism is the Hydrotherapy. Mud therapy or mud bath is the recent events in tourism development. Sharafkhana, with nearly 90 kilometers distance from Tabriz was the main port towns of Urmia lake where the best destination to this form of tourism. The coastal muds of this lake have curative peculiarity to treatment of Rheumatism, Disc back pain as well as skin effects. This port as the largest one in the lake seaside has port facilities, coastal camp, recreational and professional sailing and boating, five star hotels and other tourist facilities. Effects of the drying of Urmia Lake crisis over the past two decades, was the debatable discussion in terms of different viewpoints, but more than all these aspects environmental issues came into existence. Negative

effects of the crisis on the coastal tourism have been completely neglected. This article attempts to analyze impacts of lake drying on urban development and tourism industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Travel for treatment and recreation became one of the major purposes of tourism. Curative tourism is not exclusive to those who have body disorders, but also include others who want to relax, retrieve vitality and for mental, physical and spiritual fitness. The term curative tourism has not exactly been raised as an independent concept; instead most of the research was mainly about health tourism. As a result, many scholars have defined health tourism, which implies curative and/or medical tourism in different ways (Salameh, 2002).

The definition and problem statement

Urmia Lake between which is located in the West of the Iranian plateau between 37 ° C and 5 minutes to 38 degrees 16 minutes north and 45 degrees 10 minutes east longitude and 45 degrees 45 minutes(Seyed Jafar et al, 2014). This Lake in northwestern Iran, the largest and highest inside Iran. The lake among East and West Azarbaijan, in deepest its part, the mountains Sabalan, Sahand, Mahabad, Takht-e Soleiman and altitude border of Iran and Turkey and Iran is the only navigable lake. The lake after the Dead Sea, Jordan, is the saltiest lake in the world. There are wide beaches and beautiful scenery landscape of the Lake; with the ability to perform recreational activities such as boating, swimming and so on, along with the softness of its climate, especially marine tourism season (summer) has made it possible (Orams, 1999).



Figure 2. Geographical location of case study



Figure 3. Mud therapy in sharafkhaneh beach

Sharafkhaneh also known as Bandar-e Sharafkhāneh is a city in the Central District of Shabestar County, East Azerbaijan Province, Iran. It has located in 88 km distance from Tabriz, in northeast of Urmia lake. At the 2006 census, its population was 3872, which has decreased to 3585 in 2011 (Census of the Islamic Republic of Iran, 2011). Sharafkhaneh is a gardening city and also used to have an active tourism industry before start of drying Urmia Lake. Sludge coast of the city for many years in the hot season is Thytdvst tourists. Although a major part of the shores of Lake Urmia is covered with mud. But there berths and facilities needed boost Ljndrmany Sharafkhaneh passengers on the shores of the city. Also for the shores of Lake sludge, the sludge treatment is important For fixed local heating effect of radioactivity and its sulfur content; blood flow in arteries and veins under the skin fine and tender joints in arthritic patients can be accelerated And helped to improve the (Saghaei et al., 2004) that provides the ability to attract health tourists.

Littoral property sludge treatment and for treatment of rheumatic pain, lumbar disc and skin complications from it are used. image of tourists that only their heads out of the remaining sludge and seen all summer on the lake shore is worthy. Therapeutic properties of the water and the shore of Lake Urmia has caused the country's tourism officials baths facilities such as beaches, restaurants, hospitality and entertainment complex for tourists in the place of their creation. Vineyards and other fruit trees in the city Shabestar and Sharafkhaneh, lush mountains Michaud, on the western side of the lake, numerous hotels and beach facilities as well as enabling a quick and convenient access to the city's increasing number of incoming tourists is Sharafkhaneh.

On the other hand, Many studies have been made in western countries on functional classification of cities. "Harris's Functional Urban Classification" (Harris, 1943); "Nelson's Multifunctional Classification" (Nelson, 1955); "Alexandersson's Method" (Alexandersson, 1956); "Webb's Analysis of Minnesota Towns" (Webb, 1959); "The Duncan and Reiss Classification" (Duncan-Reiss, 1950); Forstall's Classification of American Cities" (Forstall, 1970) are the ones to be mentioned first (Murat, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

Methodology of this article is descriptive and analytic, so after refer to literature review, comparative study of urban development before and after crisis has been considered. So, both types of data sources, secondary and primary, were used. Secondary data sources are those that were used by other people such as studies, statistics, maps, books, journals, newspapers, reports, conferences proceedings, etc. collection of facts that are gathered from the original sources and are collected especially for the research problem. They include information collected direct from. In order to evaluate trends and impacts, GIS and remote sensing technics such as satellite images during the last two decades have been used.

The research method is analytical in two ways desk and field has been described and analyzed. In this study to answer the research questions the role of tourism in the Lake Urmia, including Sharafkhaneh. And then the consequences of this drying has been discussed. finally by examining the resources and objective observation of the consequences, the impact of the drying lake and death of Sharafkhaneh port will be analyzed.

CONCLUSION

Urmia Lake is a source of study and planning for medical tourism at national and regional level. While the withdrawal of lake water, drying sludge of beaches and the loss of health benefits them the opportunity to make important tourism is destroyed. The salinity makes the water level swimmers easily on the Bmandkh It is a unique privilege for safety in tourism. Lake have dried Shdzmy agricultural and surrounding gardens also will be lost due to salt winds. The lake is not just an ordinary lake. National Park and Biosphere Reserve is one of 59 on the planet. Tears island, home to beautiful birds including migratory birds, as well as fire and Persian fallow deer is common shelduck) Near the lake to Turkey was a positive factor for achieving this goal. Urban tourism will be protected from the consequences. Dry like a huge lake Urmia and leaving a huge pile of salt and miles of dry land in the climate change area and surrounding towns would like urmia and Tabriz will have an impact (Vosoughi, 2009).

Results showed that the Sharafkhane is the one of rare cities in the world which has lost the 2 basic reasons for the formation of each city namely site and situation. Therefore, after drying crisis of this lake in two recent decades, the

sharafkhane port town became famous as dead, forgotten, endangered, bankrupt, silent and finally closed town etc.

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The Role of Tabriz 2018 Program in the Efflorescence of Tourism Industry in Tabriz

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism includes all services and features that are placed side by side to what the traveler wants, and provide various types. But tourism experts in the world have identified four overall atmospheres to it: Rural areas or green tourism, Mountainous areas for mountain sports, Coastal areas with specific characteristics and urban space. Fact and figures shows that especially in the most successful countries in this industry, the city is the basis for tourism development. For this reason, many cities are trying to benefit from the features of their particular town and city benefit from the advantages of a tourist draw.

Urban spaces in Iranian contemporary cities can be divided into two categories: at first new or modern spaces such as parks, modern shopping centers, cultural clubs, squares and Plaza and the last are traditional spaces such as markets, shrine, cemeteries, gardens, mosques and other historical sites. From this perspective, the impact of tourism on the urban space can be divided as follows: Tourism and the development of a modern and attractive urban spaces as well as the reclamation and revitalization of tourism and historical contexts and spaces of the old city. Tourism axis can be created as a way of revitalizing the city's historic areas and tourist attraction to be used. Tourism axis for having mentioned values and characteristics can transform your surrounding tissue (Anvari & Nasaj, 2007).

Therefore, urban tourism is a term describing multiple tourist activities in which city is main destination and place of interest. This form of tourism is relatively old and very complex. Cities were always purpose of many journeys and trips although it becomes more and more popular phenomenon since 50's. As a subject of research urban tourism didn't exist before 80's and till 90's was very underestimated. Tourism within cities is strongly connected with their growth and technology development as well (roads, transportation, and railway). Travelling to cities became easier, faster and in many cases cheaper than it was decades ago. Important fact is that the awareness of possibilities that come with urban tourism rose significantly over the years (Ceopedia, 2016).

So, one of the last strategies in urban development in developing cities is using comparative advantages of cities in attracting tourists. Tabriz city, despite of having different touristic attractions, has not considerable share in tourism market of Iran. Tabriz metropolis was selected as the capital of Islamic cities in 2018, in the 9th assembly of chief officers and tourist ministers of member countries of Islamic cooperation organization in Niamey the capital and largest city of the West African country Niger. Selecting Tabriz as the tourism capital of the Islamic cities is a great opportunity for city managers to promote the city's tourism situation. Numerous famous Islamic cities were nominated as the possible candidates, among which Tabriz was chosen, thanks to its cultural and historical potentials and its beautification and brilliant tourist future. The role of holding various art exhibitions, expanding international cultural interactions as the effective approaches toward better tourist future of Tabriz. So, this magnificent title will be as the first step of all international achievements of Tabriz.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hall and Weiler (1992) forged the first link between tourism and the serious leisure perspective when they demarcated special interest tourism "using the distinguishing qualities and durable benefits just presented. But to argue, as they do, that all special interest tourism is serious leisure is to miss some critical differences, among them Delbaere's distinction between cultural and recreational tourism. These differences become clear when Cultural tourism is looked on as a liberal arts hobby (Robert, 1996).

Certain spatial aspects of the urban tourism phenomenon have been already well documented in research mainly by planners and managers who focus their concern on (a) urban planning issues such as classic. cations of the variety of tourism products of cities into core elements, supporting elements, etc., patterns of spatial clustering of urban tourism activities, patterns of tourists movement in urban space, the impacts of urban tourism development on urban regeneration and redevelopment (historic urban cores, urban waterfronts, etc.), and (b) urban management issues such as management of the tourism products of cities, management of tourists spatial behavior, etc. (Gospodini, 2001).

The Definition and Problem Statement

Tabriz can provide different types of goods or services which become objects demanded by people on the tourist market. Product, which city has to offer for tourists, can be anything material or non-material, i.e. Specific location, particular place (museum, cultural, religious, entertainment), as well as public urban infrastructures such as transport, building and architecture. In cities different forms of tourist activities are concentrated: sightseeing, leisure, shopping, visiting friends and family, religion, business venues, participation in congresses, conferences, entertainment (events, clubs), trainings, transport. All these activities are included

in term in-the-city tourism; however they are not always identified as urban tourism, and could be part of other types of tourism (e.g. religious, cultural).

The questions 'Why do tourists visit cities?' and 'Who are the urban tourists?' are of course closely related. Answers to the first should produce the market typologies that answer the second. There are three major difficulties that have hampered attempts to answer these two clearly quite fundamental questions. First, to echo a point already made in a different context, visiting a city and being attracted by its urban features may not be the same. Simply, travel has grown enormously and continuously over the past 30 years and much of this has inevitably involved cities if only because they contain the major concentrations of transport, Accommodation and other travel related infrastructure that supports that travel, as highlighted in the hierarchical distinction between world and non-world cities. We just travel more, and not only for tourism, and a visitor attracted by non-urban tourism Experiences will nevertheless inevitably spend some time in cities: the reverse is not necessarily the case. Thus it cannot be assumed that all tourists in cities are, in any meaningful sense, urban tourists. Here it may be useful to distinguish between tourism in cities that is tourism to facilities that happen to be located in urban areas but would be equally satisfying to the visitor in a non-urban milieu, and urban tourism *sui generis* in which it is some aspect of urban city itself that is the primary motive of the tourist (Ashworth & Page, 2011)

Despite having the numerous cultural, historical and natural attractions, but it has not considerable share in attracting foreign tourists yet. Therefore, urban managers of Tabriz, hope that increase the number of tourist to travel to their city. Many countries have recognized this fact that they should try to find new ways for economic development especially in tourism industry to improve the situation (Lotfi, 2005, p. 5). In other words, the development of the tourism industry, particularly for developing countries that are facing with problems such as high unemployment, limited currency and single-product economy will have great importance (Sabbagh Kermani & Amyryan, 2000). Significantly, the Muslim world provides opportunities for studying differences in policy and development decisions that can offer new insights and inform tourism by providing alternative perspectives (Jafari & Noel, 2014). Iran's tourism industry has suffered significantly over the past three decades as a consequence of a number of issues, including negative imagery in the tourism generating markets, and poor management (Khodadadi, 2016). The city has a long and turbulent history with its oldest civilization sites dated back to 1,500 BC. It contains many historical monuments representing the transition of Iranian architecture in its long historical timelines(Wikipedia, 2016).This article tries to analyze the effects of this selection on the development of urban infrastructure and improve urban spaces for the reception of tourists.

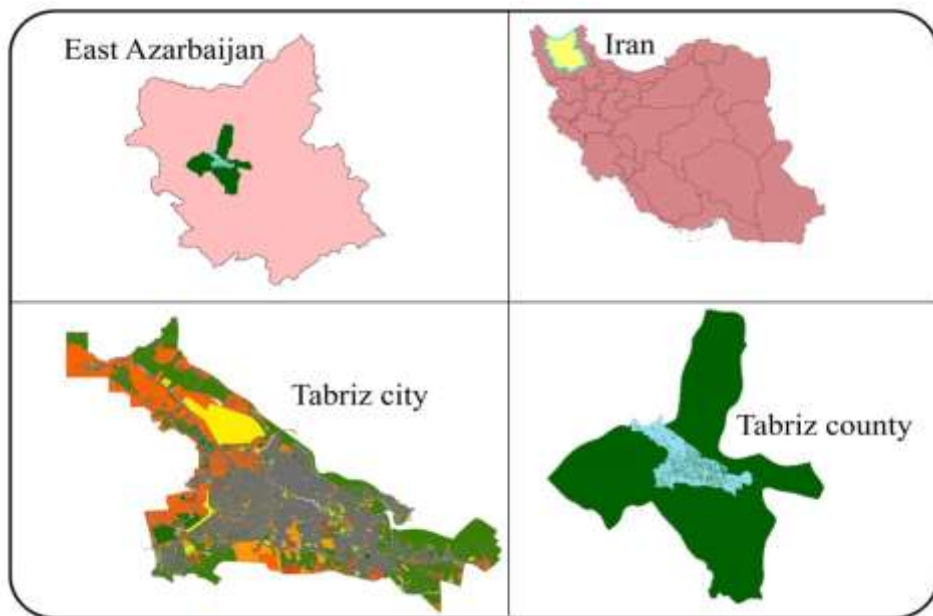


Figure 1. Geographical location of case study

METHODOLOGY

Methodology of this article is descriptive and analytic, so after refer to literature review, Existing situation of city in terms of touristic infrastructures, urban planning, and street furniture will be discussed.

RESULTS

Results showed that this selection has been led to more interactions between citizens, urban management and governmental organization about resetting of urban . therefore, some positive effects would be come into existence in near future includes tourism infrastructure and residential centers and eliminate visual redundancies, life style improvement etc. Besides of cultural and international relationships, economic benefits due to adding another function to former fuctions of city will be achieved.

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Place Co-creation of Tourism Experiences

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INTRODUCTION

Experience economy theory argues that experiences rather than services or physical products are the drivers of value creation in the 21st century (Boswijk et al. 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 2013; Sundbo & Sørensen, 2013). Simultaneously the importance of co-creating unique value with customers has been emphasised (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). The combination of the two perspectives is particularly relevant in tourism because tourists co-create tourism experiences during interactions with tourism companies, other destination elements and other tourists (Prebensen et al., 2013), i.e. during interactions with tourist places. Yet, tourism companies in general do not seem to benefit from the potentials of co-creation (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009). Also the practices of the experience economy do not seem to have trickled down and been widely applied in tourism companies (Forder 2015). Instead tourism companies often remain locked in a traditional service paradigm focusing on delivering predefined and standardised value (Sørensen & Jensen, 2015). In this paper we suggest that because tourist experiences are (essentially) experiences of places *co-creation of place* holds a particular potential for value creation in tourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is argued that companies must escape a firm-centric thinking and, instead, co-create customised products and services in personalised interactions with customers (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). In a similar vein the concept of value in use (Grönroos & Voima, 2013) suggests how value is created, not by companies, but by users when they use products or services. The essential role of companies in this value creating process is to assist users in creating value-in-use, and for this co-creation in personal relations becomes central (Grönroos & Voima, 2013). From an experience economy point of view Prahalad and Ramaswamy's (2004)

firm-centric model is comparable to Pine and Gilmore's (2013) experience economy model. This suggests companies to 'stage' controlled experiences for customers. Others argue that companies cannot produce experiences, only deliver stimuli which individuals elaborate into experiences. Thus, experiences are always co-created to some degree and result in value-in-use. Boswijk et al. (2007) consider such experiences to belong to a Second Generation of the Experience Economy. However, they also suggest the existence of a third mode of the experience economy which they term 'self-direction'. In this, users are initiators and creators of individual as well as of collective experiences, for example individual hiking trips (Boswijk et al., 2007) or user-created festivals such as Burning Man.

Co-creation is central to tourism (Prebensen et al., 2013). Tourist experiences are created through the co-'performances' of tourists and tourism employees (Edensor, 2001) and tourists are co-producers of their experiences (Ek et al., 2008). Additionally, as Poon (1993) stated, the 'new' tourists want to be in charge and, for example, book and plan their travel independently. Thus, self-direction is also important in tourism. However, as indicated, tourism companies mostly remain guided by a firm centric approach in which the value of a given service is predefined by the company (Sørensen & Jensen 2015).

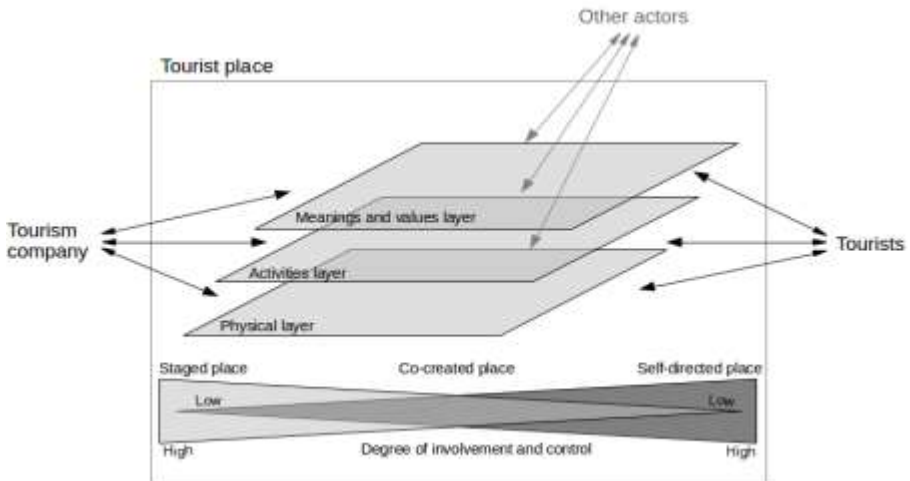


Figure 1. Model of co-creation of tourist place experiences.

Place is a crucial building block of tourism and experiencing places is a fundamental reason for engaging in tourism activities. Based on Gieryn (2000) we build a simple model of tourist places (Figure 1) consisting of a physical, an activities, and a meanings and values layer. The physical layer includes tangible objects but also other sensed aspects that affect experience of place. The activities layer includes activities carried out by people (tourism employees, tourists, and other users of places) individually as well as collectively. The meanings and values layer consists of intangible perceptions of place. Thus, tourist places are partly real and partly socially constructed. The experience of such places forms the tourist experience. It has been argued that tourist places are 'performed' through activities of tourists and tourism employees (Bærenholdt, 2004; Edensor, 2001), in other words tourist places are co-created. Activities include service and usage encounters (cf. Payne et al., 2008). The latter include tourists' practices when 'using' the place without interacting with tourism employees.

From the firm centric model of the experience economy (staging of experiences) tourism places of individual tourism companies are controlled by companies who deliver pre-designed tourist experiences. From this perspective physical layers as well as service and usage encounters (and thus the activities layer) and the meanings and values of places are designed and controlled by tourism companies. Strictly standardised service management concepts, organisational rules and regulations and effective branding may sustain the firm centric model of staged tourism place experiences. Conversely, the co-creation model implies that users to varying degrees create their own collective and/or individual place experiences and thus co-perform (Edensor, 2001) or co-create tourist places. This may be supported by looser organisational strategies and set-ups concerning, for example, service encounter concepts and user activities and interactions.

METHODOLOGY

The full paper will present a number of examples of place co-creation from different Danish tourism companies. Thus the paper seeks to illustrate how place co-creation can take place in and benefit different types of tourism organisations. Examples presented are taken from a beach apartment complex, an attraction, a zoo, and a hotel. Data collection methods varied between cases but included in all cases observations in the companies of their design (i.e. its physical layer), of guests' behaviours in the companies and of their interactions with employees (i.e. usage and interaction encounters of the activities layer). Additionally, in all cases interviews with managers and employees were carried out. These interviews focused for example on the interviewees perceptions of the companies (i.e. the physical as well as the image and values layer), of the companies' guests, how they use the places, how interactions between employees and guests were structured, and on interactions between guests (i.e. usage and interaction encounters), on the managers strategic approach, and on the development potentials of the companies.

RESULTS

As an example of the various illustrations of place co-creation that will be presented in the full paper the example of a beach apartment complex is described in the following: The complex is located on a Danish Island, it was built in the 1970s and consists of several buildings with apartments, a main building with amenities (reception, restaurant, bar, rest area) as well as outdoor areas with swimming pool, tennis court and playground. For years the complex's image was one of low service levels, lack of renewal and innovation. In 2013 it got a new management team of two experienced managers. Initially they had little faith, pride and confidence in the place – it was the last place that any manager would want manage on the island. However, they perceived it as a challenge: “If we can make this place attractive we can manage anything” (interview, manager).

The managers did not make immediate changes to the place's physical layer. Instead, their approach was “... to see what the place was capable of” (interview, manager). Related to this they did not formulate strict service encounter procedures. They made few rules and were flexible concerning, for example, the interaction between employees and guests. The strategy was to observe how the guests used the place and to sustain its potentials as they got to know about them. The approach has resulted in a different understanding and development of the place. For example, thanks to the complete lack of renewal and innovation during the years, the 1970s interior, the original furniture and décor of the complex was observed by the management to create a relaxed atmosphere, a safety feeling, 'a grandma effect' – a place as it used to be. This was observed to be embraced by the guests and to support their experiential desires and the guests often used the complex as a retreat from the fast pace of everyday life. This is now an element that the management focuses on and emphasises to sustain the authenticity of the place. Thus, instead of understanding the lack of renewal of the physical layer as a problem it has been turned into an advantage.

In this case place co-creation resulted in a changed internal brand of the place. Place co-creation in the case included the creation of a place in which the activities and meanings layers of the place are co-created/defined by the guests and this guided the development of the physical layer. The flexible non-scripted interaction with guests, the lack of strict rules and routines within the organisation and the attention towards how the guests used and sensed the place meant that the guests' use and understandings of the different layers of the place has been integrated in the organisation and emphasised in its strategy.

CONCLUSION

Tourism places can be staged by tourism companies, co-created or even self-directed by tourists. The illustrations of the paper indicate how tourism companies can beneficially loosen control of the different place layers, for example by incorporating less strict service management concepts and avoiding developing

too strong and all-embracing brands. By observing how tourists create their place experiences under such conditions, companies can get new understandings of the potentials of places and develop places accordingly. By taking a step back the organization can let the guests help define the activities and create meanings and values of the place and in this way show organizations the potential of places.

As an analytical tool the place co-creation perspective provides new understandings of the potential role of tourists and companies in tourism co-creation processes. The case reported in the paper show how such processes may lead to a more profound type of co-creation that results, not only in new tourist experiences, but also in new company strategies, internal brands, and even new business models. Thus, it may lead to a kind of *deep* co-creation.

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Juxtaposing ‘Chain Hotel’ and ‘Chain Tour’; TUSAN M/Hotels in Turkish Tourism of the 1960s

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INTRODUCTION

In 1961, TUSAN (Tourism Industry Inc.) was founded by Civil Engineer Enver Muradođlu¹ in order to put across that tourism was an industry in Turkey. TUSAN was named as the abbreviation of the words “tourism” (*TURIZM*) and “industry” (*SANAYI*) in Turkish and has been in the tourism sector for over 50 years. With its two hotels still in use, it has reached today by maintaining its prestigious name. The number of its hotels and motels increased to 11 in the 1960s and early 1970s and it started to become a milestone in Turkish tourism history as the first hotel & motel chain that belonged to a private entity. TUSAN M/Hotel Chain was planned to be an organization hosting mostly foreign tourists that were oriented to culture tourism in the area nearby ancient touristic towns, such as Troy, Pergamum, Ephesus, Kuşadası, and Hierapolis as well as Cappadocia. In addition, by taking into consideration tourists coming from Istanbul, Uludağ Grand Hotel (1959) and Erdek TUSAN Hotel (1961) were in service. Later on, the chain was enlarged with Ürgüp TUSAN Motel (1961), Çanakkale TUSAN Motel (1962), Bergama TUSAN Motel (1962), Selçuk TUSAN Motel (1962), Kuşadası TUSAN Hotel (1962), Pamukkale TUSAN Motel (1962), Avanos TUSAN Hotel (1970), Nevşehir TUSAN Hotel (1970), and Manavgat TUSAN Hotel (1971) (E. Ertunga, personal communication, January 31, 2011; Ş. Hurda, personal communication, April 21, 2010; A. Ergül, personal communication, June 8, 2011) (Figure 1).

¹ Muradođlu had studied Civil Engineering at MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) and lived in the USA for a long time (A. Ergül, personal communication, June 8, 2011).



Figure 1. TUSAN M/Hotels postcard displaying the chain hotel concept

Considering that “hotel chain” or “chain tourism” were new concepts and application in Turkish tourism in the 1960s, it can be stated that TUSAN M/Hotel Chain that developed in accordance with “chain tours” with the integrative operating model and the powerful identity, played an important role in the mass tourism of Turkey (Figure 2). TUSAN M/Hotel Chain is considered the first tourism investment as private hotel & motel chain on the western and southern coasts of Turkey as well as mid-Anatolia following Tourism Bank M/Hotels constructed by the state in the 1960s. It has also become a new model during the process in which tourism became an important part of Turkish economy.



Figure 2. Turkey map displaying the “chain tour” concept

LITERATURE REVIEW

TUSAN M/Hotel Chain contributed to the development of tourism during a period when Turkish tourism fell behind and was unsteady in social, cultural, political, and economic terms. Considering the dynamics of the period when TUSAN was founded, it is observed that the new world order shaped especially after World War II and the liberal economy policies adopted through the cooperation with the West affected tourism as much as politics, economy and social life in Turkey (Tapan, 2007; Vanlı, 2007).

The period between 1950 and 1960 was a period when –as Önen (2000, 66) also stated– private entrepreneurs relatively appeared, and the institutions that identify and apply tourism policies were established. The Law of Incentive for Tourism Industry (22.05.1953), which was put into force in order to encourage private entrepreneurs to invest in tourism and to provide tax exemption for ten years and source for loan for the tourism investors, was the first initiative to create a regulation for running tourism institutions in a consistent tourism policy (Şahin, 1990, p.105). It was also important that the Ministry of Press and Tourism, the State Pension Fund of Turkish Republic, and Tourism Bank of Turkish Republic were founded during 1950s when the majority of the investment of touristic accommodation was made by public sector. Tourism Bank of Turkey Inc. as an institution, which financed the activities for tourism, took over the important responsibilities in tourism being spread all around the country, establishing tourism awareness and creating trained workforce through the hotels built in various places in Turkey (Çavuş & Öncüer, 2009, p.94).

METHODOLOGY

The existence and identity of TUSAN M/Hotel Chain since its establishment are based on a comprehensive micro-history research² focusing on the characteristics of the hotels and motels in terms of tourism and architecture. The historical information of the study was provided by the previous managers of TUSAN M/Hotels and their families, m/hotel staff, and tourist guides; and the total number of those participating in this oral history study is 11. The interviews with those people and the information as well as the documents shared by them had an important role for the analyses within the study.

TUSAN M/Hotels as a Chain

The first example of TUSAN Hotels is Grand Hotel Uludağ, which had the characteristics of an auberge hotel. The hotel that was rented in 1953-54 by Yol Yapı, the processor company of TUSAN, became a modern facility and started serving in 1959. The second one, Erdek TUSAN Hotel is located in the center of Erdek, by the sea, and was rented in 1961 in order to make profit for the construction of TUSAN M/Hotels. The hotel was taken over by its current owners where it still serves with its new name Gül Beach Resort (Ş. Hurda, personal communication, April 21, 2010). Again, in 1961, TUSAN Company put Ürgüp TUSAN Hotel in service in a building rented from Ürgüp Municipality (Ş. Hurda, personal communication, June 8, 2011). Today the building still serves under the name of Grand Hotel run by a different firm.

Five of the M/Hotels (Çanakkale, Bergama, Efes, Kuşadası and Pamukkale TUSAN) make up the most important ring in the chain and were designed by Architect Ertem Ertunga and constructed by the TUSAN Company, and all started serving in 1962. At these five hotels, mass compositions, proportions, spatial patterns, similarities between their materials and details are remarkable. Çanakkale TUSAN Motel was taken over by the accounting manager of the company in 1974, and has been through various spatial, functional and formal changes until today. Bergama TUSAN Motel was rented between the years 2000 and 2001, and was not used as a motel (Y. Kanat, personal communication, September 24, 2008). Efes TUSAN Motel was taken over by the manager of the motel, and served until mid-80s (Arın, 2009), and today serves as a handcraft store in the restaurant of the building. Kuşadası TUSAN Hotel, which still serves today, had been through several changes through renovations (Ş. Hurda, personal communication, April 21, 2010). And Pamukkale TUSAN Motel was expropriated and demolished in 1997 due to being located on an archeological site (Ş. Hurda, personal communication, June 8, 2011; A. Ergül, personal communication, June 8, 2011).

In addition to these five hotels in the Aegean Region, in 1968, Nevşehir TUSAN Hotel was opened in a building hired from Nevşehir Municipality. Nevşehir TUSAN Hotel, now serving as the social facility of Military Police, was taken over by the

² For a detailed review, also see Z. Tuna Ultav and G. Savaşır (2015).

manager of the hotel, and maintained with name of Orsan Hotel for a long time (B. Gönenç, personal communication, June 21, 2011; F. Uçargönül, personal communication, June 8, 2011). Similarly, in the early 1970s, Avanos TUSAN Hotel was opened, and it was transferred to another company in 1976. Recently it has started to be in service as a dormitory for girls (İ. Deş, personal communication, June 22, 2011). Having been constructed as the social rest establishment of the gas station, Petrol Ofisi, in the neighborhood of Kızılot, Manavgat TUSAN Motel was rented in 1971. After rental agreement expired, it was evacuated in the early 1980s. Having remained inactive within the body of the Ministry of Forestry for a long time, it started to be in service with name of Flora Garden Beach Hotel (S. Çene, personal communication, June 22, 2011; A. Denizeri, personal communication, August 19, 2011).

The “chain” concept during the foundation period of TUSAN separates it from other tourism establishments. When tourism history is examined, it is seen that the first use of chain hotel concept dates back to 1908 (Dinçer & Dinçer, 1989; Muradoğlu, personal communication by A. Ergül, 1996). By the time TUSAN M/Hotel Chain was established, it was difficult to come across with the term “the chain of hotels” in the literature Turkish tourism and architecture (Alp, 1980). Only Hyatt Regency Hotels opened in 1967 was called so. And another hotel chain, having an important role in the tourism history and social memory of Turkey, is Tourism Bank Hotels Chain (named as TURBAN Hotels in the late 1980s).

TUSAN M/Hotels, which can also be considered as a hotel chain, was planned with a “chain tour construction” in a way that travels did not exceed 8 hours and tourists could accommodate in any link of this chain. This system was similar to the model of caravansaries, the first example of which was seen in the 8th century (Kozak et al., 1998); and as in the caravansaries of the past, TUSAN M/Hotel Chain was constructed to offer accommodation opportunities to foreign tourists after their short travel around the historic venues (A. Ergül, personal communication, June 8, 2011; İnam, 2009). Necati Doğan (1964, p.140) pointed out in his paper entitled “The issues in Turkish tourism industry” that historical caravansary model could be a guide for Turkish tourism proceeding in 1960s. On the other hand, one year after TUSAN M/Hotel Chain was founded, Prof. Şefik İnan (1964, pp.32-33), Çanakkale deputy, underlined “the chain system” which was a very new concept for Turkish tourism and a part of the law proposal (09.09.1963) for the establishment of “Turkish Hotel and Motel Management Company”.

TUSAN started out with a tourism understanding evolving from “individual tourism” to “mass tourism” all around the world after World War II, and it made agreements with various tourism agencies to organize “chain tours” for foreign tourists mostly comprised of German, French, Italian, Belgian, and English tourists. “Package Anatolian tours” for 7, 10, 15 or 21 days were booked through prepayment to TUSAN M/Hotel Chain by the headquarter (M. Ataklı, personal communication, October 2, 2012). Within the framework of this structure, it has been observed that busload was used as base while organizing motels or hotels and there-

fore the number of rooms at the hotels was arranged according to the multiples of the busload, which was generally 24, 48, and 96.

In 1962, Halit Kıvanç, a well-known Turkish journalist, in his article entitled "A touristic chain is being created in the Aegean Region", in a well-known newspaper, *Milliyet*, described "the chain idea" of TUSAN aiming at having close relationship with ancient towns as a "pilot project" for Turkish tourism: "They thought about what a tourist would like to do. Of course, a tourist would like to see attractions and historical artifacts, and s/he would like to do that without getting bored and tired. That is the point where the pilot project idea arose" (Kıvanç, 1962).

RESULTS

Considering that the highway network throughout the country, developing as a result of the Marshall aids in the late 1940s and the policies of Democrat Party in the early 1950s, encouraged people to use cars more frequently and thus consume more gasoline, those applications may shed different light on the increase of the tourism facilities in Turkey such as hotels and motels in the 1960s. The developments in the American automobile industry in the second half of the 1950s and its global reflections in the 1960s had an effect on Turkish tourism sector as in the rest of the world. However, the political instability and economic crisis affected tourism as well. The rate of travel by car decreased and that decrease reached more dramatic dimensions with the increase in airway travel. As a result, it caused the use of m/hotels nearly to end. Despite the enterprises and initiatives of the state for the development of Turkish tourism in the 1960s, tourism in Turkey then was far behind its Mediterranean neighbors. That also affected TUSAN M/hotels as much as the other enterprises in the 1970s.

CONCLUSION

TUSAN identity can be evaluated in terms of corporate identity, tourism identity, architectural identity and social identity in order to emphasize its historical value; and it can be stated that both its corporate identity and tourism identity owes to the juxtaposition of the concepts of "chain hotel" and "chain tour". Providing a spatial pattern required by its facility and infrastructure layout and its functionality as a m/hotel as well as taking social and cultural initiatives as a business, TUSAN M/Hotels mark a milestone owing to its "chain tour" concept and its relations as an entity in the nearby neighborhood. TUSAN, being regarded as more or less the one and the only as a component of a "m/hotel chain" in the regions that they were located, stands out among the others given the establishment of its m/hotels notwithstanding all difficulties; the achievement in the preservation of its name, identity and facilities almost for half a century, and the embodiment of one of the rarest entities surviving today and representing the accommodation buildings of Turkish tourism in 1960s.

In a sense, TUSAN M/Hotels had a “leading” role in the development of national tourism and in the economic, social and cultural development mechanisms of the regions in which they were located. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that TUSAN M/Hotel Chain opened a new era in the tourism of Turkey at the beginning of 1960s when Turkey was going through a tumultuous period in terms of social, cultural, political and economic aspects.

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Elevating Tourism Education from the Periphery to the Main Stream in Tertiary Education in Ghana: A Catalyst for Endogenous/Exogenous Sustainable Development

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is the greatest global human interactive phenomena of the 21st century with many integrated facets contributing to both positive and negative social justice and injustices, but on the main mostly positive. The primary goal of this research is to elucidate why this research project can offer alternative/ complimentary ways for the Ghanaian citizenry to elevate him/ herself out of the undeserved situatidness of poverty, underdevelopment and a host of other inhuman conditions. The research will attempt to prove that if Ghanaian decision makers at Executive level adopt a positive attitude towards tourism education. It will uplift both the individual and collective consciousness of the desired state of betterment through academic, vocational and social enlightenment. Against this backdrop this literature review to tourism anthropology and research methodology will be divided into four thematic areas to highlight why this research merits further investigation:

- I. Tertiary education in Ghana (special focus on tourism programmes).
- II. Tourism in Ghana.
- III. How tourism in its entirety can act as a major contributor to development theory.
- IV. Research methodology and summary.

It is hoped that aspects and abstracts of this study will be used in the final recommendations of the research outcomes as endogenous/ exogenous courses in tourism at the tertiary level 'fit for purpose' and relevant for the Ghana tourism student. Subsequently every part of this research is being written bearing in mind that it can be used as a framework for a topic, theme, subject or a framework for courses or tourism academic programmes. Thereby fulfilling both a personal achievement as well as a utilitarian goal.

And finally, the research methodology will address the procedure to be undertaken in order to prove the proposition that tourism education at the tertiary level can facilitate in bridging the social inequality gap and assist in poverty reduction in Ghana. A list of references is provided after a brief but concise summary at the end.

The research will discuss and examine why and how an endogenous/ exogenous tourism curriculum in higher education can contribute new knowledge to enhance positive and constructive socio-cultural change in Ghana.

Hypothesis

- The combination of endogenous/ exogenous tourism and hospitality curriculum in Higher Education, will not contribute to tourism development in Ghana.
- The current policy strategies for tourism administration and development at the national level suffice for the tourism industry in Ghana.
- Government should not invest finances in tourism education at the tertiary level. But rather invest in marketing Ghana as a popular tourism destination to attract the international tourist.

INTRODUCTION

With notable exceptions, modern university education in Africa is a phenomenon of the last half century (Sawyer, 2004) However, the contents of university education has remained for the most part stagnant and not kept up with the needs of the information and knowledge society. The milieu of complexities of both hard and soft challenges that besets African universities is not area of concern for this study. In sub Saharan Africa post-colonial universities were established for the primary purpose of building their human capital to have the mental capacity to build, manage and develop their own resources alleviate poverty. And ultimately close the development gap between themselves and the rest of the world. However, in 2015 it is clear and evident that the vision did not take off yet alone materialize.

There are many factors that inhibit the development of systematic, rational and well-coordinated tourism training initiatives both as a field of study and as a means of acquiring vocational skills (Airey & Nightingale, 1981; Baum, 2002; Collins, Sweeney, & Geen, 1994; Cooper, 2000; Cooper & Westlake, 1992; Koh, 1995; Mayaka & King, 2002; Saayman, 2005; WTO, 1997).

In recent years the amount of research and discourse on tourism training and education has grown significantly. In addition, various approaches have been adopted in tourism studies with a regional and/or national focus (Airey, 2005; Amoah & Baum, 1997; Ashton & Green, 1996; Baum, 2002; Bernthall, 1988; Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Holloway, 1995; Koh, 1995; Thomas & Long, 2001;

Tribe, 2005; Saayman, 2005). Subsequently, it is not out of place that this research will focus on Ghana.

Tribe (2005) provides a useful documentation on historical progression of research on various aspects of tourism training and education in the past two decades including curriculum design, teaching and learning, student progression and achievement, learning resources, and quality management and enhancement.

Amoah and Baum (1997) and Tribe (2005) have also pinpointed that a major weakness in most approaches to tourism training and education is the fact that the two-way relationship between tourism and hospitality, education and human resource development has not been approached and examined in a holistic and policy-focussed manner.

Tribe (2005) describes tourism education programmes in the UK as still being reactive and ad hoc in nature. Consequently, it is therefore appropriate to state that in most parts of the world there exists no proper linkage between tourism education and national tourism policies as relates to human resource development. Tourism academic discipline should be a study for reflexive development for the promotion of the general powers of the mind so as to produce not mere specialist but rather cultivated men and women and to transit a common culture and common standard of citizenship Stuart-Hoyle, M. (2005).

Therefore there is a strong case to contend that there is an urgent need for the development of versatile conceptual frameworks that bring about a convergence of endogenous and exogenous knowledge and applications of tourism training and education for the Ghanaian university tourism students.

Curriculum Design

The term curriculum for purposes of simplicity can be defined as the programme of educational experiences that is packaged as certificate, diploma or degree programmes (Tribe, 2005). There are numerous curriculum design models that been applied to tourism programmes (Bligh, 1975; Hirst, 1978; Manwaring & Elton, 1984; Rowntree, 1982; Tyler, 1949). These concepts need to be reviewed in light of the current tourism education phenomena to test whether they are still relevant and fit for contemporary tourism training and education in Ghana. Knowles (1984) argues that in order to meet the needs of the learner and for a curriculum to be relevant to the prevailing context, the process of curriculum design and development should take into consideration the whole environment in which the learning process takes place.

Dual Sector Development Economies in Least Developed Countries (LDCs)

In the heat of decolonization, the deception simple concept of 'development' was born. The state as the harbinger of economic development and social improvement was social order of the day with newly established international organiza-

tion, like the World Bank and the tentacular agencies of the United Nations that proliferated after 1945.

Sir William Arthur Lewis (23 January 1915 – 15 June 1991) was a Saint Lucian economist well known for his contributions in the field of economic development. In 1979 he won the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economics. When Ghana gained independence in 1957, He was appointed as their first economic advisor. He helped draw up Ghana's first Five-Year Development Plan (1959–63).

His **dual-sector model** is a model in developmental economics, was the blue print of how Ghana could transform as a developing economy into a developed country in terms of a labour transition between two sectors, the capitalist sector and the subsistence sector (Lewis, 1954).

As a nation Ghana was moving towards the physical capital stock in the manufacturing sector. This was intended to give rise to the possibility of creating new industries and expanding existing ones at the existing wage rate. However, a large portion of the unlimited supply of Ghana's labour force consisted of those who are in disguised unemployment in agriculture and in other over-manned occupations such as domestic services casual jobs, petty retail trading. Also the grey market (informal sector) of unskilled labour, who are mostly women in the household and child labour were not factored in. The Lewis model has been employed quite successfully in Singapore. Ironically however it was not employed in Ghana nor in Sir Arthur Lewis' home country of St. Lucia.

Dual Sector Societal System

According to Boeke, it is not necessary that a society be dominated exclusively by one social system. If one social system does prevail, the society in question is a homogeneous society.

Paradoxically when two (or more) social systems appear simultaneously, it can be considered to have a dual society. A new form of social system is currently prevailing in Ghana, which is a syncretism/ matrix of systems. The first characteristic of the system is the relatively greater importance of social needs. In this respects "Maslow's hierarchy of needs is clearly applicable especially in Ghana i.e. physiological, security and belongingness (Maslow, 1987).

Endogenous/ Exogenous Tourism Education can awaken Ghana into a new development economy

Development agencies have become addicted to growth in consumption. As individuals Africans are pressured to imagine themselves as 'have-nots' – always in need of help: more sympathy, more empathy, and more financial wealth. However, they naturally know greed and consumption cannot go on unchecked. Now is the right time and best opportunity to change Ghanaian societal values, employment and human development.

METHODOLOGY

This study will seek to validate an alternative way of considering philosophical and theoretical discourse on the nature of tourism education in Ghanaian institutions of higher education.

According to (Airey, 2005) tourism education in higher education even in Europe can trace its roots only as far back as 40 years as so. Subsequently the study will focus on the contemporary period of the last 30 years.

The research approach and methodology will draw from traditional methodologies moulding them at various stages of the research project. But will also draw from classic liberalism (old truths restated), Outcome mapping and Appreciative Inquiry (AI) that are innovative and creative methodologies that are relatively new, refreshing and contemporary in social research and are not strictly occidental in their conceptualization.

Epistemology of Research Approach

Basic fundamental assumptions will be challenged about the nature of historical realities that are determining the Ghanaian contemporary socio-cultural and environmental issues.

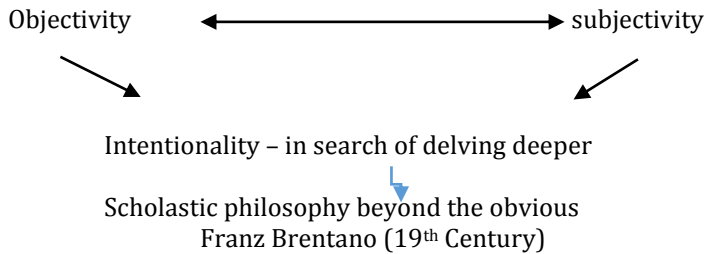
Ontological Perspective of Tourism Education in Institutes of Higher Education in Ghana

It is envisaged that tourism in higher educational in relation/correlation to a better well-being of the Ghanaian civil society and sustainable environment can be constructed to make real meaning of the experiential tourism phenomena in Ghana. In essence the truth will be systematically and analytically constructed and evaluated in light of both objective quantitative empirical statistical facts and qualitative subjective reasoning.

However, interpretivismist would argue that in attempting to describe a social reality that is already the product of processes, which have been negotiated by social actors to create meanings of cultural actions in specific places is not real at all and lacks authenticity. Hence the use of ontology for discussing the nature of tourism education in Ghana is inappropriate for social settings, situations or actions that have already been constructed and construed by actors and players.

From a constructionist viewpoint meaning/truth can neither be strictly objective or subjective but constructed out of a whole to create a reality to whoever is experiencing it and cannot and shouldn't be a universal standardized phenomena, such as globalization publicist and pundits would have all believe. Humphrey (1993) suggests that Africans construct meaning of the world as they engage with it. "It is the mind that makes meaning of the world. Africans work something out with the resources, skills and lived experiences as and when a phenomena occurs" stuff (Humphrey, 1993) p.17.

“The world is already there and it is for humans to generate meaning of the objects (M. Merleau – Ponty, 1996)”



No object can be adequately described in isolation in relation to the conscious being applied to it and the environment. Therefore, subjective and objective are always united hence ‘intentionality’ rejects the dictionary of objective and subjective but the interconnectivity and interface and interaction of both.

CONCLUSION

As indicated in all of the above, diverse research method traditions will be employed in a broader critical theoretical/ pedagogical context. This will lay the foundations for a transformative mode for a rational multimethod inquiry. The researcher hopes to produce a rigorous and praxiological insights into Ghana’s socio-psychographic ‘tourism education’ praxis.

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Culture Shock - A Study of Domestic Tourists in Sagada, Philippines

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INTRODUCTION

Cross-cultural contact is an aspect of tourists' experiences at a destination. Contrasting cultures create pockets for tourists and/or locals to feel confused and even shocked. The term "culture shock" popularly describes the difficulties of operating in a foreign culture (Pearce, 2005). This original concept by Oberg (1960) was originally applicable to nurses, doctors and missionaries abroad. Today, the same concept applies to tourists. Moufakkir (2013) underpins this explaining that the term is widely used in tourism literature to explicate the difficulties encountered by international tourists visiting another country. Pearce (2005) suggests that culture shock can manifest in different components. He further argues, however, that the phenomenon is often linked to cultural values and communication component. While culture shock is seen in a negative light, it is also seen as an opportunity for personal growth and cultural learning (Adler, 1975; cited in Moufakkir, 2013).

Indeed, the application of the term and concept of culture shock is no longer limited to overseas travel. Culture shock can also be observed among domestic tourists. This study adopts Pearce's (2005) definition of the phenomenon. In this context, the "foreign culture" is synonymous to something that is different from one's own culture, regardless of the tourist's origin (i.e. domestic or abroad). This is to say that unfamiliar environments and unusual cultural practices that can be sources of culture shock can be found in one's own country.

This study is focused on domestic tourists in Sagada, Mountain Province in the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR) in northern Philippines. The locale of this study is situated in Luzon, the biggest of the 7,100 islands of the country. This study is part of a bigger project that broadly aims to understand how culture shock affects tourists' experiences in Sagada, Mountain Province in northern Phil-

ippines. More specifically, this paper aims to identify what tourists find (culturally) shocking in Sagada. The factors used were taken from an interview with Sagadan elders, who have identified local practices and Sagadan physical, cultural and social characteristics which they think cause tourists' culture shock.

METHODOLOGY

A quantitative approach was employed in addressing the research aims. More specifically, a paper-based self-administered survey of domestic and international tourists in Sagada was conducted. The questionnaires were distributed by a group of student volunteers in four tourist areas in Sagada. These were the iconic Sumaguing Cave, Church of Saint Mary the Virgin, Echo Valley (where the hanging coffins are), and Kiltapan Peak (scenic lookout and campground). It was important to identify first-time visitors to Sagada, to ensure uniformity in terms of culture exposure among respondents. Out of the 320 surveys collected, 250 were usable. Nonetheless, only 4% of the sample were international tourists, and were therefore excluded from the data analysis. The analysed data hence consisted of 240 responses from Philippine-based tourists. The data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software.

The respondents consisted of 53.5% females, and 46.5% males. More than 65% of sample were aged 21-30 years old, and most of them were employed (60.1%). It was also observed that more than 77% of the respondents were single, and about 20% were married. The rest were either legally separated, or a widow/er. Divorce was not explicitly given as an option because it is not legal in the Philippines. The term "legally separated" may also be equated to the term "divorce" if it is applicable to the respondent. As expected, majority of the respondents were based in Luzon (88.5%), the biggest island. Twenty-one of them (8.6%) were from the Visayas Islands, and only a few were from Mindanao (2.9%).

RESULTS

In identifying the factors that cause culture shock among tourists, elders in Sagada were asked about their beliefs and practices which they think often "shocked" tourists (culturally). The most common factors that were identified were used for respondents to rate according to the extent to which they experienced culture shock. Using a Liker Scale, they were asked to rate each factor where: 1 = "no shock at all" and 5 = "high level of culture shock". The findings suggest that the top three factors which were relatively higher than the rest were the native people's high level of English proficiency ($\bar{x}=2.78$), the local burial practices ($\bar{x}=2.77$) and locals spitting betel nut ($\bar{x}=2.74$).

The Cordilleras is considered remote in the context of the Philippines. Because it is situated in the mountainous and often-imagined mystical and inaccessible regions of the north, many Filipinos have the misconception that Cordilleras are generally uneducated, conservative, and "tribal" in lifestyle. Also, unaware that

English is widely spoken in the Cordilleras, not only in Sagada. It was therefore surprising that the respondents were mostly shocked upon hearing the locals speak very fluent English. It was not asked whether they have previously visited other parts of the Cordilleras, so it can be assumed that the respondents were visiting the region for the first time. It is important to note that the culture shock identified here was a positive kind. The Sagada natives' proficiency in English can be attributed to American missionaries who educated the locals over a century ago. Historical accounts show that the province of Sagada was the seat of the Anglican Mission by American missionaries. The presence of the Americans in the region had a significant influence on the locals, specifically in terms of the use of English and the proliferation of Christianity.

Table 1. Causes of Culture Shock

Factors	Mean
Natives can speak fluent English	2.78
Burial practices	2.77
Betel spitting	2.74
Exotic food (e.g. etag)	2.52
Food preparation (e.g. pig butchering and pinikpikan)	2.5
Places were only accessible by foot	2.45
Thanksgiving rituals (i.e. begnas)	2.41
The roads were mostly bumpy	2.36
Jeepneys are overloaded, and people had to sit on top (not inside) the vehicle	2.28
Locals were still wearing traditional attires (e.g. wanes and tapis)	2.11
Use of indigenous musical instruments (e.g. gongs and gansa)	2.04

The local burial practices was also thought to be a culturally shocking factor, particularly with the Sagadan practice of hanging their loved ones' coffins instead of burying them. This practice is unique in the Philippines. While other tribes in the Cordilleras mummified their dead, the Sagadans believe that their deceased family member's spirit can roam around to protect their living loved ones if they were hung on a cliff or in a cave. The height of the cliff where a dead person's coffin reflects his/her social status, that is, the higher the coffin, the higher the individual's status in the community. It can be noticed that the hanging coffins are small for a full grown adult. This is because the corpses are placed in fetal position. This is linked to the local belief that the person should leave the world in the same position as they entered it. Elders in the village narrate that Lumiang Cave houses at least 100 coffins that have been hanging for about 500 years now. Another prac-

tice related to this factor is the segregation of burial caves. Women who died while giving birth are buried in a separate cave. Similarly, deceased community elders have a designated burial cave. People who have died of illnesses are often buried in more remote areas to avoid transmission of the disease.

Like the wide use of English in the Cordilleras, betel leaf/nut chewing is a masticatory indulgence in the region. The antiquity of this practice dates back to 2600 BC, and it is also commonly practiced by Muslims in the southern part of the Philippines specifically by the Maranaos, Babogos and Tausug tribes in Mindanao (Stuart, 2015). Nevertheless, it is not the chewing but the spitting of the betel juice that was thought to be shocking. When chewed and kept in the mouth for hours, the betel produces a red-coloured juice which is spat out. Stuart (2015) claims that the tell-tale residue “looks like splotches of dried blood on the ground, often mistaken as globs of phlegm”. The tourists may have similar observations and thoughts. In relation to this, the common observation that locals have “red mouths” is unsurprising. Additionally and more positively, the local custom of sharing one’s (betel) stash with familiar people and strangers alike is uncommon in most places in the country.

The factors with the least mean were unsurprising. The use of local attire and of local musical instruments are mostly expected by tourists. It was nonetheless impactful because in spite of the proliferation of modern clothing and “western” fashion, many locals are still fond of wearing the “g-string” (for men) and “tapis” (wrap-around skirt for women). Like local clothing, the Sagadans are still found users of the indigenous gongs for dances, rituals and other practices.

CONCLUSION

Cross-cultural encounters among Filipinos within the Philippines also cause culture shock. This paper aimed to identify the key factors that cause culture shock among Filipino tourists in Sagada, Mountain Province. Although the overall mean for culture shock among domestic tourists was low to moderate, it was clear that some of the factors that caused the shock were positive. The local’s ability to speak English fluently was shocking in a positive way. It was generally unexpected that people who live in the Cordilleran mountains are as educated as the people are in the lowlands. The local’s burial rituals and practices as well as the common habit of chewing and spitting betel nut/leaf have caused culture shock to their fellow Filipinos. Clearly, culture shock does not only manifest in international tourism, but also in local, domestic settings.

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Insights on Dharavi Slums in Travel Blogs

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INTRODUCTION

Slum tourism is one of the newest and fastest growing niche tourism markets in the world that has seen growth only in the past two decades, mostly because of exposure from a range of films and movies which have made slum tourism a popular topic for debate. Slum tourism is also an under-researched topic, but has started to catch the attention of researchers and scholars in recent years. A slum, as defined by the UN Human Settlements Programme (2003), is a 'heavily populated urban area characterised by substandard housing and squalor'. Similarly, Ma defines it as "a run-down area of a city characterized by substandard housing and squalor and lacking in tenure security" (2010, p. 3).

Slum tourism, also known as poverty tourism, can be described as tours organized for travellers to travel to under developed zones to look at people living in extreme poverty (Diekmann & Hannam, 2012; Kalandides & Hernandez-Garcia, 2013; Mekawy, 2012; Meschkank, 2011). The name slum tourism may seem self-explanatory, but the implications of the phenomenon are more complex receiving tourists in poverty-stricken areas; debates relating to morals and ethics are often attached to slum tourism. More specifically, the different and controversial nature of slum tours brings up a moral predicament that is whether slum tours have an educational value or are they just for unhealthy pleasures. In general, a number of travel agencies offer organized short and long guided walking tours to fascinated parties wishing to peek into the lives of the less fortunate.

This study which focuses on Dharavi Slums in Mumbai aims to identify the corpus of travel blogs related to slum tourism in India and more specifically, in Mumbai. It also aims to identify travel bloggers' insights about Dharavi Slums. The method in classifying bloggers' insights is two-fold, i.e. to identify the common themes in travel blogs written by tourists who visited the slums in Mumbai; and to ascertain from blogs whether tourists gained positive or negative experiences from their visit. This study offers a few contributions in the conceptual and com-

mercial realms. A basic understanding of tourists' insights about slum tourism in Dharavi using netnography, or online ethnography, is one of the novel contributions of this study. The commercial and practical applications of this study, however, may lie in the crevasses between the commercialization and the socio-cultural impacts of slum tourism in Dharavi.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A comprehensive appraisal of the previous research on slum tourism by Frenzel and Koens (2012) argues that slum tourism is a phenomenon that has evolved into a global scale but remains under-researched. Indeed, the last two decades has seen slum tourism as a new form of tourist activity particularly for western tourists. Heap (2009), however, as cited in Diekmann and Hannam's (2012) work, argue that slum tourism is not a contemporary form of tourist activity. Rather, it is thought to have its origins in Europe in the 19th century when people from the upper classes would walk through the city while observing the lower classes in a non-obtrusive fashion (Longhurst, Smith, Bagnall, Crawford & Ogborn, 2008; cited in Diekmann & Hannam, 2012). This practice continued amongst the upper class; the main motives for undertaking such activity were to escape social problems and to boost self-esteem by providing charity to the lower class citizens (Diekmann & Hannam, 2012). Later, the tours became more organized with bus tours (Heap, 2009).

Mumbai City (formerly known as Bombay) is the one of the most populous cities in the world. As of 2013, Mumbai's estimated population, including the metropolitan vicinity, is 20.5 million (World Population Review, 2014). This study focuses on Dharavi in Mumbai, India. Known as the largest slum in Asia, Dharavi is located in the heart of Mumbai and is characterised by mostly low-rise structures. Its area of 2.39 km² and a population of about 1 million people, Dharavi is indeed a densely populated area, i.e. 334,728 people per km² (World Population Review, 2014). The people who live in Dharavi are from all over India.

The sudden interest in slum tourism in India was first reported in Dharavi, Mumbai in 2006 (Ma, 2010). Since then, it has been fast gaining popularity, as seen from the increasing number of tourists visiting Dharavi each year. Further fostering the ever growing demand for slum tourism is indebted to Hollywood. Tourism induced by the movies and television has played a huge role in the swelling popularity of slum tourism globally (Freire-Medeiros, 2013). The 2008 multiple-Oscar winner *Slumdog Millionaire* heightened knowledge of slumming and increased Mumbai's popularity as a slum tourist destination. Reality Tours and Travel reports that its business increased by 25% after the release of the movie (Reality Tours & Travel, 2013).

To many, the lives of slum dwellers seem more real and untouched by the modern city life. Vacationers are driven by the desire to see disparities between the "tour object" and what happens in everyday life (Ma, 2010). Ma's (2010) study

further revealed that cultural curiosity and self-interest were the key drivers for tourists to visit slums in Mumbai. The inspiration linked to cultural curiosity is also said to be the key factor from which demand for this new segment of tourism arises from. Slum tourism offers a one-off experience that many cannot even imagine, having lived in first world countries. The traveller today seeks value in their breaks and is slowly distancing itself from the regular fashion of fun and instant gratifications.

METHODOLOGY

The first aim of this paper is to identify the volume of travel blogs related to Indian slums. Three popular travel blog sites were chosen as the sources of blogs: Travel Pod (www.travelpod.com), Travel Blog (www.travelblog.org) and Lonely Planet Blogs (www.lonelyplanet.com/blogs). Before the search was carried out, a list of single and combined key words were formulated so they can be used uniformly in all the three blog sites. The results of the searches in the blog sites were substantial, except for Lonely Planet where only a few entries were found. This made Lonely Planet an incomparable blog site for the study. Therefore, only the results from Travel Pod and Travel Blog were taken for this study.

In order to have an insight about what travel bloggers' experiences in the slums of Mumbai, 20 blogs from Travel Blog were analysed. Based on this scan of the materials, a 10-part coding scheme for the themes in the blogs was constructed to analyse the blogs in a more systematic approach. As the themes were based on the first 20 blogs, it is worthy to note that this study has not exhausted all the possible themes in the blogs included for further analysis. The limited time for this study has not allowed the researchers to extract more themes from the blogs.

Table 1. 10-part coding scheme (for initial coding)

Criteria	Description
Joined the slum tour	Whether the blogger joined an organized tour of the slum area
Described the slum environment	Refers to descriptions of the physical place (e.g. filthy, dirty, smelly) and of the living conditions of the dwellers
Expressed sympathy for the slum dwellers	Expressions of sympathy includes words such as "felt sorry for them (dwellers)", "bad living conditions", etc.
Compared slums with more developed societies	The comparisons were usually between Dharavi slums and the bloggers' usual place of residents, or other countries such as the USA, UK, Australia and other more developed parts of Asia
Expressed hope for the slum dwellers	comments about how the lives of the slum dwellers can be improved either through slum tourism or through government intervention.
Mentioned about the tour guide's positive comments about the slum/slum dwellers	Tour guide's positive remarks about the slum area and/or its dwellers

Mentioned about the tour guide's negative comments about the slum/slum dwellers	Tour guide's negative remarks about the slum area and/or its dwellers
Mentioned/described poverty in the slums	Used the terms "poverty" or "poor" in reference to the place, the people and their living conditions
Mentioned/described the livelihood of the slum dwellers	The bloggers have commented about the people's livelihood in the slums such as manufacturing leather goods, recycling, hand-painted crafts, etc.
Mentioned 'Slumdog Millionaire'	Used the movie Slumdog Millionaire as a reference

More than 2000 related blogs were accessed, but 165 blogs published between 2005 and 2013 in TravelBlogs and Travel Pod were coded for the study. Three rounds of coding were undertaken to ensure the validity of the data. It was thought that an analysis of this many blogs may provide substantial coverage for the wide contextual comments regarding the role of poverty in understanding tourist behaviour in Dharavi slums. The travel blogs considered in the study had to be in English and relevant to Dharavi slums.

RESULTS

This section includes a discussion of the findings that address the two-fold aim of identifying tourists' insights in travel blogs: a) to identify the common themes in travel blogs written by tourists who visited the slums in Mumbai; and, b) to investigate from blogs whether tourists gained a positive or a negative experience from visiting slums in Mumbai. The coded blogs were entered into SPSS for statistical analysis.

Themes were identified after initially analysing 20 blogs. It was observed that of all the themes identified, the most common theme was about the livelihood of the dwellers in the slums where almost 57% described or mentioned the sources of income of the people. The next most common themes among the blogs analysed are the mention of poverty (47.3%) and descriptions of the slum environment including the place and the living conditions of the slum dwellers (41.2%). Unsurprisingly, the least among the identified themes mentioned by the bloggers is that the tour guides remarked negatively about the slum area and the dwellers (5.5%).

A scan of the blogs to identify whether the bloggers joined the organized tours suggested that about 55% have participated. It can also be observed in Table 2 that the participation in organized tours of Dharavi have increased over the years, particularly from 2010 owing to the release of the movie Slumdog Millionaire, which has helped generate more tour participants to Dharavi.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics on the themes identified from the blogs

	N	Sum	%
Described the slum environment	165	68	41.21
Blogger expresses sympathy	165	40	24.24
Blogger compares slum with more developed societies	165	35	21.21
Blogger expresses hope for slum dwellers	165	39	23.64
Tour guide gave positive comments about the slum/slum dwellers	165	32	19.39
Tour guide gave negative comments about the slum/slum dwellers	165	9	5.45
Blogger mentioned/described poverty in the slums	165	78	47.27
Blogger mentioned/described the livelihood of dwellers in the slums	165	94	56.97
Slumdog Millionaire as a reference	165	59	35.76

By and large, the views of the bloggers about their organic experience in the slums of Dharavi were positive (77.4%). The comments denoting positivity were commonly related to expressions of sympathy, empathy and hope for the slum dwellers. Additionally, the experiences were mostly memorable or transforming for the bloggers rather than basal. Basal experiences can be quickly forgotten by people, whereas memorable experiences are those that stay longer in people's memory. Transforming experiences can potentially change people's view of the world, lifestyle or behaviour. Another important factor for the positive experiences of tourists is the idea that despite the substandard living and working conditions of the people, Dharavi projects itself as an economically thriving community. The industriousness and resilience of the slum dwellers were mostly thought of as an optimistic view about the people and Dharavi as a whole.

Negative and neutral experiences were very minimal compared to the positive experiences. The negative experiences (9.7%) that were drawn from the blogs were related to feelings of disgust mostly towards the substandard conditions of the place. Jessica, for example, recounted: *"I felt the stink enter my stomach... I saw rodents the size of cats... It was an awful sight that I would rather not see again."* Neutral experiences (7.5%) were difficult to ascertain, but in the analysis, they were characterized by comments that viewed as neither positive nor negative. Edna commented: *"More than anything, the trip was an eye-opener for me. I felt sorry for the people but I cannot really do much to get them out of that poverty"*

CONCLUSION

Slum tourism is not a contemporary tourist activity as noted in the historical accounts in the literature. In most of the blogs, poverty was seen as something that is real and authentic, and not something that is staged. Nevertheless, visitors to slum

areas view their experiences in different ways. In this study that explored the existing travel blogs in three travel blog sites, it was underpinned that tourists' perceptions of the slums vary and are changeable depending on how information is presented to them. The findings in this study suggest that the diversity of thoughts and feelings about slums among travel bloggers can be clustered into themes that provide a background for a better understanding of tourist behaviour in the slums. Previous studies reveal that many tourists are pulled by a destination's local culture including the people's living conditions, as well as the desire to experience the complexity and diversity of the place (Freire-Medeiros, 2013; Rolfes, 2010). This became evident in the tourist's quest for reality and authenticity. It could be shown that this desire is expressed in several ways. The tourists are not only looking for the real slum, but also for the true India—which both they believe to find in Dharavi.

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Looking Wider at the Antecedents of Hotel Guests' Satisfaction with Employees and a Two Destination Comparison

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INTRODUCTION

As destinations strive to compete with each other to attract visitors, performance of their hotels is of paramount importance (Tsai, Song & Wong, 2009). Researchers have noted a relationship between the competitiveness of a destination and that of its hospitality enterprises, which seems to go both ways (Kozak & Rimmington, 1998). Investigations originating elsewhere have attempted to analyze performance of hotel industry in relation to a number of factors, such as productivity (Barros and Alves, 2004), competitiveness (Brown & Ragsdale, 2002), brand image (Matilla & O'Neill, 2003), yet a destination wide analysis, where human resources' influence on hotel guests' satisfaction is scarce.

Istanbul as a destination has increased its attraction in recent years, going from 4,849,353 foreign visitor arrivals in 2005, to 12.414.677 in 2015 marking almost three fold increase over a decade (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2016), and thus deserves attention. This study provides both insights on the antecedents of hotel guest' satisfaction with employees of Istanbul hotels and the results of a systematic comparison between Barcelona and Istanbul on this variable. Barcelona was chosen for this comparison, because it is exemplified as a destination that was able to combine economic development with a strong emphasis on cultural activities and a highly successful tourism policy (Alvarez & Yarcın 2010). Moreover, Minghetti and Montaguti (2010) provided that Barcelona and Istanbul cluster together as they bear similarities in several factors such as competitiveness of accommodation supply, significance of core resources and attractions, etc.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hotel Guests' Satisfaction

Hotel guests' satisfaction and perceptions of service quality have been seen as essential in increasing the performance and competitiveness of hotels (Akbaba, 2006; Matilla & O'Neill, 2003), as these result in loyalty and positive word-of-mouth. Studies of guest satisfaction are abundant in the literature, and researchers developed scales to measure the variable. However, an alternative measure of hotel guests' satisfaction is "word-of-mouth" (Stringam & Gerdes, 2010). Today, most hotel managers are in search for ways to improve their online ratings, which were used as a measure of guest satisfaction also in academic work (e.g., Bulchand-Gidumal, Melian-Gonzales & Lopez-Valcarcel, 2011; Li, Ye & Law, 2013). Stringam and Gerdes (2010) listed friendly front-office staff, efficient check-in and check-out, and restaurant and bar availability as influential factors for hotel guests' satisfaction. These factors hint at the importance of employees' interaction with hotel guests, and online ratings on satisfaction with hotel employees could be an indicator of overall guest satisfaction.

Employee Participation and Attitudes

Participation of employees in decision-making processes is found to be an important factor in achieving a high-involvement and high-commitment management (Boxall & Macky, 2009). It could be characterized by allowing employees to contribute decisions on how their work is organized. In the literature, it is often assumed that "valuing employee contributions might lead to improved employee attitudes and behaviors, loyalty, commitment and more cooperative relations" (Wilkinson & Fay, 2011, p. 67). However, recently Kesting, Song, Qin, and Krol (2015) suggested that there could be different results depending on national settings on employee participation.

In service organizations giving power to employees is important because customer/guest is often physically there and affected by service failures. When employees are empowered they can recover service failures, respond to guest needs and delight them by exceeding their expectations (Bowen & Lawler, 1995; Inelmen, 2009). He (2010) provided that empowered employees in a hospitality organization are more satisfied with their work and when they perceive higher quality service, their job satisfaction is also higher. Given the importance of the service quality for all hospitality enterprises, it would not be an exaggeration to suggest that employee participation with its critical role for job satisfaction, in turn can have an impact on guest satisfaction. Other than the human resource (HR) practices, attitudes and behaviors of employees are essential influences on performance. A key factor is trust in organization, as it plays a role in shaping desired behaviors, such as cooperation, reduce conflict, and very often become a strong predictor for organizationally valuable variables (Wong, Ngo & Wong, 2006).

This research studies first, whether increased employee participation coupled with trust in organization and job satisfaction leads to improved hotel guests' satisfaction by employing primary data collected at the scale of Istanbul (Study 1). Secondly, based on data collected of two randomly selected and matched Barcelona and Istanbul hotel samples' online ratings on guests' satisfaction with employees was compared (Study 2).

METHODOLOGY

Study 1: The unit of analysis in this investigation is hotels that are chosen using a quota sampling technique based on star categories from the largest hoteliers association in Istanbul. The sample included 35 hotels selected randomly from this sampling frame with enough substitutes. To match their size in the list, of those six were five-star, 17 were four-star, seven were three-star and five were boutique hotels.

Hotel Guests' Satisfaction with Employees

To measure hotel guests' satisfaction for each hotel, the Booking.com web site was selected as the source for user-generated scores. Online travel sites use their own detailed rating system, and yet Booking.com has a wide coverage for Istanbul. It allows individuals to evaluate hotels on the dimensions of cleanliness, comfort, location, facilities, value for money as well as satisfaction with employees over 10 points. In 2013, "satisfaction with staff ratings" for the selected hotels obtained from the website, right after the data collection with surveys for the other variables.

Employee Participation Practices

A set of questions were directed to the 35 HR managers to collect information about the non-managerial employees' participation to decision-making practices. To represent as comprehensive a construct as possible four items were adapted to measure formal employee voice mechanisms (first two mechanisms to measure the flow of information is from bottom to top, the third from top to bottom and the last one being reward related). The HR managers indicated their degree of implementation on the workforce on a five point scale ('1'=0-20% of total employees; '5'=81-100% of total employees).

Job Attitudes

Five questions were directed to non-managerial employees, to measure general job satisfaction with perceptions about pleasure derived from work, as used by Kuşluvan and Kuşluvan (2005). Moreover, Robinson and Rousseau's Trust in Organization Scale (1994) was employed to measure employees' perspective about their employers' good intentions and trustworthiness. Using room number as a size indicator, for each hotel a quota of non-managerial employees was calculated.

For each hotel, an average job satisfaction and an average trust to organization score were calculated and employed for further analyses.

Study 2: To provide a sampling frame for the planned comparison between hotels of Barcelona and Istanbul, a list of hotels in Barcelona was employed (www.barcelonahotels.es/hoteles-barcelona-alojamiento.html), as it provided the largest choice. An overall check on Internet for star and boutique category and room number sizes was conducted by an assistant resident in Spain. By employing random numbers option of SPSS, for each category matching Istanbul numbers, hotels for Barcelona were selected, and ordered according to room sizes. Hotel guests' satisfaction ratings for these randomly selected hotels were obtained in 2015 for the matched 35 hotels in Barcelona and in Istanbul. This data is used for statistical comparison.

RESULTS

The Study 1's descriptives and the Pearson correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 1. The correlations between the independent variables were low to moderate, with the single exception of job satisfaction and trust in organization being relatively strong. Considering that the two measures were obtained from the same group, this result is not surprising. However, in the regression analysis the VIFs were lower than generally accepted cut-off of 4 in all cases, and thus there is no reason to expect heteroscedasticity. Durbin-Watson score of 2.476 showed no indication of serial correlation among the residuals.

Table 1. Descriptives and Correlations among the Study Variables

	Av. (S.D.)	1	2	3
1. Guests' satisfaction with hotels' employees	7.88 (0.9)	-		
2. Average employee job satisfaction	3.92 (0.3)	.31*		
3. Average employee trust in organization	3.72 (0.3)	.06	.76**	
4. Participation in decision making	1.96 (1.1)	.18	-.12	.07

Note: Correlations statistically significant at *.10 and at **.001 levels.

In the regression, star-category was entered as a control variable and it was found to have no significant impact on the prediction for hotel guests' satisfaction with employees. With the other independent variables added, the R² has reached to 0.277, and the result was significant (F[4,34]=2.88, p<.05). It might be of some value to remind that the R² obtained here through the analysis of data collected from three independent sources. The overall validity can deemed to be considerably high, due to the advantage of overcoming single-source bias. Average employee job satisfaction's contribution to prediction was highly significant (Beta=0.798, p<.01). Average employee trust in organization emerged as a potent predictor, although the effect in this case was negative (Beta=-0.638, p<.05). Finally, the ho-

tels' practices on employee participation in decision making had also an effect in the model, but the influence is modest (Beta = 0.302, $p < .10$) in predicting guests' satisfaction with hotels' employees (Table 2).

Table 2. The Regression of Guests' Satisfaction with Hotels' Employees on the Study Variables

Independent Variables	Beta	t-test	Sig.
Hotel's star-category	-.134	-0.845	n.s.
Average employee job satisfaction	.774	3.110	.004
Average employee trust in organization	-.578	-2.302	.028
Participation in decision making	.314	1.943	.061
R² of the Model		0.277*	

*Statistically significant at .05 level.

In Study 2, the secondary data collected in 2015 for the randomly selected 35 hotels in Barcelona and 35 hotels in Istanbul were compared with paired samples t-test. The test results revealed that on paired samples correlations, the matched samples were positively but moderately correlated and this correlation was significant ($r=0.31$, $p < .10$). On hotel guests' satisfaction with employees, Barcelona hotels received an average score ($M_B=8.48$, $S.D.=0.43$) that was higher than the average of Istanbul hotels ($M_I=7.81$, $S.D.=0.81$), and paired samples t-test comparison has showed a statistically significant difference ($t=4.98$, $p < .001$). In other words, the guests who stayed in Barcelona hotels have given substantially better ratings on satisfaction with staff, compared with those guests who stayed in Istanbul hotels during the same period.

CONCLUSION

Empowered employees can be expected to display on the spot "innovative and spontaneous activity" (Raub & Robert, 2013, p.144) and improve service quality. In the literature a close connection is found between employee participation and work attitudes (Wilkinson & Fay, 2011). Employees' job satisfaction and trust in organization were identified among the most potent predictors of organizationally important outcomes. Two benefits of employee participation is proposed, in general: better information flow resulting in better decisions, and job satisfaction consequently leading to better performance. However, on the down side, employee participation can lead to erosion of power structures, inconsistent decisions, conflicts between different individuals, and possibly distract employees' in-role performance (Kesting et al., 2015). The present results provided support to Raub and Robert's (2012) finding that employee participation would be more successful in countries with lower power distance and their suggestion to use of selective implementation and adaptation. In fact, employee participation had a weak relationship with guests' satisfaction with hotels' employees in this high power distance context (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002).

For Study 1, it could be concluded that when organizations provide employees with opportunities to participate in decision-making and voice their opinions, the control mechanisms partially transfer from management to employees. On the one side, this has increased the employees' satisfaction. On the other hand, it seems to have a decreasing effect on the trust in organization, because at least some of the employees are finding the task of participation cumbersome. Although research originating from Western countries, suggest that participation helps employees to build trust for their organization and it is linked with higher loyalty (Cho et al., 2006), the present results caution the reader about the cultural differences. Hospitality managers in Istanbul can be advised to use a careful amount of employee participation, to keep the levels of trust in organization at a level that would not negatively influence other organizationally important attitudes.

The Study 2's results suggested that secondary data from separate destinations could be useful for a preliminary comparison. Due to the limitation of ratings are coming from separate reviewer groups, one needs to approach the results with grain of salt and overgeneralizations should be avoided. Nevertheless, the matched samples approach was useful. Barcelona seems to be a suitable benchmark destination for Istanbul in terms of hotel guests' satisfaction, and thus the lessons learned could be valuable for both organizational improvement and knowledge development.

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Using Humour in Estonian Accommodation Establishments

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to provide an overview of approaches of humour and service design with a purpose of making suggestions how to integrate humour better into Estonian accommodation establishments' services and to make their offer more attractive for customers and therefore create competitive advantage.

Tourism is well researched academic field and aspects of humour have been studied in several different academic disciplines, yet humour in tourism has been looked into only briefly in last decade. Humour-tourism relationships have never been studied in Estonia, even though the slogan for introducing country to the world has been for several years "Positively surprising" and positive emotions are often related to humour.

Tourism is a serious business and according to Jafari (2000, pp. 585–587) challenging multisectorial industry and multidisciplinary field of study. UNWTO (World Tourism Organization UNWTO, n.d.) brings out that tourism has become one of the major players in international commerce, equaling or even surpassing oil export, food production or automobiles. This growth goes hand in hand with an increasing diversification and competition among destinations and tourism companies. Successful are the companies that are innovative and use new possibilities, approaches. Combining different academic fields and creating synergy is important for growth and development in many disciplines, including tourism sector. There are thousands of accommodation providers that look similar to customers. So, in order to distinguish from the competitors, it is important to offer something different. Using humour in different aspects of service processes and communication would be one of the possibilities.

Humour has been successfully used mostly in marketing but traditional marketing is not working for majority of customers anymore. Successful are companies who design their services. Marketing on its own is just one element of any organization's effort to innovate services. It is a multidisciplinary approach combining marketing with other specialism that serves to create value as services are designed and enacted in the interactions between individuals and organizations. (Stickdorn & Schneider, 2010)

Tourism, as one of world's industries most dedicated to serving and building people's happiness, is a rich world in which to study the links between happiness and humour (Pearce & Pabel, 2015). Service design is relatively new concept in tourism related academic literature, that concentrates on problem the client has. Zehrer (2009) found that service design must be undertaken in a holistic manner, embedded in the organizational culture and service experience must be appropriately managed by SME operators. Combining humour with service design methodology could give a huge competitive advantage.

Using humour in accommodation field has not been studied yet but there are some successful hotels in the world, who have integrated humour into their concept. Good example of using humour is 25h twenty five hours hotels (<http://www.25hours-hotels.com/en/index.html>). Their whole concept is quirky and funny. There are several serious hotels in the world that use funny "do not disturb" door signs, provide usable souvenirs with humorous sentences etc. Hotel Estoria (<http://www.estoria.ee/#/storybook>) in Tallinn introduces Estonia with a twist.

The main reasons for considering using humour in tourism establishments service, development, design and marketing, would be fast and uncontrollable growth of competition in tourism sector, huge supply of different services offered, need for differentiate in the fast changing multi-dimensional world. Using humour in tourism sector has been studied academically briefly mostly in Australia but never in Estonia. Pabel and Pearce (2015) outlined key ways how humour adds value for tourism businesses. Benefits of using humour for the businesses lie in distinctiveness, engagement with customers and enhancing the likelihood of repeat business. There is limited amount of academic literature in the field of humour usage in tourism sector therefore given study gives a good sequel for Pearce's and Pabel's research on the field of humour usage in tourism services.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In marketing and advertising humour has worked well. Birch (2011) says that advertising is all about getting attention and one of the best ways of getting attention is to add humour. When employed correctly, the power of humour is undeniable. It has proved that using humour in pre-flight safety briefing video is most effective in maintaining participants' attention as well as recall of key safety messages (Seneviratne & Molesworth, 2015).

Stickdorn and Schneider (2010) open the concept of service design as an interdisciplinary approach, which can be outlined along five basic principles: user-centred, co-creative, sequencing, evidencing and holistic. Roos (2014) notes, that design and humour can live in perfect harmony, where design driven is more an approach for incremental innovation, and humor for future research, divergence and radical innovation. Lundqvist *et al* (2013) found that storytelling caused remarkable differences in consumer attitude. Consumers who were exposed to the story described the brand in much more positive terms and were willing to pay more for the product.

Johnson and Ball (2000) took first steps towards moving understanding of humour beyond the level of anecdote and experience and suggests that licensed trade organisations and managers that carefully and intentionally use a touch of humour may have the last laugh. Pabel and Pearce (2015) found that in adventure tourism settings humour should be used because it made people have a positive time, made experience happier and helped to control anxious feelings.

METHODOLOGY

Research was conducted using mixed method – quantitative survey among Estonian accommodation establishments' representatives with several open-ended questions, end-user survey and expert interviews. In order to get a wide range of opinions, the semi structured questionnaires were sent to all enterprises (n=1203) advertising their accommodation services on Estonian Tourism Board webpage www.visitestonia.com. Data was coded and analyzed by using SPSS. 194 accommodation establishments answered the questionnaire. Sampling makes 16% of the population and therefore is representative.

Since humour in tourism sector service development and design is rather new academic approach, several international and Estonian experts, in the field of tourism, human research and marketing, were consulted to discuss how research could and should be conducted. One aspect that rose was cultural differences. Since cultural background plays very important role on how people perceive humour, it was decided to study only Estonian end-users.

Survey was posted to Facebook to get an overview from customers' side. All together 54 end-users answered the questionnaire. To deepen the knowledge about humour usage possibilities, two comedy experts and one hotel communication manager, that uses humour strategically, was interviewed.

RESULTS

66% of all the repliers of accommodation establishment study thought that humour is important or very important for their client in order to have a good travel experience, 58% thinks that it is necessary for accommodation establishment to use humour. 69 accommodation establishments answered that they have used humour in their services. Main aim for using humour was to create positive emo-

tions. Most of the time humour was provided by the front line worker and humorous stories have an important role in communication. Figure 1 shows different levels humour could be used in accommodation establishments.

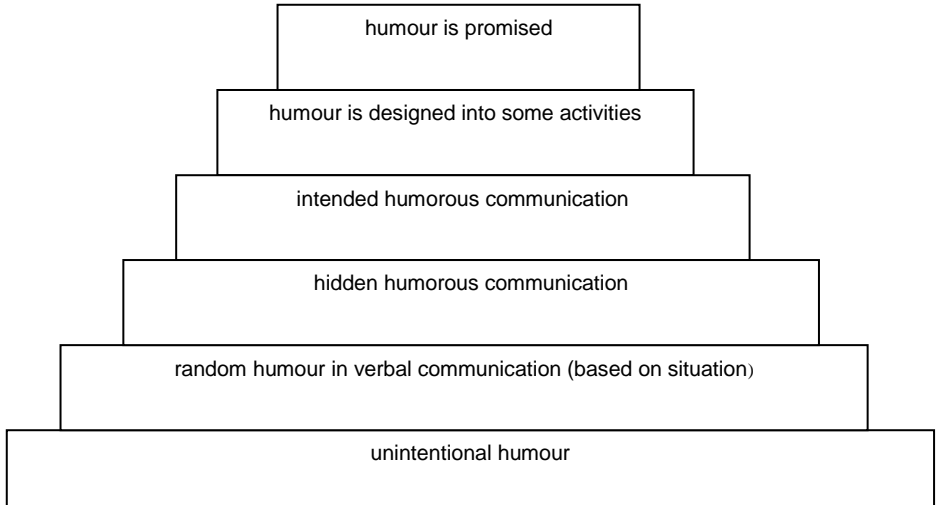


Figure 1. Pyramid Of Humour Usage In Accommodation Establishments (Compiled By The Authors)

Even though 45 end users from 54 answered that humour plays an important role in their travel, many gave feedback that they just cannot recall anything funny from their travel experience. So there is an issue of remembering humour. People remember good emotion that they received but not particular joke or aspect that made them laugh. Accommodation establishments on the other hand have noticed that some clients, who come to visit, have already heard previously told funny stories. Most of end-users mentioned bad service, that was funny to them.

From expert interviews it turned out that communication does not have to be “laughing out loud funny”, but positive and smugly. Overall atmosphere in hotel needs to be positive and clients have to feel that they are welcomed. Quality demand is high everywhere. Accommodation establishment has to define who they are and want to be, finding a niche will give an advantage. Humour could be used in several levels (see table 1) but it has to be natural.

Table 1. Possibilities of using humour in different aspects of service

Different approaches of humour	Possibilities of using it in marketing communication and service processes
humour at someone's expense	communication has to be delicate and not to offend receiver, normally joke would be at someone's expense, that client does not relate to
puzzle or hidden joke, that needs receiver to think	specially designed action or story that will culminate with humorous solution
unexpected result, surprise	explaining unique aspects from accommodation establishment that visitor would not understand or notice other-ways
humour as social control tool (mechanism and stabilizer)	humorous sign or manual to explain how something should be done
humour as a relief tool for breaking the tension or cope with difficult or unexpected situations	humour in interaction to solve problem
overcoming unpleasant situation	explaining shortcomings with humour

Source: La Fave, 1972 as cited in Palmer, 1994; Neuendorf, 2010; Martin *et al.*, 2003; Pearce & Pabel, 2015; Wilson, 1979 as cited in Willis 1992; Lynch, 2002; Samson & Gross, 2012 (compiled by the authors)

CONCLUSION

Intentional usage of humour is not common in Estonian accommodation establishments, 37% have done it. Tourists find humour to be an important part of tourism experience but they often cannot recall it. Accommodation establishments should always provide quality service to their guests but using humour helps to make service more personal and to create positive experience, that customers often share in social media. There will always be accidental humour, that cannot be controlled or planned occurring thru interaction. And there is always a possibility that some people will not understand.

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Rome, Florence and Venice: Post-Modernization, Heritage and Tourism in Italy

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ABSTRACT

Tourism has always played an important role in Italy and, since the Grand Tour time, it has shaped its image. Yet the processes of post-modernization have deeply affected both tourism and the Italian main tourist destinations. Theming and culturalization of consumption (Melotti, 2016), urban beautification processes and “new tourisms” (Marra & Ruspini, 2010, 2011), as well as a new approach to authenticity, related both to a post-modern tourist gaze and to new international tourism, are transforming Italian towns, their urban and tourist policies and their image. There emerge new interesting hybrid narratives mixing culture and consumption, history and leisure, tourism and urban processes.

Rome, which has the largest archaeological area in Europe and one of the largest in the world, under the effects of post-modernization and new international tourism has witnessed the transformation of its main archaeological area (including the Colosseum and the ancient Forums) into a sort of huge theme park, with multimedia shows and special events. The loss of historical consciousness, the development of new concepts of authenticity (Lukas, 2007; Gilmore & Pine, 2007; Melotti, 2011), the increasing importance of sensorial and experiential forms of tourism have played an important role in

this change, which has also favoured the spreading of living history and historical re-enactment. This process has led to a sort of “late” Disneyization of the archaeological site, according to models originally emerged in countries without such a rich historical heritage.





Florence, a city with an extraordinary ancient centre dating back to the Middle Ages, has witnessed the transformation of this area into a sort of great open-air mall under the pressures of consumerism and international tourism. It is interesting to remark that, while in China various “Florence Villages” have been recently created for commercial and tourist purposes, even near Florence a similar themed outlet was opened, which presents itself as a new tourist destination, deserving “tourist gaze” (Urry & Larsen, 2011).

Venice is experiencing a similar destiny. While in the United States (Las Vegas and elsewhere) and in China some fake Venices were constructed for commercial, residential and tourist purposes, the real Venice is becoming a city largely based on tourist activities, which affect its image.

Yet, surprisingly, despite this deep cultural change, Italian towns seem to be resilient to the effects of globalization and to maintain their “identity”. Actually, tourists and local communities contribute to create a new lively transnational urban culture. These cases are really “good to think” the complex and dynamics relationships between tourism and heritage as well as between tourism and urban policies.

The paper entails an interdisciplinary approach taking into account sociology and anthropology of tourism, urban sociology, cultural and heritage studies.

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Green Destination Image: Construction, Projection and Perception

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INTRODUCTION

Destination image and brand are key components of tourism destination marketing. For some destinations, image incorporates environmental components, creating the concept of green destination image, GDI. Here we analyse GDI for Chilean Patagonia, a region which is recognised globally as a "bucket-list" site for nature and adventure tourism. Our analysis includes: cognitive, affective and conative components; from induced, organic and autonomous information sources; for constructed, projected and perceived GDI. It also includes: 5 subsidiary regions; multiple public and private sector tourism stakeholders; and both domestic and international tourists.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Destination image (DI) is broadly defined as the perception of a place held by past and potential visitors and other tourism stakeholders. There are three principal steps in the formation or induction of destination image: construction, by tourism stakeholders; projection, through marketing channels; and perception, by tourists (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Gallarza et al., 2002; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003; Govers & Go, 2004).

At each step, destination image incorporates only a selected subset of information about the destination. Participants may receive information from induced, organic and autonomous sources (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Induced information sources refer to marketing materials controlled by tourism stakeholders. Organic sources refer to word of mouth and social media communications from friends and family. Autonomous sources refer to mass media communications such as magazines, books, documentaries and films (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Each stage in the formation of destination image includes cognitive, affective and conative components: knowledge, feelings, and intentions (Gartner, 1993, 1996; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Zhang et al., 2013). Each of these components may differ between individual tourists, depending on origins, culture, experience, sociodemographic and psychological factors (Kridler et al., 2010).

Each of these stages, sources, and components may include aspects relating to the natural and human environment. Relevant environmental components have been identified broadly in the literature of ecotourism (Weaver & Lawton, 2007; Buckley, 2009); and in considerable detail within tourism ecocertification programs which include destination-scale programs (Ecotourism Australia, 2009; The National Tourism Administration China, 2010; Certificacion para la Sostenibilidad Turistica, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

This study includes: five field sites, in four different administrative regions; multiple industry stakeholders at each site; induced and autonomous sources; cognitive, affective and conative components; and domestic and international tourists, distinguishing different areas of origin. Data are derived from: on-site audits in person; semi-structured interviews; and multi-lingual analysis of documentary and online materials. It is the most detailed study to date of GDI, especially for a strongly nature-based destination.

The sites are: Huilo Huilo Biological Reserve; Lake Llanquihue Basin and surroundings; Chiloe Island; the Carretera Austral; and Torres del Paine National Park. Public-sector stakeholders included: 16 national and regional destination management organizations (DMOs); and six park rangers from national parks. Private-sector stakeholders included: 21 participants from 17 tourism enterprises; and seven representatives from tourism industry associations, and from conservation subsidiaries of tourism enterprises. A total of 53 domestic and 34 international tourists were interviewed, both on and off-site. Domestic tourists included an additional group who had not visited any of the sites.

Interviews were conducted principally in Spanish. They were recorded, transcribed, translated to English, and analysed using grounded theory methods, with NVivo 10. A total of 124 documentary and online destination marketing sources were identified for the five sites, including marketing brochures, websites

and social media (Facebook), and a sample of 37 of these were analysed using a thematic content approach.

Initial coding of interview transcripts and documentary sources was derived from an extensive existing set of green tourism parameters, extracted and summarised from published literature on ecotourism, and from high-standard destination eco certification programs from Australia, Costa Rica and China. These parameters may be divided broadly into: (i) those relating to environmental quality, either aesthetic or technical; and (ii) those relating to environmental management performance, such as energy and resource conservation, and waste management.

Coding was extended to reflect additional themes expressed by interviewees, especially those related to the human environment, such as architecture, cultural authenticity, and local food supplies.

RESULTS

Coding identified 67 individual green topics. These topics are classified into seven principal high-level themes: aesthetics, environmental quality, environmental management performance, health, education, community involvement, and cultural authenticity.

All stakeholders do indeed incorporate green aspects at all stages in construction, projection and perception of destination image for Chilean Patagonia: there is a recognizable and powerful GDI. However, different stakeholders emphasise different aspects, and individual interviewees focused on different aspects as interviews progressed: there is currently no coherent consensus GDI.

As a geographic region, Chilean Patagonia is formed by four different local government administrative regions. These compete against each other to attract tourists, focusing on differential green features of their own areas, rather than combining to construct and market an overall GDI for Chilean Patagonia as a whole. Individual tourism enterprises target different and highly specific markets, and have customized their marketing strategies accordingly. They sometimes do not coordinate well with DMOs, either in their actual sustainability strategies, or in their green destination marketing strategies.

Overall, the constructed destination image of Chilean Patagonia incorporates numerous green components, but at most sites these are not defined or coordinated consistently across the various public and private stakeholders.

The projected destination image also includes green aspects, including landscape aesthetics, adventure, biodiversity, and cultural authenticity. It also incorporates elements such as architecture and local vegetable gardens, which act as symbols of authenticity, pristineness, and environmentally friendly practices.

DMOs promote sustainability through a national tourism ecocertification program or “green seal”, but this is not considered as an effective marketing tool either by private tourism enterprises or by tourists. Destination-specific websites feature more detailed green information. Facebook destination pages, however, which are becoming particularly influential platforms in destination marketing, are used for promotional events unrelated to greenness.

Inbound international tourists from other continents perceive Patagonia as a coherent green brand, known for nature, remoteness and wildness. Tourists from other South American nations, in contrast, focus on particular individual features, such as luxury ecolodges or iconic natural elements.

Chilean domestic tourists, however, are driven by fashion and domestic marketing campaigns, which do not promote Patagonia as a whole, but distinguish separate regions. Chileans look for low-cost luxury in nature and fashion, and for them, greenness implies a place that is green aesthetically. For Chileans, ecologically significant destinations are recognised principally through newsworthy events, such as environmental controversies and awards. Therefore, perceived green destination image for Chilean Patagonia differs considerably according to tourist countries of origin.

CONCLUSION

Greenness is indeed a valued attribute in destination image and branding for Chilean Patagonia. However, there is neither an agreed definition, nor a joint strategy between DMOs, to market green features, or even to market Patagonia as a brand. Greenness is interpreted very differently by different stakeholders, and includes aspects of health, food, architecture and cultural authenticity, as well as environmental aesthetics, quality and management. These individual attributes, rather than a generalised GDI, are used by individual tourism enterprises to target specific market segments.

From a research perspective, this study demonstrates a complex fabric in the formation of GDI, with multiple dimensions in its construction, projection and perception, strong influence from autonomous and organic as well as induced sources, considerable differences between tourists from different origins, and competition rather than cohesion between stakeholders within the destination.

From a management perspective, it is clear that in order to take advantage of the GDI of Chilean Patagonia as perceived by international tourists, a national-scale brand and image-building program would be required to be designed and internationalised. For domestic tourists, the most effective approach could be to incorporate green aspects in the successful domestic marketing campaign, *Chile es tuyo*, by emphasizing green luxury and fashion.

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The Image of Iran in French Tourists-Writers Works of the 20th Century: The Case of Nicolas Bouvier and Pierre Loti

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INTRODUCTION

It was in the 17th century that Europeans were beginning to show an intense curiosity about Persia. At the time of the Safavid kings, Persia became the real centre of interest of all lovers of the Orient (Eastern world) who were then called Orientalists. The diversity of Iranian lifestyle and the strangeness of anything else that did not exist in Europe, encouraged more and more the travelers to save permanently the different moments of their experience through the lines of their travel writings. With a pen in hand, they did not miss to mention the slightest traces of otherness in all its form : the climate, nature, men, women, manners, customs or anything else that generates the gap between their own geography and that of the host country. The image produced by travelers-tourists varies depending on each individual case or considered perspectives. In 1953, Nicolas Bouvier, writer, iconographer and Swiss traveler with his friend, Thierry Vernet, went to the East crossing Yugoslavia, Macedonia, Iran and Afghanistan and he tells all his discoveries in his work entitled, *The Way of the world*. In his trip to Iran, he wants to know the new world devoid of any presupposition and prejudice. Therefore, by making the thoughts and perceptions of this new world images, it seems that he seeks to connect with a strange and paradoxical Iran. The objective of present paper is to study the image of Iran made by this French traveler-writer and to describe it in many different forms focusing on cultural, traditional, religious, linguistic, literary and architectural stereotypes. We are going to seek what's Nicolas bouvier's point of view about Iran.

METHODOLOGY

In this research, we chose to rely on a methodology based on the imagology which interests in a main field of comparative literature: the relation among writers and foreign countries as it is reflected in literary works.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Iranian Stereotypes by Nicolas Bouvier *The Socio-Cultural Costumes*

In the chapter "The lion and the sun", Bouvier describes the clothing and gestures of soldiers and emphasizes their courage: "To stay, a permit was required, because Tabriz is a military zone/area." (p. 173). In Mahābād, he also observes the same rigidity in the execution of military regulations, certain details confirm that the Kurds (Kurdish people) are effectively armed to the teeth, which indicates that the military order dominates in almost every area of Iranian society.

Bouvier knows Iranians as curious people always searching for the Other. They are people who "will never get the chance or the way to see Paris, but who speak French perfectly. This characteristic of Iranian people is more explicit when Bouvier goes to Isfahan and he finds out that people look at him with a curious eye. He is also affected by the nobility and generosity of Iranians. At the beginning of his stay in Tabriz, he is afraid of the covetousness of these men but it is misjudged. Even reduced to the most extreme point, they share the little they have with the newcomer. One of the Iranian cultural manners which is completely new to him is the famous salutation: "beframāid" that means: "you first" and is used in many situations. Bouvier writes: "never when I was at their table, they start without offering me at first: Beframāid-you first"... I was wondering and asking myself which order can drive these people on empty stomachs to offer automatically the little they have?" (p. 206) Bouvier found there the treasures of generosity and humanity that he had not expected. The welcome was like a surprise for him. It is contrary to the author's hometown. The difference between behaviors of Iranian people and those of French highlighted by Bouvier, shows the specificity of one culture over another. What allows the traveler to see himself in the mirror of the Other. Bouvier see among people of Tabriz a lifestyle which consist in being successful and happy even despite everything that could lead them to the greatest despair. Regarding the traditional rites of Muharram, Bouvier inquires the image of Islam in Iran and wonders about it. He finds "many ethics" in these rites by doing researches about the Imams.

In a letter to his mother, Bouvier admits that « six months in Tabriz were enough for him to see that in Europe they had been lied to. » (François Laut, Nicolas Bouvier, *the eye that writes*, p. 116). Bouvier and Vernet integrated long enough in other to realize the cultural and social complexity of the city. Travelers left Tabriz and stayed for two months in the capital, Tehran, the prosperous and most Francophile city where they found job.

THE PERSIAN ARCHITECTURE

Bouvier describing the visited places in his literary work, offers true drawings to the Iranian architecture art. "The collapsed, deserted and silent maze" of the road of Yazd (Abarghou) seems to him "to have lost its tongue" and suggests the image of a "black" and "barefoot" man who is constantly in silence. By reviving the archi-

tecture and literature, he creates a frightening image of his visit of the road of Yazd. Bouvier observing "the blue enamel porch of the famous mosque in all Islam" (p. 176) draws the image of Iranian landscape. The writer discovers "an inimitable blue" in Tehran, which "sings and flies" and which is joined with "the ochre sand, with soft dusty green foliage, with snow, with night" (p. 254). A union between blue, ochre, green and black invades the mind of the writer giving him an intense calm. This junction among colors becomes Bouvier's paradise found in gardens in Iran: "A paradise of subdued colors, an abstract and imponderable paradise". Because, gardens in Iran "float" in colors and the "miraculous water" bring peace (p. 264). Through this union of colors, Persian mystical blue at the head, this floating and appeasement, Bouvier feels a kind of ascension to heaven. Then, the last night in Kerman seems beautiful and sweet to Bouvier and its sky "as the world's largest sky". The sheaves in "the wheat fields cut" in Isfahan are like the beauty of radiance of "bronze" for author, these are in fact the carpets spread on the ground, which are turned, through the magic of sunlight, into something too precious, in bronze (p. 268). The ruins of Takht-e Jamshid (Persepolis) suggest however "Misery" and "a kind of ambiguous bitterness" for him. Note that, for Bouvier, the snow is evocative of cold mountain climate of Tabriz. The snow of Tabriz appears to him as a pure object. The use of the word "zemzstan" in Persian in the work of Bouvier, insist on the winter of Iran that is completely new for him. Bouvier also discovers in Tabriz the spring moisture, the bombardment of the "shooting stars (comets)" of summer. "The rainy sky" and "the rainfall" in Mahābād rinse the poet's heart and change him to another than himself, "twisting him like a sponge" in an extraordinary purity.

THE STILL IMAGES BY PIERRE LOTI

Pierre Loti begins his journey through the Bushehr port. From the beginning, the geological nature of the country calls a great attention of this traveler. His style allows him by using metaphors and poetic images to develop and make his contemplations with more finesse. Crossing the southern mountainous region offers him the strange landscapes. He is attracted by the night of the East and also the caravans: « Unknown escort, very Persian silhouettes; for me, new faces, costumes and harness seen for the first time » (p. 12). He gives impressive descriptions of the desert and oases. Loti admire Kazerun crossing this Persian city: « small town of the past, which persists unchangeable », where he discovers a kind young virgin nature. In Shiraz, he goes first to the "little Jewish bazaar" and then to "the real bazaar of Shiraz, which is a huge place full of surprises ». There, he sees hospitality and welcome among inhabitants: « A circle is immediately formed around us [...], all these people here looks very welcoming and gentle with delicate faces, eyes wide open, lively and dreamy look » (p. 82-83). During a visit to the tombs of Saadi and Hafiz, he tries to present these two great poets in details to French readers while evoking the rose bushes, the wild plants that reveal the eastern mystery to him. He goes to Persepolis and finds « one of the great classic wonders of the Earth, pyramids of Egypt » (Loti, 1978, 126). The large ruins of Persepolis palaces

give him a great joy. But he is eager to get Isfahan, « a turquoise and lapis lazuli city » wrapped in exuberant greenery. There is no change in the uses of everyday life: miniature cups of tea, the « Kalyan », bouquets of very fragrant roses are popular in Isfahan. Isfahan is after Persepolis the second model that reveal a sense of history. The Safavid kings arouse Loti's admiration, it's Shah Abbas who build all these historical monuments. Loti believes that the greatness of the country belongs only to the past. He describes willingly landscapes that gave special charm. While he was leaving Isfahan, Loti considered that the main part of the trip was over. When he entered the religious city "Kum", he was surprised to see a very strong traditional spirit. He denies the hospitality of inhabitants of this city: « this world seems inhospitable and wild; the same fantasy can be read in very ardent or dead looks » (p. 278) Loti approaches the capital, Tehran, with a bad feeling. The architecture and lifestyle, everything is imbued with European civilization, wealthier social classes have totally adopted the western way and modern uses that seems incredible to him. For Loti, life in the capital is too hard to bear, because everything is imitated, everything is copied from Europe. He also expresses regret about his visit of the « grand vizir »: « it feels like being in Europe: what a pity! and what a mistake !... » (p. 294). In addition, French language is commonly spoken by the privileged groups of society. Loti invents a world according to his will to see and feel everything that appears important to him.

CONCLUSION

We have seen how both tourists-writers by traveling the country have projected the images they made of what they saw. This image is made of narration, description and it is accompanied by judgments. The reality of Tabriz will be sufficient to make another Bouvier transforming his conception of human existence. In their journey, they describe only what seems interesting to them.

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The Impact on the Cruise Industry of the Changes that are Today Impacting the Hospitality/Catering Industry

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INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to identify the specificities in the management of cruises compared to the hospitality/catering sector in order to understand to what extent the changes that are now impacting this sector are relevant in the framework of the cruise industry.

A SPECIFIC MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

The cruise industry is an industry which has quite a specific cost structure. There are different types of costs: the capital costs (purchasing and depreciation cost of the ship), fixed costs (insurance, wages, ...) and variable costs per passengers (food, global distribution, ...). In the cruise sector, the importance of fixed costs has led to a strong trend towards business consolidations within a handful of powerful groups as well as an increase in ship size. However, separating ship ownership from ship exploitation has not turned into a trend as dominant as in the hospitality sector. Concerning revenues of cruise companies, they come from ticket sales but also from additional spending of passengers on board as well as from revenues of on-board service providers.

A UNIQUE SALES POLICY

The sales policy is a key element of the business model in hospitality, catering and cruise sectors. Indeed, the development of the Internet has deeply altered the selling methods of various players in tourism industry. Today, the strategy favored by most players is multi-channel distribution in order to reach as many customers as possible and to avoid strong dependence to a single distribution channel.

The great advantage of the cruise sector comparing to hospitality and catering is that destinations can change and that theme cruises were introduced. It offers something new.

Given the importance of fixed costs in these different sectors, the players needed to optimize the occupancy of their structures. That is why they implemented “yield management” principles such as discounted cruises during off peak season, or discounts for early-bookers.

Hospitality is also concerned by those “yield management” principles, for example by assessing the proportion of customers that will actually turn up, to avoid income losses linked to cancellations.

In catering, those principles are still tricky, because of the uncertainty surrounding the time customers will spend in the restaurant.

REGRETTABLE SOCIAL CONDITIONS

The sectors of hospitality and catering are today desperately suffering from a labour shortage. The cruise industry tackled that issue by using flags of convenience, which enable ships to hire low-cost labour.

The viability of this kind of “social dumping” is sometimes questioned, especially because of staff quality.

Hospitality and catering sectors are also suffering today from the multiplicity of trainings of offer and from the lack of legibility of these. On the contrary, cruise industry is desperately suffering from the lack of training of its employees.

Increased efforts in the field of sustainable development

Sustainable development has become crucial for tourism industry.

Cruise companies, pointed out for being responsible of several damages to the environment, agreed to respect MARPOL norms. In addition, in spite of an increasing number of travelers, the waste and pollution generated by cruise operators have been cut by half.

Efforts have also been made in purchasing policies within the tourism industry. Local procurements are always more favored in order to reduce environmental footprint.

CONCLUSION

Unlike the hospitality and catering sectors, the cruise sector has a strong growth potential. But some efforts should be made in terms of staff trainings and to improve social norms, by inspiring from other sectors. The cruise sector is today ahead of the game in terms of environmental issues. The different sectors should be aware of new trends such as online booking and the growing importance of social networks. Those new trends are an opportunity to understand better customers, which could have great impacts on yield management.

Geographical Factors and Developments Affecting the Development of Tourism Activities in Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Human being should take nourishment, take shelter and have a rest together with the economic activities in order to survive. Tourism activities are one of the economic activities, on the other hand, they also lead to sightseeing, resting and spending pleasant-nice time, which are one of the human life requirements. In the world, tourism activities have experienced a big change and development along with the globalization. Geographical factors are very influential in the development of tourism activities on the earth. The geographical factors of each area have led to the development and diversification of tourism activities. In this context, the geographical factors also have great importance in the tourism activities in Turkey. Turkey is one of the countries showing very different characteristics in respect of its location. Natural and human conditions have determined and guided the tourism activities of the country and revealed its potential. Topography, morphological units, geological structure, climate, vegetation cover, settlement date, settlement characteristics, cultural and educational elements direct the tourism activities in Turkey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies were carried out in Turkey and in the world on the geographical factors affecting the development of tourism activities in Turkey. However, the studies which were used as a reference in this study were mentioned.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, conventional research methods were used. In this context, the literature review was performed, and official statistical data were used. In addition, the onsite observation method was used in the field research performed in Turkish tourism regions.

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS AND DEVELOPMENTS

The world's most important revenue-generating activities are agriculture and industry. However, some areas are not suitable for such activities due to natural and economic conditions. Tourism activities taking place on the site have gained a great economic and social dimension. Tourism is gradually coming to the forefront particularly in the globalized world. Tourism activities gained a place at the forefront of important economic activities in the world as communication and transportation accelerated and spread around the world. "It has become the most important export activity even in the United States which is economically the most developed country in the world since 1991 and made this country the first in the world in terms of tourism receipts" (Özgüç, 2015, pp.97-98). France is the leading country in terms of the number of tourists.

"Tourism is a set of multifaceted relations. It has social, political, psychological, environmental and economic impacts. However, especially the positive economic effects of tourism have been focused on in our country" (Doğanay & Zaman, 2013, p.34). Although there has been a negative perception of tourism activities because of the claims that they degenerate society, negatively affect the culture and make the youth alienate to their traditions and customs for many years, this perception has changed in time due to the revenue they generate. Barriers and walls between countries have been either destroyed or used for tourism purposes to attract tourists.

It is a reality that natural environments have been deteriorated as a result of increasing world population, careless land use, and economic activities. The concept of ecotourism has come to the fore for the protection of the natural environment and a sustainable place for the future and, thus, tourism activities have been diversified. "The potential of any place in the world to attract tourists depends on three features: Attractions, accessibility, and accommodation (three "A"s of tourism - attractions, accessibility, accommodation" (Özgüç, 2015, p.99). In this context, Turkey has more than enough of the required attraction, accessibility and accommodation facilities thanks to its geographical location and its characteristics.

The natural, human and geographical features of Turkey, which functions as an important bridge in the world, led to the creation of a strong tourism potential. Negative political and economic factors occurring in the world also affect tourism. Negative developments that can occur particularly in the Middle East, Caucasian Region and the Balkans immediately affect the Turkish tourism. "The diversified natural, historical and cultural resources, the suitable climatic and geographical conditions for different tourism products, hospitality, a creative and strong tourism industry, the sensitivity of professional and non-governmental organizations for tourism and protection-usage balance are the strengths of the Turkish tourism, and these strengths are expected to be mobilized" (Emekli, 2005, p.101). Tourism activities have gained a different dimension from the first-day characteristics

and experienced rapid changes and developments both in Turkey and in the world. The improvements in the transportation, communication and information opportunities also affected tourism activities and, thus, eliminated distances in the globalized world. The working conditions and personal rights of those working in the tourism industry were given by legal regulations. In the past, those who had better financial conditions used to perform tourism activities within certain distances. The revealing of human needs for vacation due to the intensive working days and the chaos of the city, the establishment of tourism awareness, and the improvement in the educational and cultural levels led to the need to see new places.

“Each of our seven geographic regions has a special importance with its natural beauties, attractions, products of ancient and modern civilizations, history, different settlement patterns, rural and urban areas, briefly, with its cultures and cultural attractiveness” (Doğanay,1992, p.26). The geographical factors affecting the development of tourism activities in Turkey can be divided into two groups as Natural and Human factors.

NATURAL FACTORS

Topographic Features: That Turkey's average altitude (1132 m) is high, it is surrounded by the seas, it is split by deep valleys, it has appropriate plateaus for settlement, it is a scene for volcanic and tectonic events have led to the formation of different topographic features. These different factors have created different tourism areas. Thus, various tourism activities come to the front in scenic areas for tourism purposes such as mountains, islands, peninsulas, plains, highlands, seas, lakes, rivers, waterfalls, and dams. “Mountains are important sources in terms of water, energy and biodiversity. Mountains also have a key role in terms of minerals, forest products, agricultural products and recreational activities” (Somuncu, 2004, p.2). “In addition to the potential of mountainous regions in the tourism area, they also have a different feature in terms of agriculture. Since agricultural products have different growth phases depending on the climate and weather conditions, agricultural products can be grown during a large part of the year through the mountain and plain combination especially in the production of vegetables and fruits for winter and summer seasons” (Bakırcı, 2005, p.305).

For this reason, the mountainous areas have gained importance and the studies to plan mountainous areas have been performed. Tourism activities have also taken place among these plans. In addition to the fresh air and the feature of giving spiritual power, various tourism opportunities have become widespread in the mountains such as “especially skiing and transhumance, climbing, trekking, off-road safaris, ornithology tourism, photography, mountain biking, botanical tourism, agricultural and farm tourism, river tourism, trekking with horses and camels, hunting, paragliding, parapenting, hot spring-climate therapy, camping – caravanning tourism, nature researching, cave tourism, grass skiing and landscape viewing activities” (Doğan, 2012, p.269). “Unlike the classic tourism under-

standing, the requests of people to spend their holidays in touch with nature are increasing rapidly” (Akova, 2008, p.37).

Picture 1. Ski Resort Sivas Yıldız Dağları



Source: yildizdagikayakmerkezi.com

Picture 2. Tourism Activities in Sivas Yıldız Dağları



Source: yildizdagikayakmerkezi.com

Rivers: Canoeing and rafting attract attention as important tourism and sports activities. In particular, domestic and foreign guests perform their high excitement activities in the Çoruh River. While the picnic areas around the Dim River attract attention particularly in hot seasons, safaris to the villages in the Taurus Mountains contribute to tourism.

Picture 3. Rafting Activity in the Çoruh River



Source: ispircermeli.blogspot.com

Lakes: In addition to their various contributions, lakes also contribute to tourism. Lakes such as Abant, Yedigöller, Bafa, Manyas, Uzungöl, Hazar, Nemrut Caldera, Van, Eğirdir, etc., and cirque lakes (Ağrı, Erciyes, Kaçkar, Bolkar and the Anti-Taurus Mountains) are important tourism activity areas. The Atatürk Dam in Turkey also has an important potential.

Picture 4. Uzungöl



Source: aturizm.com

Highlands: One of the important morphological units is highlands. The natural life in highlands attracts tourists. It is possible to make a wide variety of activities in the eco-environment in highlands. Highlands, such as Tekir, Zorkun, Kümbet, Bektaş, Uzungöl, Çamlıhemşin, İkizdere, Ayder, Spil, Kozak, Gombe, etc., contribute to the Turkish tourism.

Picture 5. Ayder (Rize) Highland



Source: rizecity.net

Waterfalls and Cascades: Waterfalls and cascades which are among the natural units provide an opportunity for tourism in many parts of our country. Waterfalls and cascades, such as Düden, Manavgat, Kurşunlu, Gürlevik, Tortum, Harbiye, Tarsus, etc., are in high demand especially during hot seasons.

Picture 6. Tortum Waterfall



Source: panoramio.com

Yacht and Cruise Tourism: Bays with natural beauty and a long coastline make yacht tourism possible. “Nowadays, cruise tourism is a developing sector. The world gets a great income from this sector. Turkey attracts the attention particularly of the Mediterranean cruise operators with its unique nature and historic places and for being suitable for four seasons” Doğan Sertkaya, 2011:298). Turkey is one of the sought and preferred important stops in cruise tourism with its major ports. Especially the cruise ships coming to the ports of Kuşadası and Istanbul for this tourism activity draw attention.

Picture 7. Cruise Tourism in the Port of Kuşadası



Source: citytransfer.com

Caves and Underground Cities: Among the natural beauties, caves and underground cities are areas attracting a great number of tourists. Caves, such as Damlataş, Karain (Antalya), İnsuyu (Burdur), Cennet-Cehennem (Heaven and Hell) (Mersin), and underground cities, such as Derinkuyu, etc., are among tourism areas.

Picture 8. İnsuyu (Burdur) Cave



Source: onedio.com

Coastal shapes and Beaches: They stand out as areas where tourists spend most of the time especially during the summer season.

Picture 9. Konyaalti (Antalya) Beach



Source: emlakkulisi.com

Sandy beaches are the most popular ones. Besides, sheer slopes (cliff) serve tourism as viewing platforms. Harbors and natural shorelines also attract attention in terms of coastal tourism. Konyaalti, Patara, Altinkum Beaches and Ölüdeniz (the Dead Sea) attract the most attention.

Geologic Features: Erosion areas, volcanic shapes such as hump rocks, fairy chimneys – Ihlara Valley (Ürgüp and Göreme), Kula (Manisa), mountains (Nemrut and Mount Ararat) and travertines formed as a result of karst topography are important areas attracting tourists. Pamukkale (Denizli) is the most well-known travertine field which attracts the highest number of tourists.

Picture 10. Fairy Chimneys



Source: secmehikayeler.com

Health Tourism: Thermal areas (hot springs, salt pans) offer tourism opportunities in terms of being a remedy for many diseases. Hot springs areas such as Yalova, Gönen, Afyon, Kangal, Bursa, Erzurum, Kütahya, İzmir, Denizli, etc. have taken place in the country's tourism.

Picture 11. Thermal Facilities in Health Tourism



Source: truvadergisi.com

Climatic features: In Turkey, where various climate types are experienced, tourism opportunities are available depending on the climate of each season. Summer, winter, spring and autumn temperatures are at such a level that each period may attract tourists. Different temperature averages also diversify tourism activities. Turkey is above the world average in terms of the number of sunbathing and sunny days. Turkey may take 2000-3300 hours of sun on average. In addition, due to the thickness of the snow cover and its long stay on the land, ski resorts such as Palandöken, Erciyes, Uludağ, Yıldız, Davras, Kartalkaya, Kartepe, Kars Sarıkamış, Ilgaz, etc. have been established.

Natural Vegetation: Natural vegetation areas, national natural park areas, city parks, areas exhibiting endemic vegetation (monumental trees and relic-endemic species) attract tourists in domestic and foreign tourism. Yıldız and Emirgan Parks and groves in Istanbul, İzmir Culture Park, Youth Park in Ankara, Bolu Abant and Yedigöller, Ilgaz and Olympos (Beydağları) areas, Longoz forests (Kırklareli and Sakarya) are among these areas. Birdwatching and photographing activities are performed in these areas as well.

Picture 12. Olimpos-Beydağları



Source: olimpostransfer.com

40 national parks in Turkey stand out in major tourism activities. Areas, such as Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park, the Kaçkar Mountains, Mount Ida, Köprülü Canyon, Munzur Valley, Mount Nemrut, Saklıkent National Park, etc., always have tourism potential.

In addition to these, there are 31 Nature Conservation Areas in Turkey. “The size of terrestrial protected areas of our country has been identified as 5.647.568 hectares. This is 7.24% of the total surface area of the country. Therefore, it can be said that 7.24% of the terrestrial areas of Turkey are under official protection” (www.milliparklar.gov.tr/korunanalanlar). Furthermore, natural parks, natural areas, wildlife development fields, protection forests, natural protected areas, specially protected environment areas, Ramsar areas and the areas of the world heritage sites are included in these 7.24%. Historical and archeological values, coasts, deltas, plants, valleys, highlands, canyons, animal species, wetlands, geological and geomorphological elements are among the protected areas in Turkey.

HUMAN FACTORS

Rich Historical Background: Particularly historic towns, bridges, monuments, museums, mosques, churches, culture and art featured cities, and religious centers attract tourists. There are historical cities that can attract tourists in every region, such as Pergamon, Ephesus, Miletus, Perge, Aspendos, Sümela, Komegene, and Selçuk.

Picture 13. Ephesus Ancient City



Source: motosikletgunlukleri.com

Economic Structure: No matter how many tourism opportunities a country may have, it needs to make economic investments to attract tourists. Turkey is trying to make the best use of its economic power in tourism activities. The investments made also contribute to the country's economy.

Sports Tourism: Because of the diversity of climate, many sports facilities and areas emerge, such as winter sports, water sports, golf, tennis, hunting, fishing, etc. Over the past twenty years, sports tourism has been developing in camp areas and hotels in all domestic and foreign branches, especially football, particularly in Antalya and its surroundings. Moreover, oil wrestling and camel wrestling areas occupy an important place in sports tourism as well. Sports Tourism Association has been established to develop sports tourism.

Picture 14. Sports Tourism (Golf)



Source: turizmhaberleri.com

Health Tourism: Turkey has become a center of attraction due to its location and various features. Health tourism has become a developing branch among these features. Taking advantages of the developing technologies, Turkey has become one of the preferred countries in Europe, particularly in the hair transplant field. Due to the low cost of the hair transplant operation, which is 75% cheaper than in the developed western and northwestern countries (UK, Germany, France), Turkey has started to attract many tourists. In addition, particularly Gulf countries, Tunisia, Libya and Egypt are leading countries. While this medical operation is performed in the best possible way combined with the all-inclusive system, according to the data of the Ministry of Health, 200 hair transplant operations on average are performed a day in Turkey. Furthermore, the success achieved by Turkish doctors in the eye and other surgeries played an important role in the development of health tourism.

Conscious and Open-to-Innovation Population: In addition to the financial possibilities, consciousness and culture are very important factors to conduct tourism activities. Tourists visiting our country must be accepted and served regardless of their religion, language, race and color. Moreover, there has been a great demand in Turkish community for learning and speaking world languages in recent years.

Camping and Caravan Tourism: Among tourism activities, camping and caravan tourism are performed in various regions of our country. Camping facilities, natural camping areas, and caravan areas consist of various facilities. Services

such as restaurants, buffets, picnic and sports areas, playgrounds, showers, WC, prayer rooms, car parks, in particular, are offered.

Picture 15. Caravan Area



Source: haberler.com

Tourism activities are performed in many camping and caravan areas, such as [Cobankaya Camp](#), Kirazlıyayla (Bursa), Marmara Ereğlisi, Saray and Şarköy (Tekirdağ), Demirköy (Kırklareli), Sivrice and Hazar Lake (Elazığ), Nusaybin, Midyat, Kızıltepe (Mardin), Afşin (Kahramanmaraş), Ürgüp-Göreme (Nevşehir), Üvezpınar, Kurtköy (Yalova), Seferihisar (İzmir), Almus (Amasya), Beydağları-Olympos, Kargıcak (Antalya), Akyaka (Muğla).

Fairs and Congress Centers: In the globalized world, trade has become free from the distance. Fairs and congresses are important events in order to make the best advertising and promotion. Especially these kinds of events that are internationally organized are important for many sectors. Among these, the fairs and congresses supporting tourism are important revenue-generating activities for the country.

Picture 16. Fairground



Source: ymmd.org

Fairs and organization areas, such as İzmir Fair (Culture Park), Samsun, Bursa, Trabzon, Balıkesir, Erzurum, Kayseri and Tatvan, Gaziantep, Mersin, Konya, Erzurum, Antalya, CNR Expo Center, TÜYAP, Haliç Congress Center (Istanbul), show a different face of Turkey in tourism.

Entertainment Centers: Tourists who visit our country for sightseeing and entertainment purposes prefer entertainment centers. Shopping and entertainment centers, such as Vialand, and aquaparks have become popular centers in tourism.

Picture 17. Vialand Entertainment Center (Istanbul)



Source: emlakansiklopedisi.com

Gastro-tourism: It is possible to experience different tastes in each region of Turkey which has a rich history and culture. Due to this characteristic, food culture in our country has developed and created a significant tourism potential. Particularly the Aegean, Mediterranean, Southeastern Anatolia cultures have come to the front.

Picture 18. Gastro-Tourism



Source: frmtr.com

Cultural Events: A rich culture with ancient history, festivals, feasts, sustainable traditions and customs with a solid background diversify the cultural characteristics of the community. This feature is valuable for both domestic and foreign tourism.

Religious Sanctuaries: Nowadays, Anatolia, the history of which goes back to the ancient times, has many important religious sanctuaries. Mosques, churches, monasteries, Virgin Mary (Selçuk), Antakya St.Pierre Cave and Church, Hagia Sophia, Sultanahmet (Blue Mosque), Süleymaniye Mosque, Ulu Mosques, Churches in Ürgüp-Göreme (Rock Churches), Sümela Monastery have historical value and at the same time tourist-attracting areas in terms of religious tourism.

Picture 19. Hagia Sophia



Source: tatilprogrami.com

Picture 20. Sultanahmet Mosque (Blue Mosque)



Source: fotokritik.com

Monuments and Castles: The Çanakkale Martyrs' Memorial, Anzac and French Memorials, Anıtkabir (Atatürk's Mausoleum) which have a high spiritual value are important for tourism. Additionally, the castles such as Bodrum, Anavarza, and Antalya Castles are tourist-attracting areas.

Picture 21. The Çanakkale Martyrs' Memorial



Source: panoramio.com

Transportation Facilities: There is no doubt that different transport systems enable tourists to reach the places they would like to visit and accelerate the transportation process. Cableways and chairlifts are important transportation systems in tourism.

Picture 22. The Bosphorus



Source: resimseli.net

Settlement Characteristics: Settlements offer tourism opportunities together with cities and villages. Istanbul, Safranbolu, Beypazarı, Cumalıkızık and Şirince attract tourists with their settlement and residence characteristics.

Picture 23. Historical Şirince Village



Source: alasyvan.com

Border Trade Tourism: Due to the fact that Turkey has many neighboring countries, tourism activities based on shopping are performed in border towns.

The number of tourists arriving in Turkey was 28.000 in 1950, 94.000 in 1960, 724.000 in 1970, 1.3 million in 1980, 5.4 million in 1990, 10.4 million in 2000, 21.1 million in 2005, 27.1 million in 2009, and 41.6 million in 2015. Accordingly, tourism receipts were 7.6 billion USD in 2000, 18.2 billion USD in 2005, 21.2 billion USD in 2009, and 31.5 billion USD in 2015.

While Turkey was the 20th country in the world ranking in terms of the number of tourists in 2000, it became the 9th in 2005, the 7th in 2009, and the 6th in 2015 after France, the USA, China, Spain, and Italy. Accordingly, in terms of tourism receipts, it was the 14th in 2000, the 8th in 2005, the 7th in 2009, and the 10th in 2014 with 29.1 billion USD (Türofed,2015/2:12).

RESULTS

Turkey attracts its neighborhood due to its location and the conditions it offers as a result of its location. Natural and human characteristics affect this attractiveness. Due to the function of Turkey as the oldest bridge between the continents of the world, it is close to anywhere. The conditions Turkey offers, its proximity to the continents and relatively cheap services compared to the developed countries have made Turkey a center of attraction. Each stage applied in tourism activities must be effective, planned, protective, organized, and must give results for the future.

CONCLUSION

Tourists increasingly prefer ecotourism. Therefore, the importance of natural areas is increasing. Permanent and summer residences, hotels, motels, guesthouses, restaurants and a wide range of facilities which are built without planning and in an inappropriate way to the nature damage the natural areas. In this regard, local and central administrations should be more careful and legal arrangements re-

quired should be made. Of course, it is very important for these areas to attract tourists and generate revenue. Therefore, providing comfortable and high-quality, but at the same time, nature-friendly services for tourists will contribute to the Turkish tourism.

The use of natural areas beyond their capacities is important in terms of sustainable tourism. Therefore, the use of natural areas should be evaluated in the control mechanism scale. Since it is important that any kind of waste generated in natural areas as a result of the use does not damage the environment, both the users and the authorities must take necessary precautions in this regard. Natural areas should be considered as a whole, and tourism activities should be determined in a balanced way. This issue must be a matter of concern for the future. Natural areas are also the basis for the nutrition of all living beings. For this reason, protection is of priority. The protection of agricultural lands, meadows, pastures, and forests will pave the way for sustainable agricultural production and, at the same time, contribute to the development of tourism. Human factors which have an impact on the development of tourism are important as well. The conservation of historic wealth is also moving the culture to the future.

At the same time, the conservation of historical wealth is important, for it means the owning the past as well. Transportation is extremely important for tourism activities. Therefore, transport services must be provided without harming wildlife. The implementation of necessary advertisement campaigns on the subject of the quality of sports camp areas and health services is important for the continuity in tourism. The conservation of historical cities-villages and settlements there is another factor to attract tourists. International fairs-congresses, entertainment centers, and cultural events should be organized frequently and promoted. Both local and international food and beverages should be promoted in a way to draw attention. Religious sanctuaries, facilities, and monuments should be well protected and be the places visited by tourists. The geographical location of Turkey and the natural and human characteristics based on it led to the development of tourism. Therefore, tourism targets must be planned, programmed, sustainable and have a high level of awareness.

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Tourism and Environmental Kuznets Curve Hypothesis: The Case of Iran

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INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector constitutes one of the main sectors in economic terms for the most developed or developing countries. Today, the business volume of tourism equals or even surpasses that of oil exports, food products or automobiles. According to data from Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) of the National Statistics Institute (INE, 2013a), between 2000 and 2008, internal tourism consumption and Value Added Generated by Tourism (VAGT) had an average order to articulate and adapt the definition of policies and strategies to increase and strengthen the tourism private sector (Hall, 1995; IFT, 2002; Masschelein & Buyten, 2002; Nilsson et al., 2005; Nordin, 2003; Phelps, 1996; Rogerson, 2007; Thomas, 1994, 1995; Thomas & Thomas, 2006). Medium, small and micro enterprises account for a considerable proportion of economic output, income, employment, strengthening regional and local economic base, preserving indigenous resources, particularly in peripheral and island regions. (Buhalis & Peters, 2006; Caniels, 2000; Danson, 1996; Haddad et al., 2011; Keilbach, 2000; Steinhoff & Burgess, 1993; Thomas, 2000; Tremblay & Wegner, 2009).

The term environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) is coined by Kuznet's (1955) work that pioneered in the work for estimating the dynamic relationship between income inequality and per capita income which concludes that income inequality rises along with an increase in per capita income, however, continued economic development significantly reduces income inequality after achieving the certain level of income per capita i.e. threshold level. In the early 1990s, Grossman and Krueger's (1991) evaluating the potential environmental impact on North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), argued that per capita income is necessary to maintain the environmental quality in the region. The EKC, basically, is the hypothetical relationship between various environmental pollutants and per capita in-

come, while this relationship has shown different behaviors with the different stages of economic development. In the early stages of economic development, environmental pollutants significantly increases, and it would assumed that after the threshold level of income per capita, emissions subsequently decline which seems to improve the environmental quality accordingly (Dinda, 2004). The EKC hypothesis implies that there is an inverted U-shaped relationship between economic growth i.e. income per capita and environmental pollutants however, it would vary for different environmental pollutants (Stern, 2004).

The relationship between tourism development and environmental Kuznets curve (EKC) gains a momentum in 2000s' decade, where the large number of scholarly writings and policy implications for environmental protection becomes visible in the sustained tourism policy agenda. Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) is one of the extracted ideas from the work of Kuznet's (1955), however, over the period of time, this phenomenon become converges with the environmental perspectives which are now the hard pie of the cake.

The present study investigate the relationship between growth per capita, air pollution and tourism development in order to determine the legitimacy of the Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC) hypothesis in Iran, that would facilitate to propose the sound policy implications for environmental sustainability in this country.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Roca, Padilla, Farre, and Galletto (2001) investigated the EKC hypothesis in the context of Spain, by using the six different atmospheric pollutants linked with the per capita income and found that per capita income is only the necessary condition to mitigate the air pollutants from the atmosphere; however, this is not the sufficient condition to resolve the environmental problems. In the similar line, Jha and Murthy (2003) focused on environmental degradation with human development index and found the precise shapes of global environmental Kuznets curve. Dan, Kai-Peng, and Jian-Xin (2004) critically evaluated past ten years literature on the environmental Kuznets curve and showed that there is no visible sign to fit all pollutants for all places and times across the globe.

Lee and Chang (2008) investigated the panel long-run causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth for OECD and Non-OECD countries and found that tourism development has a larger share in order to increase non-OECD countries' growth as compared to the OECD countries' growth. The results of causality show the feedback relationship between tourism and economic growth in OECD countries, while there is unidirectional causality running from tourism development to economic growth in non-OECD countries. Luzzati and Orsini (2009) examined the energy Kuznets curve by taking absolute value of energy consumption as a proxy for environmental pressure in 113 countries, over the period of 1971-2004. The energy consumption data used as an absolute term rather

than conventional used in per capita. The result does not establish the energy Kuznets curve; however, it shows the monotonic increasing relationship between energy consumption and per capita income. Esteve and Tamarit (2012) established the non-linear relationship between per capita income and per capita carbon emissions in Spain.

Saenz-de-Miera and Rossello (2014) emphasized the negative externality of tourism activities that leads to the climatic variations and air pollution. The results further show that the number of tourist arrivals is not the sole contributor to increase carbon emissions in the atmosphere, while the resident population pressure in Spain determining PM10 emissions in a country. Shahbaz, Solarin, Sbia, and Bibi (2015) argued that energy intensity is one of the potential contributors to increase carbon emissions in selected African countries, which further validate the EKC relationship in the selected region. The results further validate the causality relationship which indicates the feedback hypothesis between per capita income and carbon emissions, while energy intensity Granger causes economic growth which subsequently enhances carbon concentration in the atmosphere. Omri, Shahbaz, Chaibi, and Rault (2015) examined the long-run relationship between tourism, environmental quality, oil consumption, political unrest and economic growth in the selected MENA countries and found that the number of international tourists' arrival significantly increases the economic growth that proved the tourism-led growth hypotheses in the region.

METHODOLOGY

Environmental pollution is extensively proxied by CO₂ (carbon dioxide) emissions (kt) in the energy studies of the relevant literature. The starting point of the theoretical setting in the present study is that international tourism might be a determinant of carbon emission level. Another important determinant of CO₂ emissions, as suggested in the literature, is energy consumption, which is added to the relationship between CO₂ emissions and real income under the environmental EKC framework, in which there exists an inverted U-shaped pattern between real income and emission level (see Stern, 2004). Therefore, energy use is suggested to be a determinant of emission level, in addition to real income, in the energy economics literature. In tourist destination countries, it is expected that tourism leads to an increase in energy use and real income and, therefore, in pollution level. Therefore, the following tourism-induced EKC model can be suggested in the present study:

$$CO_2 = f(E^\beta, Y^\gamma, T^\theta) \quad (1)$$

Where CO₂ is carbon dioxide emissions (kt), E is energy consumption (kt of oil equivalent), y is real income, and T stands for international tourism proxy. The tourism-induced EKC model in Eq. (1) can be expressed in logarithmic form to capture the growth impacts in the economic long-term period:

$$\ln CO_{2t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln E_t + \beta_2 \ln Y_t + \beta_3 \ln Y_t^2 + \beta_4 \ln T_t + \epsilon_t \quad (2)$$

Where at period t , $\ln CO_2$ is the natural log of carbon dioxide emissions, $\ln E$ is the natural log of energy consumption, $\ln Y$ is the natural log of real income, $\ln Y^2$ is the natural log of squared real income, $\ln T$ is the natural log of the international tourist arrivals, and ε is the error disturbance.

The data used in this paper are annual from 1980 to 2015 for Iran. Data of CO2 emissions, Y , energy consumption and international tourism have been obtained from the World Bank Development Indicators and Iran’s statistics center.

RESULTS

Unit Root Test

As shown in Table 1, we checked the stationary of variables employing augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test. The results presented that the unit root null hypothesis could not be rejected in level variables at all significance levels. However, after taking the first differences of series, the variables of interest turn out to be stationary. Thus, we can confirm that all variables are integrated of order one.

Table 1. The results of augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test

Variables	Trend and intercept case			
	Level		1st difference	
	Statistic	p-value	Statistic	p-value
$\ln CO_2$	-0.2567	1.1312	-3.64	0.0000 ^a
$\ln Y^2$	-0.7842	1.0532	-3.76	0.0001 ^a
$\ln Y$	0.8324	1.4543	3.15	0.0000 ^a
$\ln E$	-0.1877	1.2239	-3.18	0.0000 ^a
$\ln T$	0.9396	0.8759	3.69	0.000 ^a

a: indicates rejection of unit root null hypothesis at 1% level of significance.

ESTIMATE OF MODEL

Long-term coefficients as presented in Eq. (2) are estimated through the DOLS¹ approach and presented in Table 2. It is seen that coefficient of Y (real income) is highly elastic, statistically significant ($\beta = 23.843$, $p < 0.01$), and while that of squared Y (Y^2) is negative and again significant ($\beta = -0.44$, $p < 0.01$). This finding is quite in parallel with the inverted U-shaped EKC hypothesis. Energy consumption, on the other hand, exerts positive and elastic effect on carbon emissions also as expected ($\beta = 2.311$, $p < 0.01$). Most importantly, the coefficient of tourist arrivals

1. Dynamic Ordinary Least Square

is elastic, positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.738$, $p < 0.01$), which suggests that 1% change in tourism volume would lead to 0.738 % change in carbon emissions in the straight direction. This reveals that tourism growth exerts positively significant effects on climate changes in the case of Iran that signals for unsuccessful energy conservation policies in tourism development.

Table 2. Estimation results for CO2 emission

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	P-Value
Constant	-12.131	3.429	0.000
$\ln Y^2$	-0.844	0.254	0.000
$\ln Y$	23.846	4.762	0.000
$\ln E$	2.311	1.002	0.000
$\ln T$	0.738	0.308	0.001
R2	0.831		
Adjusted R2	0.927		

Note: Dependent variable is $\ln CO_2$

CONCLUSION

This paper empirically investigated the tourism-induced EKC hypothesis, and therefore, the long-term equilibrium relationship between tourism development and carbon dioxide emissions through the channels of energy consumption and real income growth in Iran.

Results of the present study confirms the validity of tourism-induced EKC hypothesis and reveal that a long-term equilibrium relationship exists between tourism development and carbon emission level in Iran through the channel of energy consumption and real income growth. Squared Y lead to declines in the carbon emission levels while level of Y without squaring and energy consumption exerts positive effects on emissions. Tourism also has a statistically significant and positive impact on the level of carbon dioxide emissions.

Results of this study suggest important implications for policy makers: since it has been proved that tourism development and squared GDP would lead to declines in carbon dioxide emissions in the case of Singapore, the EKC hypothesis through tourism development is confirmed. This reveals that environmental conservation policies are well-balanced with macroeconomic targets.

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Urban Management Intervention Capabilities in Tourism Development

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INTRODUCTION

Today, the tourism industry, has gained tremendous importance and because of its advantages, has attracted attention of most national and local authorities. Worldwide revenue of this industry totaled hundreds of billions of dollars every year, but Iran, whom is among the most talented of them, is not in terms of revenue even among of fifty countries in the world. Iran in terms of ecotourism attractions and diversity of plant and animal species, is fifth in the world and in terms of historical attractions, cultural and historical monuments is also one of the top ten countries in the world, but it result a very small profit compared with countries that have more capabilities and the tourist attractions down from Iran. What are the factors hindering the development of this industry in Iran? What measures should local authorities (Islamic Council of Cities and Municipalities) think about to achieve the objectives of tourism development? What is the role of urban management in Iran tourism development?

Urban management is composed of various governmental and nongovernmental organizations and institutions that the Islamic Council of City and municipality, are the most important and the most relevant institutions of urban society. In this article, the order of the urban Management, are these institutions. These institutions as representative of the people, manage the different affairs in a city for favorable living to citizens. Due to the economic, culture and society consequences in the cities, tourism is one of the most important urban activity that should be a priority for urban management. Urban management legally, don't have mission and duty lines related to tourism but it have the high performance capabilities for the development of tourism in the city and benefiting the urban community of its advantages. The most important capabilities of city management for the development of urban tourism include:

Information and advertising: Marketing is essential in tourism and plays an important role to guiding tourists. Since there are not the certain custodian in cities

to promote about the city tourist attractions and the surrounding areas, urban management based on their overall mission could be help to urban development to publicity about the attractions and tourist facilities in its city. This measure can be done by variety methods such as advertising brochures, website creation, television and radio advertising and sending online messages.

Equip tourism spaces: Part of recreational and leisure spaces that the municipalities are create, have usability for tourists as well. Green spaces, play areas and recreation in cities are also significant to recreation and leisure for tourists. Linking these spaces to places of passengers residence in cities can help to improve the utility of the city for tourists. In addition, municipal initiatives can make a stop at tourists traveling and encouraging them to use the utilities and the private sector to provide their needs. This stop is leads to the purchase and generate income for urban dwellers.

Creation of parking in tourist areas: Parking is most important need for those tourists who travel by personal and individual car. Supply this space by municipalities can be provided revenue source for them and facilities for tourists to have fun with comfort and security.

Guiding tourists in the city: The cities with tourist attractions that many tourists come to them, are generally faced with heavy traffic. Part of this traffic, is resulting in travelers unfamiliar with routes access to tourist attractions, residential areas, places of entertainment and so on. Gain Information from passers and drivers to determine the route, leads to stop and slow down the speed of other cars or pedestrians. By guiding tourists through signs in the city can be reduce traffic jams cities.

METHODOLOGY

The main hypothesis of this study is that there is a significant relationship between Urban management and tourism development. As some recent research's show Iran`s tourism policies are rarely based on tourism nature and its current patterns and these policies are mostly affected by cultural, social and especially Iran's unique political economy. We're looking for answers to these questions: What measures should local authorities (Islamic Council of Cities and Municipalities) think about to achieve the objectives of tourism development? What is the role of urban management in Iran tourism development?

THE URBAN MANAGEMENT AND RELATIONSHIP WITH TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The duties of municipality in the field of tourism can be divided into two groups: First, is the involvement and participation of municipal in planning and management of tourism that do have the main role in coordinating among the various sectors and institutions. Second, is the investment and direct activity in tourism services that in addition to providing social objectives, is a good source to increase

municipality revenue and financial self-sufficiency of it. Today in many world cities, municipalities with holding exhibitions, sport competitions, creating great museums, meetings, seminars, etc, in addition to responding to the needs of leisure passenger and citizens, they can attract huge revenue for the city and municipal that leads to development and flourishing and beautiful for city. In addition to municipalities, in Structure, Duties and election of Islamic Councils Act, approved in 1375, Iran City Councils have been obliged to the development of tourism. For example, in paragraph 2 of Article 71 reads: (Councils should pay attention to the issue of examination and identification of deficiencies and needs of social, cultural, economic, welfare and preparation of reform proposals and solutions that they can be applied in the field of tourism to planning and providing to the relevant authorities). In paragraph 6 of the same article that was amended in 1386, come:(The councils should strive to encourage people, especially in the development of tourism, recreation, sports and cultural centers in coordination with relevant organizations and the mayors under Article 6 of the Traveling and Tourism Development Act, are obliged to provide the field for construction of Tourist and Touring installations by introducing persons to be entrusted by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance.

CONCLUSION

Now in Iran, are not used correctly of the existing facilities according to various reasons. Still the role of municipalities in the field of investment and facility management operation in tourism is not clear and even some municipalities do not allowed duty for themselves. Despite social and legal problems, one important barriers in this area that existed previously and considered public issues, is the lack of independence and self-sufficiency of municipalities. Municipalities and city councils in Iran has always been relied on state industries and an important actions – that is considered one of the basic conditions to establish and programming local management – has not been done in this area. In the current situation, the municipality's revenue is negligible compared to the financial resources required. For this reason, they are forced to the adoption of techniques such as density and users sell that contrary to the principles of sustainable development and improving the quality of tourism development in most cases. So due to the growing urbanization and increased leisure requirements in the country and existence of various sources and diversified attractions in the country cities, can be said that the vast resources and potential facilities in cities are useful and healthy to economic investment and operation that there is often remain unknown and unused and ignoring of this wealth is one of the negative factors retardation of the manage urban planning from new approaches in world that has the investment in cultural and leisure sources as priority. Councils and municipalities must have a general knowledge of your area, namely the basis of development, is cognition. The authorities must have an accurate understanding of natural features, historic buildings, cultural sites and other unique features of the area, and then allocate a financial resource to them. By knowing each of these tourism potentials which can deter-

mine whether they can serve as quick financial, employment and strengthen the culture and economy of their region or city. Now it seems the urban management faced with problems in tourism development which among them we can mention the following:

- The weakness of planning institutions, and local management: limitation of municipalities and councils authority.
- The weakness of cooperation between public sector institutions: measures taken by the different institutions
- The weakness of the private sector association: Inconsistency in the interests and measures of the public and private sectors.
- The weakness of professional and people organizations: The weakness of legal and social status of organizations.

OFFERS

Any tourist or functionality of it, have a series of substruction and facilities necessary which it must begin a series of operations for the development and expansion them:

1. Creation of substruction and infrastructure facilities, such as: the proper way, hotel, restaurant, w.c, store, shop, parking and trained persons.
2. Adoption of policies and incentive grants to those persons who work in the field of tourism development and creation of required tourism facilities, such as: Tax exemption and exemptions from exploitation permit.
3. The effective and strong advertising for tourist areas and available potentials in the region
4. The creation of web sites and weblog

With carrying on the factors, not-too-distant future will take place the development in area tourism that this evolution leads to the income, employment and recognition of the region. Councils and municipalities in order to be able to have revenue for their city, should be create a series of exhibitions, historical museums, cultural and artistic activities in these areas so that be able to earn more revenue. Because one of the main objectives of this measure is providing tourism to spend money, so we must make a good investment to have best and highest incomes.

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An Evaluation of organizational Culture in Tourism Organizations; Based on Denison Model: Iran Cultural Heritage, Handicrafts and Tourism Organization

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INTRODUCTION

Studying organizational culture lets the managers compare teams and units, prioritize issues, and identify the expectations and perceptions of the employees, so that they can improve the gap between the *status quo* and the ideal (Danesh, 2013, p.122). Review of the literature reveals that organizational culture forms the employees' behavior in the organization and greatly influences the behavior of managers and employees at all levels of the organization (Mohammadpour *et al.* 2013, p.83).

A key factor is the strong culture ruling those organizations. Recognizing and enhancing these factors and overcoming their weaknesses is a step towards the success of organizations and reaching their great goals. According to Robert Queen, studying an organization's culture is a fundamental step towards understanding the organization and its employees' behavior and performance. By means of culture, doing changes is facilitated and new directions are facilitated within the organization; therefore, organizational culture is simply a critical factor in the success of an organization and attaining its long-term goals. Unfortunately, developing the culture is not considered the most important duty of the managers in many organizations, despite the fact that organizational culture influences all aspects of the organization and no phenomenon is free from its impacts (Asadi, 2003, p.45).

The present study was performed in December 2015 in order to examine the determining dimensions and indexes of organizational culture in the ICHTO based on Dennison Model. Dennison Model which is quite new and comprehensive and has been presented following the researches of Dennison evaluates organizational

culture based on the four dimensions of involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Three indexes are defined to evaluate each of the four dimensions.

THE NECESSITY OF STUDYING CULTURE FOR ORGANIZATIONS

Culture operates organizations and their performances. It is something like the “operating system” of the organization which directs the employees in how they think, feel and operate. Culture is dynamic and current and is never stabilized. Culture can be influential or non-influential under certain circumstances (Richard, cited in Pourkazemi, 2004, p.86). Understanding organizational culture is of great importance for the managers and researchers (Alvani, 1999, p.62). Organizational culture has been recognized as one of the determining factors of this progress and a number of researchers have studied it (Tousi, 1993, p.112).

Culture is important because performing any action without knowing the cultural forces –which are always operating- may incur unpredictable and unwanted outcomes (Schein, 2010, p.56).

The impact of organizational culture on the members of the organization is so great that by studying its aspect, one can understand the behaviors, feelings, viewpoints, and attitudes of the members and evaluate, predict and direct their probable reactions to certain changes. Organizational Culture simply helps doing changes and establishing new directions in the organization (Alvani, 1999, p.78).

“Organizational culture is a set of values, beliefs, norms, and mutual understandings which are common between the organization and its employees” (Daft, 2001, translated by Parsaian and A’rabi, p.33).

Values are means of distinguishing the right from the wrong; and they usually determine what the members (employees) should do in order to be considered as a right deed by the organization. “Common values are what are important and valuable. Beliefs are what we deem as right, and behavioral norms are how tasks are done”. (Owens, 2003, translated by Salimi, p.258).

The factor of organizational culture plays a major role in the management performance and the way the duties are done. An organizational culture, especially a strong one, highly influences the management’s decisions in all fields (Robins, 1991, p.75).

At its surface level, culture presents itself as symbols, mottos, languages, behaviors, stories and history, dressing codes, myths, customs and rituals (celebrations and funerals). Only when you deeply understand this issue, you can take proper steps towards strengthening the culture of your organization and its effectiveness (Moblely *et al.* 2005, p.70).

What was said above and the researches done in the field of organizational culture show understanding the culture of an organization as a major significance is

at the priority of managers' duties; and by adapting the strategy of the organization in terms of culture and creating a strong organizational culture, the survival of the organization would be guaranteed and contributes to the proper reactions of the organization to changes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS OF THE RESEARCH

Since understanding the organizational culture and its role in the employees' behavior is of great importance and is a requisite for an organization's success according to Ouchi, various models have been designed for organizational culture studies, such as that of Robbins, Hofstede etc. However, Dennison's Model is adopted in this study due to its being new, comprehensive and generalizable, which will be fully elaborated in the following sections.

DENNISON'S MODEL

Professor Dennison has performed researches in organizational culture and organization effectiveness.

1. Involvement
2. Consistency
3. Adaptability
4. Mission

Each of these features is measured by three indexes:

1. Involvement: Effective organizations empower their employees, found the organization on the basis of team works, and develop human resources capabilities at all levels. three indexes:
 - 1.1. Empowerment;
 - 1.2. Team Orientation;
 - 1.3. Capability Development;
2. Consistency: The studies show that the organizations which are usually effective are consistent and the employees' behavior stems from the core values.
 - 2.1. Core Values;
 - 2.2. Agreement;
 - 2.3. Coordination and Integration;
3. Adaptability: The organizations which are adequately integrated are hard to change. Consistent organizations are directed by the customers, take risks, learn from their mistakes and have the potential and experience of making changes.
 - 3.1. Creating Change;
 - 3.2. Customer Focus;
 - 3.3. Organizational Learning;

4. Mission: An organization’s mission may be regarded the most important element of its culture.
 - 4.1. Strategic Direction and Intent;
 - 4.2. Goals and Objectives;
 - 4.3. Vision; **Fig 1.**



Figure 1. Dennison’s Model of Organizational Culture (Denison, 2000)

Stable-Flexible And Internal-External Continuum

As it can be seen in Dennison’s Model, the model has two vertical and horizontal axes which divide the model into four sections (quarters). The vertical axis shows the degree and type of focus in the organizational culture.

The Reasons of Choosing Dennison Model As the Theoretical Model of the Study

Having studied different models of organizational culture, Dennison’s model is adopted as the theoretical model of this research. In recent years, this model has been extensively employed by management consulting institutes for evaluating the culture of companies and organizations overseas. Another advantage of Dennison Model is its graphical diagram which depicts the organizational culture in two dimensions of Focus and Flexibility at the aforementioned twelve indexes, which clearly illustrates the status of organizational culture.

METHODOLOGY

This research is practical in terms of objective, and descriptive in terms of data gathering. It is a survey which studies the organizational culture of the ICHTO. A descriptive research, as its name clearly suggest, is the objective, real and organi-

zed description of different events and subjects. Mr. Dianati of Weisberg explains survey in this way: “whenever a study is limited to collecting data about people and how they think, and they are asked about themselves and others, a survey is done.”

Methods of statistical analysis

In order to analyze and get results from the gathered data of the survey, a set of statistical methods have been done considering the research method, and SPSS software has been used to facilitate performing these statistical techniques. To analyze the research descriptive data a number of statistic such as frequency, frequency percentage, relative frequency, cumulative frequency, mean, etc. and the corresponding diagram have been used.

RESULTS

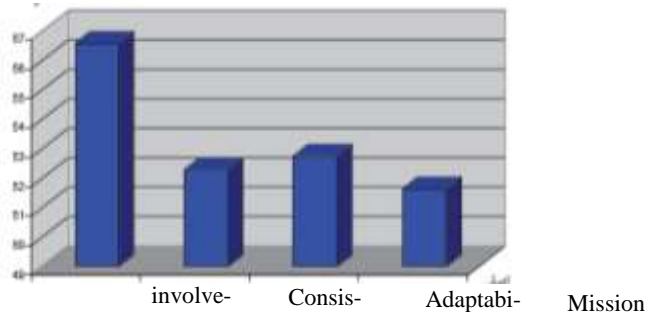
The total score of the organization in major dimensions: **Table 1** summarizes the mean score of all respondents regarding the four different features of organizational culture.

Table 1. Total score of the organization in the four dimension of Dennison Model

Major Dimensions	Total Mean Score
Involvement	3.26
Consistency	3.09
Adaptability	3.11
Mission	3.06

Thus, the ICHTO gained the highest score in the dimension of “involvement”, and the lowest score in “mission” dimension (**diagram 1**).

Diagram 1. Total score of the organization



Finally, if the culture image of the ICHTO be drawn based on the gathered data, a picture like **Fig 2** will be presented. As the diagram shows, the Cultural Heritage,

Handicrafts and Tourism Organization gained the best status in the variables of job involvement and adaptability. The lowest scores belong to the goals and objectives, and coordination and integration which are less than average. Other indexes are at an average and above average levels. On the flexible-stable continuum, the ICHTO is oriented towards the flexible end; while, there is no significant difference between the score of internal and external focus.

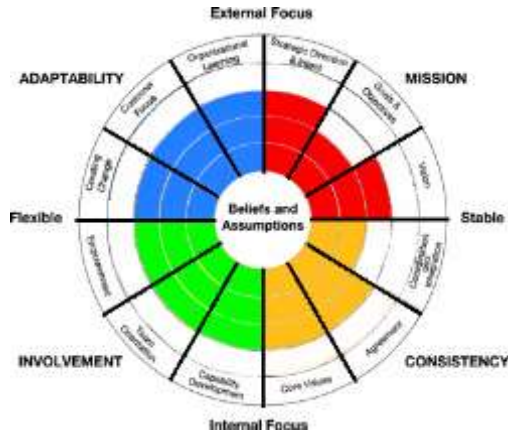


Figure 2. Image of the culture of the ICHTO based on Dennison Model

CONCLUSION

The research results indicate that the ICHTO is at the average and above level in all the four dimensions of job involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. The Ministry gains the highest score in the variables of job involvement and adaptability. However, it is in need of an improvement in some indexes including coordination and integration, and goals and objectives. The ICHTO tends towards flexible-stable continuum; while, there is no significant difference on the internal-external focus continuum. In other words, the organization focuses evenly on the internal and external environments.

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Rural Tourism as a Rural Development Strategy in Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism has been defined as an alternative development strategy for rural areas all around the world especially after the World War II and swiftly dispersed after the 1990s. Thus, many factors might be identified as the appearance and increase of rural tourism. However, Turkey has also been affected by this general tendency. Population and socio-economic development tendencies have been swiftly decreased in the rural areas of Turkey for the last few decades. Mainly urbanization, industrialization and decrease of agricultural productivity are main reasons of these decreases. Accordingly; government, policy makers and social scientists to find out new strategies and policy proposals to improve socio-economic development levels of rural areas.

Rural tourism appeared as an alternative development strategy to improve socio-economic development levels of rural areas in Turkey. Therefore, the development of rural tourism as a rural development strategy in Turkey is discussed in this paper. This paper is based upon a field research that has been conducted in Mugla Province of Turkey in January to March 2016. This paper mainly discusses decrease of agricultural productivity and agricultural production and migration from rural areas to urban areas. As a result of this, this paper also discusses how rural tourism might be an alternative rural development strategy and which factors affect this strategy.

Differentiation of developmental levels among the different regions is one of the main social policy and social science problems all around the world especially in developing countries such as Turkey. Differentiation of development level mainly has been seen in between the rural areas and the urban areas. Therefore, improvement of socio-economic development level of rural areas is one of the most important policy initiations of the developing countries. Minimization of development levels between rural areas and urban areas is also one of the other major social policy objectives for many countries especially after 1960's. Many policy

initiatives proposed to improve rural areas' development levels in the last few decades and the rural tourism has been appeared as one of the major rural development strategy for many developing countries such as Turkey.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Development of rural tourism as a rural development strategy needs a quick look at few related key concepts. These are development, rural development, rural tourism and sustainable development. The concept of development has been discussed by many social science disciplines with different aspects. Moreover, mainly this concept deals with an economic differentiation or economic change of society in a certain time period; thus, economics is the main social science discipline that deals with the "development" (Oakley and Farford, 1985:1). From an economical point view, development identifies production, national income (gross national product-GNP) and per capita income. However, only economic indicators such as national income and per capita income are not sufficient to understand and identify development. Also some social indicators such as literacy level, schooling, health indicators and even some secularism indicators are also necessary to understand development (Özsoy, 2012). Therefore, the concept of development is a complex structure that is not only limited by its economic meaning; it also comprehends sociological, psychological and political dimensions.

The three main aspects of development defined are (Oakley and Garford, 1985:2);

- Economic factor: Development of an economic system that produce main goods and products to a societal survive.
- Social factor: Development of educational, health and other social welfare infrastructures that are not directly related to economic production.
- Human factor: Development of possibilities to identify and improve individual potentials, abilities and tendencies to a social and individual self reliance.

A real development deals with a combination of these three factors that each one of these factors is equally important and each one of them is not disqualified. However, there are more concepts necessary to review, to have a better understanding of development. Sustainable development is another concept to take account. The more comprehensive definition of sustainable development given by OECD is that, sustainable development is a process that demands of today's generations are given without future generations' demands disqualified (OECD; 2001). The term basically implies a sustainable usage of natural and economic resources to take account of future generations' demands. Accordingly, traditional tourism activities especially coastal tourism is not sustainable anymore and rural tourism is identified as a sustainable way of tourism and also a rural development strategy.

The differentiation of development levels between the rural areas and urban areas has become an important problems of developing countries after 1960s especially 1990s. Development is one of the most important policy objectives of developing countries after 1960s. Mainly industrialization is accepted as the most significant way of modernization and development in this time period. Some developing countries made a significant improvement in terms of industrial development. Accordingly, an enormous population movement has been seen from rural areas to urban areas the in this time period (1960s to 2000s) in the developing countries (Geray, 1999). While the population of urban areas has enormously increased, rural areas' population has diminished. This resulted with a huge development level differentiation between rural areas and urban areas and resolution of this problem is one of the policy initiatives of developing countries for last few decades (Neil and Hess, 2004:468)..

Therefore, rural tourism appeared as a rural development strategy to improve the development level of rural areas in developing countries. Rural development identifies social and economic development of rural areas and rural tourism is a sustainable way of tourism that takes place in rural areas (EC, 1999). Rural tourism is also identified as "soft tourism" that implies minimum stress on natural and social environment while coastal tourism is identified as "hard tourism" that implies an enormous impact on natural and social environment (Bakırcı, 2007; Kuşat, 2014).

Turkey is also experienced below mentioned process that the development level differentiation between rural areas and urban areas is huge in Turkey. Therefore, Turkish Government accepted a policy initiative and announced the time period between 2014 and 2020 as "Rural Development Years" (DPT, 2003:250; Kalkınma Bakanlığı, 2012). Moreover, rural tourism is identified as one of the rural development strategy in this policy initiative.

METHODOLOGY

Consequently, rural tourism is identified as a rural development strategy in Turkey in this paper. The paper is based upon a sociological field research that has been conducted in Muğla Province of Turkey in January to March 2016. The research is designed as a mixed study that used both quantitative and qualitative studies. The research has been conducted in eight out of thirteen districts of Muğla Province. Muğla Province is located in the south west part of Turkey. An important part of Muğla province (five districts) is located in costal zones and these districts are world famous costal tourism areas and comparably developed areas. However other eight districts are inland and partly mountain/rural areas and comparably less developed areas (DPT, 2004). The aim of this research is to identify a rural tourism strategy for these rural areas. Therefore, the research is conducted in eight rural districts of Muğla Province. Fully structured close ended questions were used with face to face interview in quantitative research. The research sampling is 408. On the other hand, deep interview used for qualitative research and

interviewed with 34 respondents. The respondents to be asked about their relationship with agricultural production and tendencies about development, rural development and rural tourism also the possibilities and potentials to improve rural tourism are mentioned areas.

RESULTS

Basic findings of the research indicate that migration from rural areas to urban areas is a distinguished problem in rural Turkey. Most of the population is over middle ages in rural areas while most of the population is under middle ages in general population in Turkey. Therefore productivity is so low that more than % 50 of the population is not working. More importantly peasantry and peasantry related agricultural production is nearly collapsed in rural Turkey. Only % 12 of the respondents defined themselves as agriculturist while nearly % 30 defined themselves as workers (including factory workers and service sector workers) and % 22 of them were retired. These findings indicate that agriculture is not the main economic activity anymore in rural Turkey. Further questions indicate that direct agricultural activity such gardening, producing vegetables, fruits, wheat so on are not primary agricultural activity any more. Only % 9 of the respondents identified themselves that their primary economic income is related to direct agriculture, % 21 is animal feeding and % 17 is olive tree olive oil. (Part of the research area is one most important olive oil production area in Turkey.)

There are many reasons to identify the collapse of peasantry and peasantry related agricultural production in Turkey. Mainly price of agricultural input is so high, however price of products are so low for peasantry and because of these factors they do not intent to agricultural production. As far as price of agricultural input such as fuel, seeds work force and so on is high and price of products is so low and this is not sustainable anymore. Accordingly, the respondents to be asked that either they are behalf of rural tourism activities or not. Nearly % 80 of the respondents answered that they are behalf of rural tourism activities. Further questions indicates that % 73 of the respondents intend to be interested in marketing of local products, % 60 of the respondents are interested in house pension, % 50 of them intent to marketing of local food and meals and nearly % 40 intend to present and to make their natural and historical values as natural and historical tourism destinations.

CONCLUSION

This paper discusses rural tourism as a rural development strategy. Developmental level differentiation between rural areas and urban areas is an important problem in developing countries such as Turkey. Therefore rural tourism is defined as a rural development strategy to solve development problems of rural areas in developing countries. This paper discussed and proposed a rural tourism strategy to solve development problems of rural areas in Turkey. The paper is based upon a sociological field research that was conducted in Mugla Province of Turkey. The

research findings indicate that peasantry and peasantry related agricultural production is nearly collapsed in Turkey. Because of the so many reasons most of the villagers are not directly interested in agriculture and agricultural production. Therefore, rural tourism might be an alternative developmental activity in rural areas and most of villagers are intent to be interested in rural tourism activities such as house pension, marketing of local products and local foods, presenting of their natural and historical values. Therefore, rural tourism might be a real rural development strategy for most of the developing countries such as Turkey.

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Hippies in Sultanahmet, Istanbul between 1965 and 1980¹

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INTRODUCTION

The year is 1967; the month is June. A new day starts early in the morning at Yener's Restaurant (Yener'in Yeri) and the Pudding Shop, while the seagulls are screaming and sortieing into the food waste brimming over in the garbage cans that line the side of Million Stone in Sultanahmet. While the early-bird hippies are sipping their first beers at Yener's Restaurant, the brittle hippies of the Pudding Shop are having their breakfast and drinking coffee. The drivers of two busses in front of the Pudding Shop are waiting for the final passengers to unhurriedly place their ragged backpacks into the luggage compartment. One of the busses, the Magic Bus, is going to Amsterdam. It is taking back a group of people who came back from Nepal a couple of days ago. The second bus is taking a group of hippies to Katmandu. The passengers are all keyed up to witness the mysticism of Asia in the light of day. Mahmut, the guide of the trip, is trying to check the passengers from the crumpled paper in his hands. The majority of the passengers have not yet gotten onto the bus; they are chatting with each other, holding a cigarette in one hand and a beer bottle in the other.

They call themselves "hippies" and describe themselves as nature-friendly and as peaceful absolute-objectors and environmentalists who stand for simple-living. They created a new philosophy with a few additions to the philosophies created by their elders in 1965, the Beatniks. They are protesting the wars, weapons, and prohibitions; they refuse to get caught in the gears of the system, and they want to make a change in the world for the better.

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THE HIPPIES

The world began to recognize these anti-system and rule-breaking young people through the Beatniks, who initially began to appear in Western countries. In the 1960s, the Beatnik Generation gave way to a new generation, which took the specific features of this subculture a step further: hippies. The associated movement spread in a short time and even extended its influence to young socialists. Until June of 1966, 15,000 hippies moved to Haight, San Francisco. The movement in this area was centered upon "The Diggers".

This ghetto street theatre group combined the anarchist movement and art events in order to create a free city. Until the end of 1966, the Diggers had operated centers for the purpose of distributing free food and healthcare products and providing free transportation and shelter. They also organized free concerts and political art events. In the early 1970s, 750,000 people began to love in 10,000 different communes throughout the United States. The hippies organized environmental events; later, they established and maintained organizations, such as Greenpeace, Earth First, and Friends of the Earth. It became a movement that influenced hundreds of thousands of people in a short time.

HIPPIES IN TURKEY

Beatniks began to visit Turkey after the mid-1950s (and headed towards the East through Turkey); hippies, on the other hand, began to visit Turkey in the mid-1960s. In those years, people were typically confused as to whether the visitors were Beatniks or hippies. However, after a while, they were all collectively referred to as hippies even the backpackers. While the Beatniks originally visited Central Anatolia (Cappadocia, Side, Alanya, Marmaris, Fethiye, etc.) in general, Sultanahmet became a "resting" point for the travelers heading towards India and Nepal, and then it became a hippie destination itself. The hippie movement became popular in Turkey after 1965, and with the regime shift in Iran in 1979, the highway-connected "traditional hippie trail" was closed. Sultanahmet's most popular years in terms of the hippie movement were between 1965 and 1975. The hippies headed towards Iran, and then traveled to Pakistan, Afghanistan, India, Nepal, and Tibet through Turkey by land. They took a "rest" in Sultanahmet and visited today's developed tourism regions, such as Cappadocia, Alanya, Side, Marmaris, Fethiye, and Kuşadası.

WHY SULTANAHMET (ISTANBUL)?

Sultanahmet was designated as a resting point for hippies on their long journeys to India, Nepal, and Tibet. The Beatniks were first encountered in this region during the 1950s. Although the visits by these groups became more frequent in the 1960s, the real wave of visits began after 1965.

In those years, Kasım Zoto took charge in the Turkish National Student Federation in Sultanahmet and took on tasks such as selling bus tickets for Nepal, India,

and Tibet. He gave the following statement regarding the fact that it was not a coincidence for hippies to prefer Sultanahmet:

“There were relatively more green fields, and more cheap and trumped up buildings in Sultanahmet back then; there were also dormitories and cheap motels for accommodation; there were no such things in Beyoğlu. They were cheap after all; there were hotel rooms, where four-six people could accommodate... Sultanahmet was the point of arrival, departure and welcoming. For example, the people from various regions usually met up in Sultanahmet and proceeded on their ways. I mean, it was one of the significant ‘meeting points’.

When the hippies turned Sultanahmet into a meeting and resting point, the region’s appearance underwent a transformation. Hippies from various cities in Europe embarked on the road in their automobiles, vans, and trailers and went to Sultanahmet, where they parked their vehicles and spend their days. It is observed from the interviews that hippies did not leave Sultanahmet very often, and they did not stay in hotels in Sirkeci unless they had to.

HOTELS IN SULTANAHMET

The hostels, hotels, dormitories, and the attics and rooftops of the hotels known as “outdoor hotels” were used for overnight stays in Sultanahmet. The poorer hippies slept in the parks or in front of those hotels. Those who arrived in vans stationed their vehicles in Sultanahmet Square.

Tourism professional Kasım Zoto stated that people preferred to stay in small and low-star hotels around Sultanahmet:

“The hotels preferred by hippies, who were not much liked by the local people, were usually third-class hotels. The poorer ones used to spend their nights in parks, sleeping on park benches or on grass, and thus they would not be spending money for accommodation. The hippies, who would walk around the city in groups with their dirty looks and tattered clothes, would try to raise cash by playing guitar on the corner of a street, when they ran out of money. I remember that it was Balikesir Residence Hall, and they would stay in Piyer Loti Street”.

The Gülhane Hostel was among the most important hostels that offered accommodation services for hippies in Sultanahmet. The most significant feature of this hostel, which had offered service for hippies and young tourists for about twenty years, was that it used to offer accommodation on the rooftop of the hotel (i.e., an outdoor hotel) for only 50 cents. In addition, the Hotel Alp Guesthouse, Ayasofya Guest House, Lale Hostel, Sultan Hostel, and Yücel Hostel (the name later changed to Yücelt) were also among the hostels that offered accommodations for hippies. While some of these hostels used to provide rooms for one to ten people, there were also others that had rooms for one person or for two, three, or four people. As in many other hostels, restrooms and bathrooms were common areas.

The following hotels around Sultanahmet used to offer accommodations for hippies: Büyük Ayasofya Oteli, Gülhane Çınar Oteli, Gülhane Park Oteli, which was located next to the old Alemdar Theatre and near the exit point of the Basilica Cistern, Güngör Otel, which was located next to the Pudding Shop, Mary Otel, Nur Otel, which was located in Little Hagia Sophia, and Star Holiday Otel. Many of these hotels were certified by the municipality.

POPULAR HIPPIE PLACES IN SULTANAHMET

The fact that Sultanahmet was the meeting and resting point of the Beatniks and hippies attributed a different meaning to this region. There were also other significant meeting points for hippies in Tehran, Kabul, India, and Katmandu, but only the two meeting points in Sultanahmet were comparable with the Freak Street and Amir Kabil Hostel.

YENER'İN YERİ (YENER'S RESTAURANT)

In 1964, Sıtkı Oruç, who was thirty-five years old at the time, began to offer service as a soup kitchen (restaurant) in a ten-square meter coffee shop that he inherited from his father in Sultanahmet. The shop was directly above the Basilica Cistern, behind the Million Stone, and in the basement of a three-star hotel. Sıtkı Oruç continued to offer service until 1990.

Nobody knows about the number and whereabouts of the notebooks kept by Sıtkı Oruç. It has been predicted that there are a total of five notebooks; for instance, Aytunç Altındal mentioned five notebooks in his article in 1970. Yet, when the active years of the restaurant are taken into account, it is clear that there should be many other notebooks. The only information regarding the whereabouts of those notebooks pertains to the rumors about Sıtkı Oruç's dentist son, who supposedly held onto the notebooks after his father's death in 1990.

PUDDING SHOP

The Pudding Shop, or Lale Lokantası (Lale Restaurant), was another legendary hippy meeting and resting point in Sultanahmet. Although Yener's Restaurant and the Pudding Shop used to similarly offer services for hippies, there were also some differences between the two restaurants. Yener's Restaurant was a bar that used to sell alcoholic beverages; the Pudding Shop was originally a patisserie, and while the owners eventually sold beer, they never gave up on offering their primary products, such as cakes, puddings, and breakfast items. Later, this place turned into a local restaurant. However, one of the main differences between Yener's Restaurant and the Pudding Shop was economical. While lower-income or even completely broke hippies used to go to Yener's Restaurant, the Pudding Shop was the meeting point of the hippies from middle or upper-class families. In a sense, there was a detectable "class" difference between the two meeting locations.

The Pudding Shop has been overseen by the same people since 1957. As one of the rare meeting locations that is still remembered by the hippies, the Pudding Shop continues to be a place where old hippies passing through Istanbul stop by to have a drink.

END OF THE HIPPIE TRAIL

The political issues in Iran and Afghanistan, which are located on the traditional hippie trail, put an end to the long journeys to India and Nepal by land. When the secular regime was replaced by the Islamic government with the Khomeini Revolution in 1979, problems regarding hippie journeys began to emerge in Iran and those trips were eventually prohibited. On the other hand, when Afghanistan was invaded by the Soviet Union in 1979, the trail was also prohibited by the Islamic insurgents.

Investors' Perception of Corporate Brand Diversification: An Empirical Examination of Ipo Underpricing

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INTRODUCTION

When a private firm decides to go public for the first time, they usually go through an Initial Public Offering (IPO) (Ljungqvist, 2007). The company will benefit from the IPO in many ways such as an increased liquidity for investors and employees, higher corporate reputation, increased market value for the company, an acquisition of a large amount of cash for company growth and access to capital markets (Allison, Hall and McShea, 2008). Holmström and Tirole (1993), and Bolton and Von Thadden (1998) state that another reason for going public is the desire of being monitored by the externals like investment banks, creditors or investors so that the company might get more value.

Along with issuing an IPO comes certain costs and disadvantages as well. For instance, underwriting fees, registration fees, certification, stock exchange fees and auditing fees are some of the inevitable costs. Rock (1986) indicates that one

of the biggest costs of IPO is the asymmetric information possession between trading parties, which results in underpricing of the IPO shares. Underpricing is the phenomenon of setting intentionally low offer prices for the shares of going public firms. Mathematically, it is the difference between the offer price and the closing price of the IPO shares on the first trading day (Ibbotson, 1975; Beatty and Ritter, 1986). As a result of this practice, issuing firms leave substantial proceeds on the table. The information asymmetry between the sides of the IPO transactions is seen to be the underlying cause of the underpricing. Information asymmetry may appear under few forms: information asymmetry between underwriter and investor, underwriter and issuer, and issuer and investors (Baron, 1982).

The most common form of information asymmetry is observed between issuers and investors. When a company is private, it holds a lot of information inside the company and does not have to reveal it to public. Therefore, investors suffer significantly from lacking information about the issuing firms (Rock, 1986). In the IPO trading, investors rely on the information set provided by the issuing companies through the prospectuses, and make use of certain signals that may indicate an issuing firm's quality. These signals are proposed to reduce an issuing firm's ex-ante uncertainty by implicitly revealing firm quality, and therefore mitigate the risk perception on the IPO firms. If these signals are valued by investors, then the need to decrease the offer prices below the expected market prices would diminish because investors would be trading with considerable information. Past research on this signaling phenomenon report three widely used signaling mechanisms: underwriter prestige (Beatty and Ritter, 1986; Carter and Manaster, 1990), venture capital backing (Barry, Muscarella, Peavy and Vetsuypens, 1990) and auditor quality (Michaely and Shaw, 1995). Beyond these important certification mechanisms firm age, firm size and the year of issue have been found to be significant determinants of underpricing. In the same vein, this study examines the explanatory power of corporate brand diversification on the underpricing of IPO shares. If pre-IPO brand diversification is deemed to be a quality of an issuing firm, we anticipate such firms to experience lower underpricing compared to non-diversified firms. We test this proposition using corporate level data from the US hotel and restaurant firms (hospitality firms). Our results show that diversified hospitality firms experience lower underpricing compared to their non-diversified counterparts. This finding implies that investors subscribing for the issues of hospitality firms' IPOs regard their diversification as a risk-mitigating factor and incorporate it into their pricing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

IPO Underpricing

Underpricing phenomenon is first documented by Stoll and Curley (1970) and Ibbotson (1975) in the US markets. A stock is considered to be underpriced when the offer price of an IPO is lower than the price of the first trade. Stocks are usually underpriced because the balance between supply and demand is erratic. The main

driver of underpricing on a stock is a risk ratio originated from the uncertainty of the new issue on the market. The stocks tend to be underpriced to compensate investors for the risk they are taking when the predictability and dependability is questionable. First day underpricing of IPO shares is evidenced throughout the world's capital markets. For instance, Engelen and Essen (2010) documents a wide range of underpricing over 21 countries, from 2.11% in Argentina, to 12.12% in France, and to 21.14% in the U.S.

Several theories have attempted to explain the reason for underpricing IPO shares. However, most prominently information asymmetry theory has been the core of the investigation (Beatty and Ritter, 1986; Ritter and Welch, 2002). In the IPO context, information asymmetry theory suggests that IPO investors possess limited information about going public firms, and so trade with informational disadvantages (Carter and Manaster, 1990; Leland and Pyle, 1977). Hence, investors believe that they are exposed to greater risk in their investment. To be compensated for this risk-taking, they anticipate a premium, which reflects itself in the form of lower offering prices for IPO shares that they are subscribed for. From the issuers' perspective, this is a costly practice, because significant potential proceeds are given away to investors. Therefore, issuers try to reveal as much information as possible about their pre-IPO state and reduce investors' informational disadvantages. By this means, they wish to descent the need for underpricing. While a significant amount of information flows from the issuing companies' prospectuses, a lot of information is also revealed through signals that are inherent qualities of the firms. For instance, prestige of the underwriter (investment bank) managing the IPO process, quality of the external auditor running the final audits before IPO, and venture capital fund association with the going public firm can be regarded positive signals that expose investors the true quality of an IPO issuer. Having received this information through signaling mechanism, investors are expected to make more informed investment decisions.

Brand Diversification

Brand diversification is an important strategy for corporations for growth and development purposes. During 1950s, branding became an important part of the marketing strategy. However, Nijssen (1999) has argued that until the 1990s companies could not understand the goodwill value of their brands. According to Durrani and Hussain (2009), we recently started realizing the increasing extent of brand diversification and their impact on consumer lifestyle.

Brand diversification can be defined as the extent to which firms enter to new markets with different brands or compete with companies in different segments. According to George Brown, executive assistant manager – senior food and beverage director at the Hyatt Regency Atlanta, diversification can be explained as the process of mix and making the mix work. Also Rammanujam and Varadarajan (1989) explained brand diversification as a firm's entry in a business, which looks to new processes and strategies compared to the existing one. To decrease the risk

of the brand diversification, most of the companies use their brand names to give the trust to their guests. According to Chernatony (2005) the strength of brand name smoothens the way for entering new product categories through brand extension.

Brand diversification is a popular strategy for manufacturing, service and lodging industries. It plays a big role in companies' efforts to reach out to their customers especially in service industry, because companies cannot experience the product before consumers buy them. As Lancaster (1990) mentioned, a diversified brand portfolio contributes to raise the demand of intangible and uncertain customers' needs and reduce satiation. For instance, Hilton is a prominent example of the power of brand diversification in hospitality industry. Hilton offered new brands to add different targeted guests to their market potential. Today, Hilton Worldwide reaches to their customers with three segments: Luxury (Waldorf and Conrad); upscale full-service (Hilton and DoubleTree); and focused – service, spanning upscale and upper midscale (Hilton Garden Inn and Hampton Inn). With these non Hilton brand hotels, the number of hotel has increased substantially by 2014, which results in reaching a larger customer base and accordingly yielding more revenue and reducing cash flow variability. In this regard, we anticipate that corporations enjoy substantial financial benefits from their diversified brands, and this should be perceived favorably when investors consider the shares of these companies when they go public. In other words, we believe that pre-IPO brand diversification should emerge a positive cognition in the investors' minds, because brand diversification not only increases revenue streams but also reduces cash flow variability, which is a desired quality for investors to secure their returns. If these expectations are realized, diversified firms should experience lower underpricing compared to non-diversified firms because they are associated with less risk and financial uncertainty.

METHODOLOGY

Data

Data of the study come from Securities Database Corporation (SDC) new issue database, IPO prospectuses, and Compustat/CRSP databases. Deal specific data are retrieved from SDC files, branding data are hand collected from prospectuses, and accounting and return data are collected from Compustat/CRSP databases. Data are specifically collected for US hotel and restaurant firms with Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes of 7011 and 5812 respectively. Final data set includes 116 hospitality firms.

Model

We estimate the following empirical model via Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression to test the effect of brand diversification on the underpricing. Brand diver-

sification is the main independent variable of the study, and all other variables are included in the model as control variables.

$$UP = \alpha + \beta_1BD + \beta_2UW + \beta_3VC + \beta_4AU + \beta_5LNSIZE + \beta_6LNAGE + \beta_7SIC + IY + \varepsilon$$

Underpricing is operationalized as the difference between the closing price of the first trading day and offer price, divided by the offer price (Carter, Dark and Shing, 1998). BD is a dummy variable taking a value of 1 if an issuer has multiple brands (# of brands>1 in the prospectus), 0 otherwise. UW represents the quality of underwriter and is a dummy. According to the Carter and Manaster (1991) scale, if underwriter quality score is higher than the median of 8.001, this variable takes a value of 1, otherwise 0. VC stands for the venture capital and it is also a dummy variable. If a firm is associated with a venture capital fund, VC takes a value of 1, otherwise 0. AU represents the auditor quality. If the external auditor of the issuer is a member of the Big-4, -6 or -8, AU takes on a value of 1, otherwise 0. LNSIZE is the natural logarithm of the gross proceeds, and the LNAGE is the natural logarithm of one plus the age of the firm at the date of IPO.

RESULTS

Table 1 below reports the results of the preliminary difference tests in underpricing between brand diversified and non-diversified firms. Mean underpricing is 8.49% for brand diversified firms, and 18.36% for non-diversified firms; and the difference between the two groups is significant at 5% alpha level. This finding, in exclusivity of control variables, is consistent with the study’s proposition that brand diversified firms experience lower underpricing compared non-diversified firms.

Table 1. Test of Difference in Underpricing

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
0	93	18.36125	2.110706	20.35491	14.16921	22.5533
1	23	8.489896	3.84214	15.27095	1.886241	15.09355
combined	116	16.404	1.837575	19.79129	12.76412	20.04388
diff		9.871357	3.820248		2.170001	17.57271

Ha: diff < 0	Ha: diff !=0	Ha: diff > 0
Pr (T < t) = 0.9934	Pr (T > t) =0.0132	Pr (T > t) = 0.0066

Table 2 provides the results of the regression analysis. BD takes on statistically significant negative coefficient ($\beta = -13.26486$, $p = 0.01 < 0.05$), which indicates that brand diversification reduces underpricing by 13.26 percentage points. This finding is consistent with the result of the difference test, and supports the study's proposition.

Table 2. Regression Results

	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P>t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
BD	-13.26486	5.00027	-2.65	0.010	-23.21199	-3.317735
UW	-0.1770589	1.208774	-0.15	0.884	-2.581695	2.227577
VC	13.80349	4.932036	2.80	0.006	3.992095	23.61488
AU	14.83983	4.993634	2.97	0.004	4.9059	24.77376
SIZE	-1.457406	3.428976	-0.43	0.672	-8.278732	5.363921
AGE	-6.090577	1.910573	-3.19	0.002	-9.891314	-2.28984
SIC						
7011	10.18636	5.345256	1.91	0.06	-0.4470618	20.81977
Cons	25.20309	52.24912	0.48	0.631	-78.73705	129.1432
Number of obs				116		
F (33, 82)				2.20		
Prob > F				0.0022		
Adj R-squared				0.2554		

Findings of the study provide preliminary support for the association between brand diversification and underpricing. In both tests, we find evidence that brand diversified firms experience a lower underpricing compared to non-diversified firms. Based on the asymmetric information theory, the negative association between brand diversification and IPO underpricing can be interpreted as the fact that investors make use of any available information about issuing firms to diminish the uncertainty covering their investment environment, and uphold their prospective returns.

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International Population Movements in Turkey as a Result of Tourism Activities between 2010-2015

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism activities showing a rapid development all over the world also enable international population movements. Especially the development of transport systems, the increase in accommodation facilities and their becoming more comfortable have made people more willing to perform a variety of activities for both relaxation and recreational purposes. As a result of recent developments, tourism-induced population movements are occurring across the globe (Sertkaya Doğan, 2015, p.108). Within this context, while Turkey is a scene for visits from various countries as a destination center, it is also involved in international population movements due to the increase in the visits made from the country abroad (Sertkaya Doğan, 2005, p.238). Turkey will be able to obtain an important place at the top in the world tourism market to the extent it reflects the advantages of being in the Mediterranean Basin where intensive international tourism activities are observed, being a Middle Eastern and Balkan country, and being in the center of Asia, Europe, and Africa continents on tourism (Akova, 1997, p.264). Easily accessible areas in terms of geographical location, regions having natural and cultural attractions such as Turkey have become tourism destinations. In addition to these features, Turkey, which is located in the middle climate zone, also has favorable climatic characteristics for tourism. Climatic characteristics are decisive in determining whether a place is appropriate for tourism activities, and moreover, which tourism activities can be performed (Akova Balcı, 2008, p.15). On the other hand, the changes and differentiation in the world tourism demand also reveal the opportunities for Turkey to utilize unique touristic potentials in various regions (Bakırcı, 2011, p.72). As a result of the socio-economic improvement in the level of living, the number of visits to abroad has increased remarkably in our country in recent years. Factors such as the increase in the number of organization companies operating in the tourism sector and the improvements in the visa application processes facilitating obtaining visa are highly effective in these developments. Tourism, which is a sector in which major investments are made by entrepreneurs, has renewed itself every time, the quality

of products and services has increased, and universal service opportunities have emerged (Doğan, 2011, p.123).

In this study, international population movement within the scope of tourism activities in Turkey during the period between 2010- 2015 was examined. In this context, international population movement as a result of tourism activities was tried to be revealed taking into consideration the data such as international passenger transportation for tourism purpose, the number of people entering and leaving the country, the number of overnight stays and average spending.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, conventional research methods were used. In this context, the literature review was performed, and official statistical data were used. In addition, the on-site observation method was used in the field research performed in Turkish tourism regions.

THE PLACE OF TOURISM IN THE ECONOMY OF TURKEY (2010- 2015)

In Turkey, which is one of the major tourism destinations, the development of tourism gained speed especially after 1980. In our country especially since the 1980s, the acceleration of various investments in transportation, communication and service sectors led to the recovery of tourism sector and enabled it to gain economic value (Sertkaya Doğan, 2011, p.132). In the globalized world; in addition to the improvements in transportation systems, as a result of the proliferation of mass media, advertising and the activities of various promotional companies, the accessibility and recognition opportunities increased, thus tourism activities became an important sector around the world. As a result of the developments such as faster transportation vehicles with higher capacities and lower transportation costs, tourists have gained the opportunity to spend their holidays in more distant tourism regions with each passing day (Akova, 2013, p.107). Tourism activities, which are created by people's needs for daily trips or longer accommodations out of the place of their residence, sightseeing, recreation, experiencing new cultures, additionally, benefiting from educational or health facilities, nowadays, have a large share of the national income. Tourism is among the most important economic inputs of the countries all around the world. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization's data (UNWTO), world tourism receipts which had been \$ 928 billion in 2010 reached \$ 1.245 billion in 2014. Turkey's tourism receipts were announced to be \$21.9 billion in 2009, \$27.9 billion in 2013 and \$31.5 billion in 2015.

The share of tourism receipts in the Gross National Product (GNP) which had been 3.4 in 2010 reached 4.3 in 2014. The tourism receipts/export ratio increased in a similar way. This ratio which had been 18.3 in 2010 reached 21.8 in 2014.

Table 1. The Share of Tourism Receipts In GNP And Tourism Receipts/Export Ratio By Year

Year	The Share of Tourism Receipts	
	in GNP	Tourism Receipts/Export Ratio
2010	3.4	18.3
2011	3.6	20.8
2012	3.7	19.2
2013	3.9	21.3
2014	4.3	21.8

Source: <http://www.tursab.org.tr>

When the share of tourism receipts in GNP for years in the period covered by the study was considered, a steady increase was observed. This value which had been 3.4 in 2010 reached 4.3 in 2014 by increasing at the rate of 26.4%. Similarly, tourism receipts/export ratio which had been 18.3 in 2010 reached 21.8% in 2014 by increasing at the rate of approximately 20%.

This increase in the share of tourism receipts in GNP is a result of efficient policies implemented in Turkish tourism during this period. Tourism, besides its contribution to the national income, is among the sectors at the center of economic and social balance because of its foreign exchange generating feature and the employment it provides. The share of the tourism sector, which can also be defined as an effective and important means of marketing and promotion, is increasingly growing every year. Turkey, which had received around five thousand foreign visitors in the years when the Republic was founded, is now the 6th popular destination in the world with 35 million foreign visitors (<http://www.aktob.org.tr/pdf/arastirma2014.pdf>).

Table 2. Accommodation Facilities By Year.

Years	Facilities with Tourism Operation License			Facilities with Tourism Investment License		
	Facilities	Rooms	Beds	Facilities	Rooms	Beds
2010	2.647	299.621	629.465	877	114.771	252.984
2011	2.783	319.319	668.829	922	122.364	267.900
2012	2.870	336.447	706.019	960	126.592	273.877
2013	2.982	357.440	749.299	1.056	139.928	301.862
2014	3.131	384.454	807.316	1.117	145.648	309.556
Total	14.413	1.697.281	3.560.928	4.932	649.303	1.406.179

Source: <http://www.tursab.org.tr>

When table-2 was examined, the increase in the room and bed capacities, the number of facilities with tourism operation license and tourism investment license

increased in parallel to the increase in the share obtained from tourism receipts in 2010-2015 period.

INTERNATIONAL POPULATION MOVEMENTS IN TURKEY AS A RESULT OF TOURISM ACTIVITIES

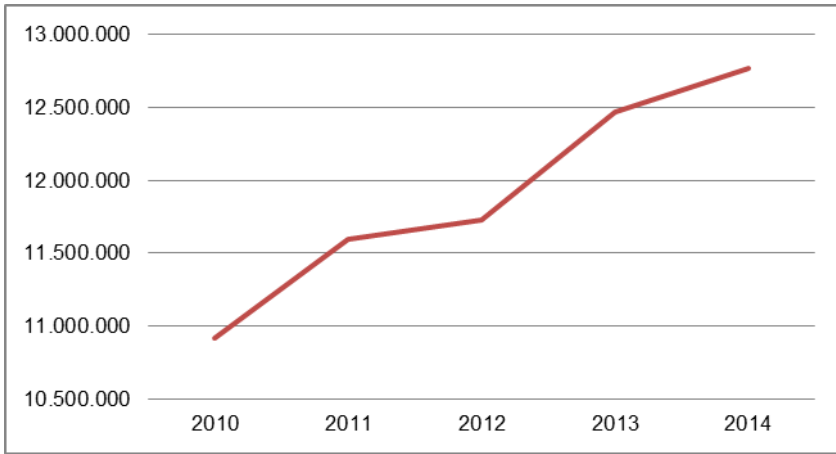
As of 2005, Turkish tourism has succeeded to be among the world’s top 10 countries in terms of foreign visitors arrivals. Turkey, with this performance, outstripped Greece and Egypt and continues to compete with France, Italy and Spain in the same category. Tourism activities which are built on extremely delicate balance are greatly affected by the international relations and political developments. Therefore, important events happening in Europe and the Mediterranean region in recent years are changing the balance in many sectors, particularly tourism. These developments have led to a change in the direction of the current in tourism market on one hand, on the other hand, they have led to differentiation in the group of countries competing with each other.

POPULATION ARRIVING IN TURKEY

International population movements based on tourism activities are examined mainly in two groups in the tables created by utilizing the tourism statistics of Turkish Statistical Institute (Tuik) for 2015. These data were classified into two groups: the population arriving in Turkey and the population departing from Turkey. The population arriving in Turkey consists of citizens of foreign countries and Turkish citizens living abroad. In this context, when Table-3 in which the number of citizens arriving in Turkey is evaluated, it can be said that 10.921.427 individuals in total visited our country in 2010, and this figure reached 12.768.914 in 2014 by increasing at the rate of 16.9%. The arriving visitors chose mostly the airway (63%). The advantages of air transport have led to the development of this situation.

Table 3. Number of Visitors Who Are Turkish Citizens Arriving Annually.

Means of Transport	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Airway	5.987.481	6.697.780	7.258.837	7.744.135	7.972.293
Railway	10.520	13.819	5.636	4.286	3.325
Highway	4.551.207	4.461.258	3.996.629	4.164.771	4.241.591
Seaway	372.219	419.796	470.361	561.026	551.705
Total	10.921.427	11.592.653	11.731.463	12.474.218	12.768.914



Graphic 1. Changes In The Annual Number Of Visitors Who Are Turkish Citizens Arriving.

Table 4. Annual Number of Foreign Visitors Arriving By the Group of Countries

Group of Countries	Means of Transport	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
AFRICAN COUNTRIES	Total	377.300	445.487	713.399	807.484	888.107
	Airway	353.791	419.726	688.750	782.157	859.503
	Railway	181	49	28	30	20
	Highway	12.261	8.355	4.021	3.970	3.072
	Seaway	1.901	3.712	2.375	3.366	3.096
	Daytripper	9.166	13.645	18.225	17.961	22.416
AMERICAN COUNTRIES	Total	135.902	181.617	185.300	245.961	228.035
	Airway	94.397	114.859	125.291	165.864	168.673
	Railway	384	229	128	178	65
	Highway	3.526	3.072	2.702	3.401	3.171
	Seaway	2.886	4.950	3.789	7.535	5.788
	Daytripper	34.709	58.507	53.390	68.983	50.338
EUROPEAN OECD COUNTRIES	Total	14.209.364	15.599.564	15.583.736	15.954.808	16.376.814
	Airway	11.737.690	12.835.961	12.930.964	13.234.957	13.617.388
	Railway	16.676	10.851	7.640	6.012	3.288
	Highway	1.085.372	1.028.004	1.027.369	1.090.389	1.233.331
	Seaway	289.494	338.096	321.295	324.551	392.444
	Daytripper	1.080.132	1.386.652	1.296.468	1.298.899	1.130.363

COMMONWEALTH OF INDEPENDENT STATES	Total	6.075.484	6.695.501	7.236.582	8.607.486	8.850.923
	Airway	4.504.438	5.016.957	5.309.835	6.302.090	6.544.566
	Railway	450	169	65	116	56
	Highway	1.505.140	1.607.728	1.854.856	2.225.109	2.222.291
	Seaway	32.833	28.583	29.988	34.082	41.099
	Daytripper	32.623	42.064	41.838	46.089	42.911
WEST ASIAN COUNTRIES	Total	1.887.040	2.088.314	2.147.531	3.055.786	3.377.008
	Airway	737.978	901.106	1.156.746	1.498.174	2.005.091
	Railway	5.862	5.024	1.400	49	24
	Highway	1.116.541	1.150.037	954.655	1.493.738	1.289.049
	Seaway	19.100	21.203	20.536	35.819	66.313
	Daytripper	7.559	10.944	14.194	28.006	16.531
OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES	Total	2.412.354	2.595.476	2.646.012	2.823.049	3.066.220
	Airway	614.691	682.882	733.949	822.710	935.711
	Railway	6.923	5.567	3.072	3.940	1.718
	Highway	1.748.978	1.846.852	1.845.248	1.933.819	2.059.236
	Seaway	17.847	23.611	22.846	25.225	30.502
	Daytripper	23.915	36.564	40.897	37.355	39.053
OTHER OECD COUNTRIES	Total	1.293.272	1.499.625	1.541.518	1.604.399	1.670.819
	Airway	783.003	890.786	978.007	1.007.705	1.133.290
	Railway	4.635	2.246	1.117	1.222	487
	Highway	33.835	34.245	28.983	31.856	34.144
	Seaway	51.467	65.840	58.089	63.026	64.741
	Daytripper	420.332	506.508	475.322	500.590	438.157
EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES	Total	108.013	134.639	161.054	197.065	273.396
	Airway	99.897	122.400	145.794	177.500	250.837
	Railway	159	69	17	70	130
	Highway	1.293	1.371	1.912	1.405	1.572
	Seaway	724	1.387	1.964	1.525	3.046
	Daytripper	5.940	9.412	11.367	16.565	17.811
SOUTH ASIAN COUNTRIES	Total	1.986.910	2.004.059	1.330.050	1.356.997	1.797.290
	Airway	514.908	668.243	683.454	683.260	1.035.531
	Railway	30.352	27.836	15.255	17.267	18.657

	Highway	1.431.756	1.288.958	612.335	638.709	721.524
	Seaway	4.265	6.178	6.086	6.712	8.717
	Daytripper	5.629	12.844	12.920	11.049	12.861
	Total	120.487	184.917	201.217	221.087	260.962
SOUTHEAST ASIAN COUNTRIES	Airway	95.325	114.100	140.138	165.343	200.564
	Railway	185	97	59	94	15
	Highway	3.281	22.183	2.320	3.907	4.133
	Seaway	9.345	12.832	12.727	13.871	15.898
	Daytripper	12.351	35.705	45.973	37.872	40.352
	Total	23.208	26.518	31.739	35.501	47.654
	Airway	16.795	21.333	27.582	31.796	42.718
	Railway	337	20	1	1	
STATELESS	Highway	6.047	5.019	4.034	3.581	2.222
	Seaway	29	146	122	123	451
	Daytripper					2.263
	Total	2.870	359	4.694	475	672
	Airway	2.792	289	130	203	319
	Highway	37	27	1.702	67	81
OCEANIAN COUNTRIES	Seaway	2	8	10	36	20
	Daytripper	39	35	2.852	169	252

When Table-4 is examined, it can be said that the number of foreign visitors arriving in Turkey was 28.632.204 in total in 2010. That the biggest group arriving in Turkey is citizens of European OECD countries draws attention. Within this group of countries which consists of Germany, UK, Holland, France, Italy, Greece, Belgium, Austria, Sweden, Poland, Spain, Denmark, Norway, Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, Slovakia, Hungary, Portugal, Luxembourg and Iceland; the first three rankings are as follows: Germany with 31% tourist potential, UK with 19% tourist potential and Holland with 8% tourist potential. When the data for 2014 were examined, it was observed that the figures did not change a lot, and Germany, UK, and Holland were in the first three with the tourist potential of 32%, 16%, and 8%, respectively. It can be said that the number of foreign visitors arriving in Turkey was 36.837.900 in 2014.

According to the data for 2010, citizens of the countries in the Commonwealth of Independent States constitute the second biggest group of countries arriving in Turkey. Within the Commonwealth of Independent States which consists of Russian Federation, Georgia, Ukraine, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Turkmenistan,

the Republic of Moldova, Armenia, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan; the first three rankings are as follows: Russia with 51%, Georgia 18% and Ukraine 9%. When the data for 2014 were examined, it was determined that the citizens of Russian Federation took place on the top with the share of 51%, Georgian citizens followed them with the share of 20%, and Azerbaijan citizens arrived in Turkey at the rate of 7%.

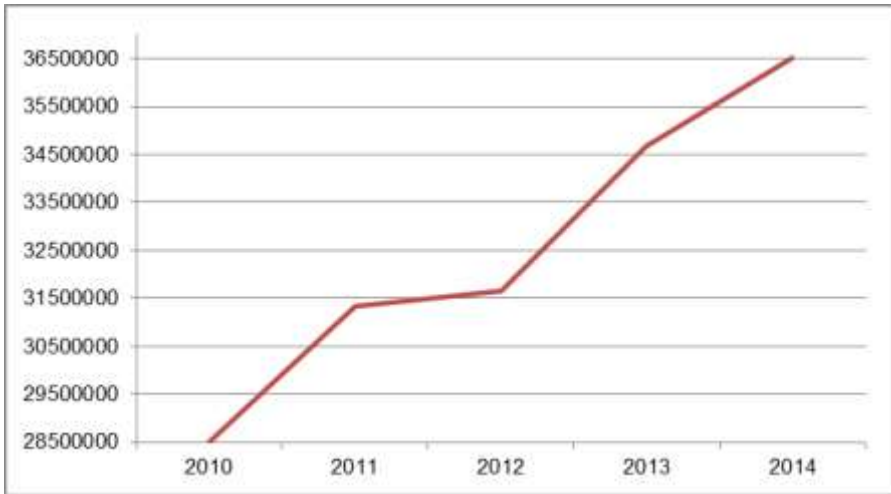
Except this, the total number of foreign visitors from other European Countries (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Serbia) reached 3.066.220 by increasing at the rate 27% in 2014 while this figure was 2.412.354 in 2010.

Another remarkable group of countries in the table is South and West Asian Countries. In this context, 1.986.910 visitors from South Asian countries (Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, India and Bangladesh) and 1.887.040 visitors from the West Asian countries (T.R.N.C., Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Israel, Palestine, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, U.A.E., Oman and Yemen) arrived in Turkey in 2010. In 2014, 1.797.290 visitors from the South Asian countries and 3.377.008 visitors from the West Asian countries arrived in Turkey.

POPULATION GOING FROM TURKEY ABROAD

Table 5. Annual Number of Turkish Citizens Departing For Abroad.

Means of Transport	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Airway	19.493.183	21.735.125	22.889.537	24.807.963	26.734.896
Railway	61.204	47.840	25.903	25.218	21.013
Highway	6.879.517	6.901.694	6.197.198	7.216.067	7.312.797
Seaway	444.553	526.989	529.104	573.616	625.170
Daytripper	1.632.395	2.112.880	2.013.446	2.063.538	1.813.308
Total	28.510.852	31.324.528	31.655.188	34.686.402	36.507.184



Graphic 2. Changes In The Annual Number Of Turkish Citizens Departing For Abroad.

As can be seen from Table-5 and Graphic-2 established based on the table, a significant increase in the number of Turkish citizens departing for abroad was recorded. This can be interpreted as an indicator of developing transportation facilities and the increase in the economic income levels. The total number of Turkish citizens departing for abroad which had been 28.510.852 in 2010 reached 36.507.184 in 2014 by increasing at the rate of 28%. That airway is the most used means of transport for outgoing travels and the use of railway is at minimum draw attention.

Table 6. The Annual Number Of Foreign Visitors Departing

Group of Countries	Means of Transport	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
AFRICAN COUNTRIES	Total	356.918	421.270	701.167	789.422	870.300
	Airway	333.686	396.710	675.714	764.567	842.009
	Railway	173	118	91	64	55
	Highway	11.879	8.183	4.649	3.456	2.790
	Seaway	2.014	2.614	2.488	3.374	3.030
	Daytripper	9.166	13.645	18.225	17.961	22.416
	Total	134.331	181.145	183.679	245.581	227.715
AMERICAN COUNTRIES	Airway	88.131	109.036	118.668	157.984	159.828
	Railway	364	229	163	176	80
	Highway	3.340	2.488	2.499	3.005	2.856

	Seaway	7.787	10.885	8.959	15.433	14.613
	Daytripper	34.709	58.507	53.390	68.983	50.338
	Total	14.196.096	15.606.080	15.609.238	15.985.058	16.389.956
EUROPEAN OECD COUNTRIES	Airway	11.735.627	12.858.967	12.955.971	13.255.324	13.647.525
	Railway	16.907	9.928	7.101	5.734	3.910
	Highway	1.073.516	1.006.218	1.006.716	1.076.330	1.216.115
	Seaway	289.914	344.315	342.982	348.771	392.043
	Daytripper	1.080.132	1.386.652	1.296.468	1.298.899	1.130.363
	Total	6.014.945	6.629.262	7.193.119	8.564.954	8.803.904
COMMONWEALTH OF INDEPENDENT STATES	Airway	4.470.023	4.983.468	5.291.427	6.280.460	6.530.682
	Railway	452	186	108	112	53
	Highway	1.478.005	1.573.640	1.826.619	2.198.747	2.185.763
	Seaway	33.842	29.904	33.127	39.546	44.495
	Daytripper	32.623	42.064	41.838	46.089	42.911
	Total	1.862.393	2.062.994	2.045.730	2.870.375	3.102.013
WEST ASIAN COUNTRIES	Airway	736.066	889.599	1.142.968	1.470.450	1.951.234
	Railway	4.247	2.680	514	69	31
	Highway	1.095.217	1.139.304	862.801	1.332.359	1.095.974
	Seaway	19.304	20.467	25.253	39.491	38.243
	Daytripper	7.559	10.944	14.194	28.006	16.531
	Total	2.424.221	2.588.786	2.655.949	2.825.264	3.069.759
OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES	Airway	616.090	682.567	736.187	823.856	940.463
	Railway	7.085	6.417	3.330	3.692	1.907
	Highway	1.758.967	1.839.236	1.848.467	1.930.985	2.057.967
	Seaway	18.164	24.002	27.068	29.376	30.369
	Daytripper	23.915	36.564	40.897	37.355	39.053
	Total	1.296.678	1.500.476	1.547.894	1.609.410	1.678.024
OTHER OECD COUNTRIES	Airway	783.569	889.825	977.762	1.006.958	1.138.368
	Railway	4.004	2.386	1.353	1.342	638
	Highway	31.256	27.809	26.795	28.202	29.080
	Seaway	57.517	73.948	66.662	72.318	71.781
	Daytripper	420.332	506.508	475.322	500.590	438.157
EAST ASIAN	Total	106.019	134.720	158.448	191.635	266.935

COUNTRIES	Airway	97.853	122.494	143.553	171.566	243.253
	Railway	236	46	42	69	220
	Highway	1.085	1.039	1.582	1.293	1.748
	Seaway	905	1.729	1.904	2.142	3.903
	Daytripper	5.940	9.412	11.367	16.565	17.811
SOUTH ASIAN COUNTRIES	Total	1.973.680	1.988.758	1.327.315	1.349.970	1.792.267
	Airway	520.343	668.922	684.195	682.698	1.040.907
	Railway	27.060	25.739	13.130	13.905	14.087
	Highway	1.416.882	1.275.313	610.862	635.054	714.867
	Seaway	3.766	5.940	6.208	7.264	9.545
SOUTH-EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES	Daytripper	5.629	12.844	12.920	11.049	12.861
	Total	119.339	184.181	198.297	219.367	256.388
	Airway	92.055	112.048	135.767	162.503	195.643
	Railway	329	85	65	54	31
	Highway	3.340	23.292	2.165	3.155	3.459
STATELESS	Seaway	11.264	13.051	14.327	15.783	16.903
	Daytripper	12.351	35.705	45.973	37.872	40.352
	Total	23.421	26.658	31.330	34.920	49.284
	Airway	17.021	21.365	27.191	31.406	44.671
	Railway	347	26	5	1	1
OCEANIAN COUNTRIES	Highway	5.996	5.142	4.019	3.413	2.111
	Seaway	57	125	115	100	238
	Daytripper					2.263
	Total	2.811	198	3.022	446	639
	Airway	2.719	124	134	191	313
OCEANIAN COUNTRIES	Railway			1		
	Highway	34	30	24	68	67
	Seaway	19	9	11	18	7
	Daytripper	39	35	2.852	169	252

As stated in Table-6, when the data of foreign visitors departing are examined, it is observed that 50% of the total number of foreign visitors departing (28.510.852) as of 2010 are the citizens of European OECD countries. The citizens of CIS countries with 21% and the citizens of other European countries with 9%

follow them. In 2014, it is observed that 45% of foreign visitors departing (36.5070.184) constitute the citizens of European OECD countries, 24% constitute the citizens of CIS countries, and 8% constitute the citizens of West Asian countries. Therefore, although the profile of foreign visitors departing from Turkey creates largely an appropriate view to the data for 2010, it can be said that the number of the citizens of West Asian Countries (T.R.N.C., Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, Israel, Palestine, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, U.A.E., Oman and Yemen) relatively increased.

RESULTS

Considering the results obtained from this study, it can be said that international population movements occurring as a result of tourism activities in Turkey increased in the period between 2010 and 2015, and this increase will continue in the future. Tourism activities are one of the important sectors that enable the population movement (Sertkaya Doğan, 2015, p.26). Tourism culture which develops as a result of the increase in the socio-economic level, transportation, communication, and education level also enable international tourism activities to occur more effectively.

CONCLUSION

Tourism activities which are one of the most effective factors in international population movements are on the rapid rise worldwide. In 2014, the cities attracting most visitors were Paris (18.8 million tourists), New York (18.5 million tourists), London (16.1 million tourists), Bangkok (14.6 million tourists), Barcelona (12.4 million tourists) and Singapore (10.6 million tourists). While the number of tourists visiting Istanbul, which is one of the most important destinations in the world, was 6.9 million in 2010, it reached 12 million in 2015. Antalya, which is another important tourism destination, received 12.4 million tourist arrivals in 2014. According to the predictions of the United Nations World Tourism Organization, an increase of 30.8% in the international tourism movement is expected during the period between 2010 and 2020. It is seen Spain, Italy, and France come to the fore as the main competitors of Turkey in terms of tourism infrastructure and other services. This also brings the need to reshape tourism policies and objectives of Turkey. While Turkey was the 20th in 2000, 9th in 2005, 7th in 2009 in terms of the number of tourists, it became the 6th in the world after France, the USA, China, Spain and Italy in 2015. Similarly, a similar ranking in terms of tourism receipts can be mentioned.

Among the advantages of Turkey in terms of competitiveness, its popularity particularly in terms of youth tourism, being the country best implementing the all-inclusive system, its rich natural, historical and cultural values, easy accessibility because of the geographical location, and versatile transport systems can be mentioned. On the other hand, the quick consumption of environmental resources, the concentration of tourism demand only in Istanbul, Antalya, Izmir and Mugla

provinces and particularly the inefficiency of promotion of alternative tourism opportunities can be mentioned as disadvantages.

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Islamic Tourism in Iran Islamic Tourism Development: Prospects and Challenges

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INTRODUCTION

Today tourism is more than an industry: it is a worldwide socioeconomic phenomenon. For many years it has functioned as an imperative contributor to making our world an integrated community, one that we call a global village. As a number of studies suggest, tourism-when appropriately applied and practiced-can unite, not divide (Jafari, 2003). As Scott and Jafari have examined one important reason for study of Muslim world is that the trajectory of tourism development may not follow a pattern identical to that found in other countries (Scott & Jafari, 2010).

No doubt religions form human behaviors, culture and customs; as evidence, different lifestyles and customs like eating and drinking. Religious beliefs influence behaviors in two ways: firstly, it can impact the behaviors based on the determined taboos and obligations; for instance, Muslims are not allowed to eat bacon or drink alcohol; and secondly, religions create the societies' norms, customs and culture which definitely influence the behavior (Poria et al., 2003). Within ever-changing global political landscapes, religion has retained a significant place as a social movement, with a complexity of structures and functions that pervades cultures and traditions. It is clear that whilst there is no single or simple definition of the complex concept of religion, it is a system of recognizable beliefs and practices that acknowledge the existence of a 'superhuman' power that enables people to both address and transcend the problems of life (Hinnells, 1984).

Religious Tourism can be defined as travel with the core motive of experiencing religious forms, or the products they induce, like art, culture, traditions and architecture. Tourism is traditionally closely linked to religion which has acted as a powerful motive for traveling. Religious tourism, also commonly referred to as faith tourism, is a type of tourism, where people travel individually or in groups

for pilgrimage, missionary, or leisure (fellowship) purposes. The world's largest form of mass religious tourism takes place at the annual Hajj pilgrimage in Mecca, Saudi Arabia. North American religious tourists comprise an estimated \$10 billion of the industry (Washingtonpost,2014)

Religion has an enormous influence in the daily life of Asians and the four major religions, Buddhism, Hinduism, Islam and Christianity all play a major role in South- East Asian society. Invariably, religious tourism in the region is closely linked to these faiths. Religions have inspired the construction of some of the most spectacular monuments in the region and all forms of art and architecture find expression in them. However, religious tourism has not been fully exploited due to the high sensitivity of the subject, the lack

In recent years, because of international economic sanctions and their impacts on Iran's oil and gas industry, Iranian government officials have begun to recognize the importance of the tourism sector segment for economic development. As such, with more emphasis on this industry, there has been a slight growth in both the number of tourist arrivals as well as international tourism receipts (Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012).

Islamic Tourism and Muslim Countries

There are approximately one and a half billion followers of Islam, making it one of the leading religions globally Islam religion may include 30% of the world population in the world by 2025 (Horn, 2000). The UNWTO estimates that 300 to 330 million tourists visit the world's key religious sites each year. The Asia and Pacific region is blessed not only with religious sites but also because it forms the hub of pilgrim centers, religious festivals, and other related cultural activities of a religious nature (UNWTO, 2011)

As Scott and Jafari have examined one important reason for study of Muslim world is that the trajectory of tourism development may not follow a pattern identical to that found in other countries (Scott & Jafari, 2010).

The importance of visiting sacred sites in Islamic religion (Ziyarat) also makes travel an integral part of the Muslim psyche. Ziyarat is of special significance for domestic travel especially in Indonesia. While elaborating on some of the principle Islamic tenets, attention is drawn to customs and practices such as food habits (Halal food), the preponderant role of modesty that can influence social mingling and dress codes etc. all of which influence religious travel and marketing of products to attract Islamic travelers (UNWTO, 2013).

The problems facing tourism and the development of a sustainable international tourism sector in the OIC countries are diverse as each country has its own tourism features, level of development and national development priorities and policies. In fact, if properly planned and managed, tourism sector could play a significant role in the socio-economic development of the OIC countries. It is for this

reason that tourism has recently assumed greater importance on the agenda of the OIC, where seven Islamic conferences of tourism ministers and a number of expert group meetings and seminars on tourism development were held during the period that elapsed since the 1st Islamic Conference of Tourism Ministers (ICTM), which was held in Isfahan, Islamic Republic of Iran, in October (UNWTO, 2013).

Islamic Tourism in Iran

Iran is located in the Middle East region (Figure 1) it has an area of 1,648,195 km² and a population of around 78 million. Although, the history knows Iran as one of the world's oldest civilizations, it is in eighteenth world's rank in terms of size, population and economy (World Bank, 2009; UNDP, 2010) and has a unique place in world tourism map, but it faces major challenges in tourism development.



Figure 1. Map of Iran

Source: <www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/middle_east_and_asia/iran_pol01.pdf>

Iran is an ancient country that has diverse cultures and a rich heritage, representing a recorded human history that goes back 10,000 years (O'Gorman, 2007). Iran's location at the intersection of major Asian, Middle Eastern and European countries and trade routes has shaped its diverse cultures and history. Iran's tourism assets belong to different periods of Persian Zoroastrianism (3000 BC),

Achaemenian (559 BC) and the Sassanian (224 AD) empires to post-Islamic dynasties of Samanid (864 AD), Ghaznavid (977 AD), and Safavid (1501 AD). The invasions of Alexander of Greece (330 BC), Arabs with their new Islamic religion (651 AD), and the Mongols (1256 AD) have all been instrumental in shaping Iranian culture and heritage. There are thousands of historical sites and monuments scattered across the country as potential tourism attractions, and while more than 12,000 of them are officially registered (Mashai, 2005).

Researching Iran's tourism development is a Herculean task. Its vastness, complicated structure, highly unique model of its political structure, lack of ready-available data as well as minimal attention to build data bases, and the lack of awareness of tourism per se. (Alipour & Heydari Chianeh, 2005) Tourism's contributes around 3% to total capital investment and as 2.39% of export ranks 143 out of 181 countries on this measure (WTTC 2011). Domestic tourism is one of the largest markets in the world with some 27 million tourists recorded in 2011 (Iran Daily 2012). International arrivals are comparatively low; however, since 2013, Iran has seen continuous growth of arrivals. Future development may be expected if political economy challenges and Middle East instability are reduced.

Heydari Chianeh used *glocalization* for consideration of Iran international tourism, since insistence on local criteria and obligation of foreign tourist to following these criteria causes to losing of markets and finally omission of Iran as a superior destination (Heydari Chianeh, 2003a).

Sociocultural Challenges

Iran's sociocultural context should be considered as a one of the most important factors in stagnation of tourism development in Iran. From cultural challenges of Iran tourism development it can be referred to cases such as religious inflexibility, lack of rational conceptual framework in society about tourism and its socioeconomic positive consequences and lack of conceptual expansion of travel and tourism as an excellent phenomenon and necessity of contemporary lifestyle. In Iran's traditional society mentioned cases probably are rooted in factors such as lack of appropriate image of tourism and tourists, cultural and religious contrasts and history of colonization that can be led to xenophobia even anti-tourism view (Heydari Chianeh & Rezatab, 2012)

Iran should change its functions in international approaches. The main reason of adoption of *glocalization* in tourism is rooted mainly in cultural and state ideological factors. While the results of the studies show that the international tourist arrivals choose their destinations by knowing and comprehension of the destination situations (Heydari Chianeh, 2003b). Vellas and Becherel believe contrary to other world regions tourism development in Middle East region is not rooted in recreation and ecotourism and most of the countries such as Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Iran are select for their cultural and historical attractions (Vellas & Becherel, 1995). Thus Iran will encounter significant challenges in tourism if new situations

are not specified aligned to world conditions.

However, despite this wealth of tourism resources, Iran has a very small fraction of this global industry, especially when compared with similar countries in the region. The Iranian Revolution in 1979, the Iran-Iraq war (1980-1988), and the ongoing tensions between Iran and the West (Bahae, et al 2014) have severely impacted its international tourism industry. Based on the most recent available data (UNWTO, 2012), Iran’s global share of tourism receipts and arrivals was negligible (0.2%). Even within the region, Iran’s tourism industry significantly underperforms compared to comparative countries of Turkey and Egypt and Malaysia.

Although economic, religious, social and cultural characteristics of most of the Muslim and developing countries are considered as main challenge in tourism development but there are different experiences in tourism development. Malaysia, Egypt and Turkey are examples of these countries that in spite of having commonalities they encounter with different relatively successful experiences. Table (1) depicts main economic and tourism characteristics of Iran, Turkey, Malaysia and Egypt.

Table 1. Economic and Tourism Characteristics of Iran and Selected Countries, 2010

	International Tourist Arrivals (Million)	International Tourism Receipts (US\$ Billions)	Population (Million)	Expenditure on Health and Education (% of GDP)	GDP Per capita (PPPUS\$)	Life Expectancy (years)
Iran	2.034	1.914	74.8	5.5	11558	73.0
Turkey	27	20.807	73.6	6.4	13668	74
Egypt	14.051	12.528	82.5	5.0	5673	73.2
Malaysia	24.577	17.819	28.9	4.8	14012	74.2
World	940	919	6974	6.0	10715	69.2

Sources: UNWTO, 2010 and UNDP, 2010

According to Table 1 in spite of having several economic and social and cultural commonalities of Turkey, Malaysia and Egypt with Iran, they experience different trend in tourism that indicates different political economy approach in tourism development.

Religious Tourism Attractions in Iran

Tourism policy and planning in Iran is both a political and social issue and there is a lack of private sector development. Instead of aligning the domestic norms with the international ones, the country seeks to adjust world tourism to its domestic conditions. Hence, the term “*glocalization*” has been used to describe the condi-

tions of the international tourism in Iran (Heydari Chianeh, 2003a). Insistence and emphasis on the international tourists' observance of local religious norms has led to a decline in inbound tourism.

The majority of incoming tourists in Iran are religious tourists visiting the notable Shia shrines of Imam Reza in Mashhad city and his sister Fatima in Qom city. As for the only pilgrimage in Iran is estimated that from 1978 to 2011 there was a sharp increase from 6.29 million as of pilgrims in 1978, it has come to 27 million pilgrims in 2011. Nowadays there are more than 1100 Shiite shrines, but not all have the same importance and consequently not all of these sanctuaries accommodate an equal number of faithful. The most visited shrines in Iran - Ziyarat - housing the tombs of the eighth Imam in Mashhad and his sister Fatima in Qom, the other shrines - Imamzade - which commemorate descendants of Imam - they do not receive many pilgrims as it is of minor importance in terms of faith, whether they are located in the desert or in very remote places and their location discourages the pilgrimage (Bizzarri & Lopez, 2014).

Some of the most important of Iran's Islamic and religious attractions are following:

Shrine of Imam Reza in Mashhad

Mashhad metropolis is the holiest destination in Iran, its name literally means 'place of burial of a martyr. Over 12 million pilgrims annually visit the shrine of the eighth Shiite imam and direct descendent of the prophet Mohammed, Imam Reza, who died in AD 817, and these numbers have increased with the conflicts in Iraq (Cochrane, 2004).

Shrine of Fatema Mæ'sume in Qom

City of Qom is considered holy by Shi'a Islam, as it is the site of the shrine of Fatema Mæ'sume, sister of Imam Reza. Qom is the one of largest center for Shi'a scholarship in the world.

Shrine of Shah-e Cheragh in Shiraz

A place of pilgrimage but also worth visiting for its unbelievable mirror work, it contains the tomb of the brother of Imam Reza. In 1958 its dome was reconstructed. This shrine is one of the most famed places of pilgrimage for the followers of the Shiite sect in Iran and in the world.

Iranian non-Shia religions such as Sunni, Zoroastrians, Armenians and Jews that, have shrines & religious holly places some of them are following

Heighoogh e Nabbi' Tomb in Toyserkan

The tomb is located near the city of Towiserkan and is related to the 7th century AH. Habaqooq Nabi was one of the prophets of the Israelites, the keeper of Solomon's Temple in Jerusalem.

Dāniel Tomb in Susa

The Tomb of Daniel is the traditional burial place of the biblical prophet Daniel. Various locations have been named for the site, but the tomb in Susa, Iran, is the most widely accepted, it being first mentioned by Benjamin of Tudela, who visited Asia between 1160 and 1163.

Church of Qare Kelisa in Maku

This church is located in the village of Qare Kelisa near Maku city. It is the tomb of the sacred Thaddeus. According to historical records of the Sassanian period, some of the Armenians were the followers of Prophet Zoroaster, whereas some were sun worshipers. In the year 43 AD two men by the name of Tatavoo and Batholemus preached on Christianity in the vicinity of Azarbayjan, thereby gaining number of followers (3500 people) including the daughter of the monarch of the time. In order to stop the advancement of Christianity, the Armenian ruler ordered for their massacre in the year 66 AD. It is said that their bodies were buried in the vicinity of this church.

Armenian Monastic Ensembles of Iran

It consists of three monastic ensembles of the Armenian Christian faith: St Thaddeus and St Stepanos and the Chapel of Dzordzor. These edifices - the oldest of which, St Thaddeus, dates back to the 7th century - are examples of outstanding universal value of the Armenian architectural and decorative traditions. They bear testimony to very important interchanges with the other regional cultures, in particular the Byzantine, Orthodox and Persian. Situated on the south-eastern fringe of the main zone of the Armenian cultural space, the monasteries constituted a major center for the dissemination of that culture in the region. They are the last regional remains of this culture that are still in a satisfactory state of integrity and authenticity. Furthermore, as places of pilgrimage, the monastic ensembles are living witnesses of Armenian religious traditions through the centuries.

CONCLUSION

At the moment Iranian religious tourism is mainly domestic but the authorities launched a 20 Year Outlook Plan in 2005 with the aim of reaching 20 million visitors in two decades. The population is mainly Muslim (Shia), but there are small communities of Christians and Zoroastrians as well as Jews. Iran has a longer history of tourism planning that is characterized by a high degree of state intervention. In fact Iran has a great ancient tradition but it is as yet little known in the

West and there is much events and religious buildings are fundamental tourist attractions for devout followers of the particular systems of beliefs as well as for those with a casual interest.

To visit Iran is a unique experience, the experience of being in the cradle of a civilization and culture that has had and continues to have its impact on the world for more than 2500 years of written history – antiquity versus modernization. Iran is a highly diverse country from every point of view, not least in topography and climate. The country has many specific features of its own in its landscapes, caves, inhabitants, arts and customs.

The government has said that it desires to earn revenue only from halal sources and not to depend on the sale of any Haram sources. According to officials, this was ‘part of an educational programmer to ensure tourists respected the local tradition and culture necessary in the interests of Muslims’ and ‘required of Islam’.

Increasing centralization and dependence of national economy on oil rents, growth of government body and informal economy, lack of social pluralism, extension of state ideology, and presenting an unreal image about Iran are negative impacts of current political economy that based on Iranian socio-religious texture. Disruption in the sociocultural practically religious functions in Iran has been led to shaping serious barriers against Iran tourism development. But beyond apparent problems there are basic difficulties in Iran sociocultural structure mostly rooted in Iranian socio-religious texture. It should be pointed that the government is a part of society and subsystem of total system of each society so governmental policies can be raised as society mirror. Jafari believes that tourism is as a subsystem of whole society affected by political and socio-economic trend in national and international levels (Jafari, 1989). Thus change in whole society approaches towards tourism as a world dynamic phenomenon is a necessary prerequisite for governmental policies approach changes.

Present research believes the prerequisite of truism development in Iran is changing sociocultural practically religious approach the results of this shift could indicate its positive effects in different economic, political and cultural aspects in tourism and in the meantime, religious tourism is an opportunity for tourism development in Iran.

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Indoor Camping – a Temporary Accommodation Model

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INTRODUCTION

The problem addressed in this paper is where to accommodate tourists in peak demand periods such as festivals and events in order to be located close to the venue. In case of such massive events when the destination accommodation capacity is insufficient or in case of heavy rain even during the spring or summer months when tent camping is practically impossible, the easiest solution is to bring into use for tourism other, already existing, buildings, such as unused schools, factories etc. This simple and applicable concept, in line with sustainability, called indoor camping, represents an innovative solution for accommodating participants of events and other tourists in extraordinary situations.

The purpose of this paper is to propose a model of sustainable tourism accommodation that would host participants of events close to the venue. The development of the concept into a feasible model uses comparison to similar, low-cost accommodation: camping and hostels.

This paper is composed of four parts. The literature review deals with event tourism, sustainability and innovation in tourism. The second part presents the homonymous model. A comparison to hostel and traditional camping as a framework to defining an indoor camping unit is given in the research part, while the fourth is the conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Event Tourism

Event tourism is not usually recognised as a separate professional field; it is mostly seen as an application of, or specialty, within national tourism offices (NTOs) and destination marketing/management organisations (DMOs) (Getz, 2008). In scientific literature, events can be classified into a few categories: mega events, hallmark events, special events and specific types of events (Getz, 2005). It is also possible to classify events on the basis of their place of attachment and the degree to which they are associated with, or institutionalised, in a particular community or destination; according to that, mega events are typically global in their orientation and require a competitive bid to 'win' them as a one-time event for a particular place; hallmark events cannot exist independently of their host community and local or regional events are by definition rooted in one place and appeal mostly to residents (Getz, 2008). Respectively, there is a differentiation of events according to form and content: sport events, tourism industry of business travel (MICE segment of tourism: meetings, incentives, congresses and events) and festivals (Van der Wagen, 2008).

Special event research emerged as an area of tourism management in the mid-1970s (Hede, 2007) and continued to grow in the next decade. The pick research year of its topic was the 1990s while in the 2000s the literature on events was abundant but, more importantly, it gave recognition to distinct specialisations.

Sustainable Tourism Development

Sustainable development is about ensuring that humanity "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (UN, 1987).

In the past, authors argued that sustainability is an ambiguous, vague, and even mythical idea and that the concept of sustainable development is very unclear (Hunter, 1997; Sharpley, 2000).

The complexity of tourism sustainability makes it difficult to develop a method for measuring it. To date many indicator systems have been proposed, but some of them have serious limitations regarding practical implications, because they allow only partial comparisons, while others are scientifically relevant but too complex to be operational, or are the result of political consensus, liable to generate conflicts of interests (Swarbrooke, 1999).

In the last decade, environmental awareness has increased and thus using environmental management tools is not rare anymore. Sustainable tourists can reduce the impact of tourism in many ways by informing themselves of the culture, politics and economy of local communities visited, by respecting and acting to conserve cultural heritage and traditional values, local traditions, customs and by

understanding and behaving tolerantly towards local culture. The tourist should support the integrity of local cultures and support local economies by purchasing local goods. The use of the least possible amount of non-renewable resources and conserving resources by interacting with businesses that are environmentally conscious supports sustainable behaviour (Swarbrooke, 1999).

Innovation in Tourism

Several authors claim that innovation and creativity mean and represent different things since creativity covers new products and new services, production of new ideas, new processes, new brands, new techniques, new approaches and inventions, whereas innovation covers the application of new and creative ideas as well as the implications of discoveries (Pirnar, Bulut & Eris, 2012).

As a process of creation of a new value chain in tourism, innovation must be profitable for the economic subject and must increase the tourist product value, as well as tourist's experience, creating new products and services (Čavlek, Matečić & Ferjanic-Hodak, 2010). Authors emphasise that innovations in tourism can be divided into several categories: process innovations, which relate to the changes in business processes, managerial, organisational innovations, then administrative innovations, directed towards administration techniques. Logistic innovations are also recognised, which improve commercial links, as well as institutional innovations, related to regulatory improvements, which affect the overall business activities. This also concerns information systems of all stakeholders (Institut za turizam Zagreb, 2014).

Nordin classifies and defines innovations according to Abernathy and Clark's model, in which he recognises four main types of innovation in tourism (Nordin, 2013, p.23.). They relate to regular innovations that promote new investments that raise productivity, niche innovations that are focused on new market alliances and combinations of old products in a new way. The third type consists of revolutionary innovations which present diffusion of new technologies and new methods. The fourth type is called architectural innovations and is related to the creation of new events and attractions that demand a reorganisation, redefining the physical or legal infrastructure and creation of centres of excellence that treat and disseminate new operational research-based knowledge.

Indoor Camping Model

In an indoor camping guests sleep in their own sleeping bags on the floor in buildings of different community purposes (such as social clubs, storehouses, etc.) or in vacant buildings minimally adopted for tourism. Housekeeping is definitely a must, while front office services can be offered on demand (available upon call). Food and beverage services are not an integral part of the product, they however may be organised in partnership of other local providers.

The model is visually represented in Figure 1.

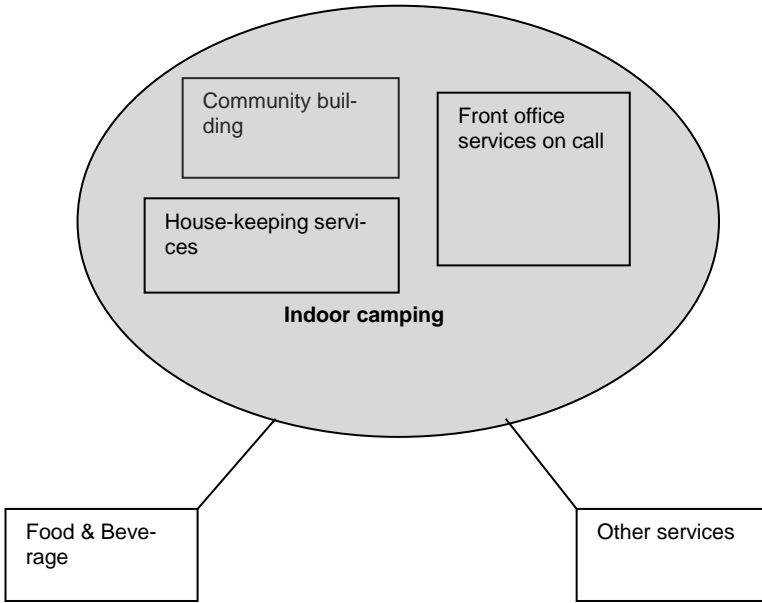


Figure 1. Indoor Camping as a Tourism Product

Source: Authors' contribution

Parallel with the introduction of a new accommodation model, its typical accommodation unit, named indoor camping place will be also presented in the next chapter.

METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Indoor camping combines the elements of camping and a hostel without F&B services. To further explain the model, an indoor camping along with its representative – the indoor camping place place is compared to a campground and more precisely to its unit “camping place”¹ and a hostel with a hostel room being its represented.

¹ A part of a camping ground intended for tent camping without clear delimitation like among camping plots.

Table 1. Comparison of Camping Places, Hostels and Indoor Camping

	Indoor camping (place)	Hostel (room)	Camping place
Location	Indoor	Indoor	Outdoor
Predefined space for sleeping	Yes	Yes, rooms	Yes (marked at least in groups) ²
Identification number	Not necessarily	Yes	Not necessarily
Common bathroom	Yes	Mostly yes	Mostly yes
Privacy (possibility of booking own space without mixing with others)	No, there are no physical boundaries	Yes	No (camping places have no boundaries)
Multifunctional use of real estate	Yes	No	Yes, limited (e.g. walking paths off season)
Business time dimension	Temporary	Permanent	Permanent
Beds provided	No	Yes	No
Sleeping bag / bed linen provided	No	Depends	No
Cooking possibilities provided	No	Depends, in communal areas	No
Price	Low	Mid-low	The lowest
Communal areas	No	Depends	No
Construction works outdoor – building for tourism purposes	No	Depends (re-adaptation of an existing building is an option)	Yes
Construction works interior for tourism purposes	Minimal (mainly toilets)	Yes	Minimal to modest (outdoor mainly)

Source: Authors' contribution

The key difference of indoor camping and other models is the multifunctionality of the property as it is used only temporary for tourism purposes. Its main advantages for tourists are the price and excellent location (close to the event venue). An indoor camping is a no-frills solid tourism facility that offers common sleeping places divided by them just by lines draw on floor and common sanitarities - no beds, no linen, no F&B services. Its main disadvantages are lack of privacy and inexistent comfort for a solid tourism accommodation.

CONCLUSION

The contribution of this paper is in the proposal of a new accommodation model and its accommodation unit (indoor camping place). The temporary character of business is what makes this concept unique, in comparison to other sustainable

² Although in practice it all depends on how much actually somebody occupies.

accommodation also using vacant buildings, as it allows multifunctional use of the property for other community purposes. Besides investments in toilets and electricity, existing buildings are not modified because of their new tourism function, which makes this concept even more sustainable than classic sustainable accommodation in solid facilities like paradors or widespread hotels. The impact to the environment of indoor camping can be compared to camping sites, as a kind of accommodation that requires minimal construction works.

This low cost solution fits the needs of students, young generations and all those event participants travelling on a budget, but also represents a different option for adventure seeking guests who could experience sleeping in a castle, in a fortress, in a stall etc. The limited time offer experience to sleep in buildings of special art or historic value raises the interest related to an event and adds value to the event itself if it is thematic (e.g. medieval festival with accommodation in an original castle). Indoor camping blurs the boundaries between solid accommodation and campgrounds, tourists' and residents' amenities and opens up new possibilities for sustainable tourism. Future research should investigate the attitudes of interested stakeholders regarding the introduction of such an accommodation model.

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Food Safety Knowledge of Kitchen Staff in Hotels: A Comparative study between Mardin and Istanbul

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the development of outdoor eating habits, businesses are more careful about food hygiene in order to have a good image in the market. They train their staff about food hygiene and set out rules for transforming this training to the application. It has been reported that food-borne illnesses are caused by unsuitable or improper applications at the processing, production or cooking stages of food (Clayton et.al, 2002; WHO, 2014), and poor personnel hygiene of staff who contact with food is one of the leading factors in the development of food borne illnesses (Griffith et.al, 2000; Collins, 2001; Michaels, 2002; Cogan et.al 2002; CDC, 2006; WHO, 2008; FDA, 2014). Lacking personal hygiene amongst food handlers is one of the most commonly reported practices contributing to food-borne illness and poor hand and surface hygiene is also a significant contributory factor (Collins, 2001; Cogan et al., 2002).

World Health Organization (2008), has stated that if food handlers do not consider the importance of hand washing, hands are the source for spread of harmful microorganisms. It was suggested that most of the food poisoning cases are caused

by poor cleaning practices and poor hygiene at food preparation stages (Griffith et.al, 2000). It was reported that the awareness of the food processors for food hygiene and implementation of the hygiene rules protects the consumers from food-borne illnesses and reduces cross contamination (Baş et.al, 2006)

Although there are several studies to determine the level of knowledge of the staff working at food establishment in Turkey and in other countries (Griffith et. al, 2000; Ayçicek et.al, 2004; Fidan & Ağaoğlu, 2004; Baş et.al, 2006; Annor & Baiden, 2011; Sharif et.al, 2013;), no study was performed in this subject in Mardin and as a comparative study between Mardin and Istanbul

The general term “poor personal hygiene” as used by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention includes many factors relating to employees, such as failure to properly wash hands, failure to wear hair nets, chewing tobacco, and wearing dirty work clothes. In a national survey of approximately 1,000 U.S. food establishments, the percentage of people with poor personal hygiene practices varied across facility types such as institutional food service facilities (nursing homes, 20.2%; hospitals, 17.5%; elementary schools, 16.3%), restaurants (full service, 41.7%; fast food, 31.2%), and retail food establishments (meat and poultry departments and markets, 21.4%; produce departments and markets, 22.3%; seafood departments and markets, 16.8%) (FDA, 2000).

It is indicated that poor hygiene of the employee that are in contact with the food is one of the most common and in important factors in the development of food -borne diseases (Cogan et.al 2002, Collins, 2001) and the hands of staff are a potential tool in the transfer of bacteria that causes food poisoning (Setiabudhi et.al, 1997; Gorman et.al, 2002; Dharod et.al, 2009).

Hand hygiene is quite critical during in the process of preparation of any food at home, food processing and servicing stages and appropriate hand washing and drying is an effective and proved hand cleaning method (Michaels, 2002).

Employees should be trained on how to handle food as well as on sanitation and hand washing techniques, as bacteria from cuts, infections, boils or other communicable diseases may cause food poisoning (Richard, 2008). Paulson (1992) and Raspor (2008) reported the importance of management training of all employees in the use of effective hand washing procedures, and that the safety of food chain supply can easily be broken proper enforcement these procedures. When retail food personnel use gloves to prepare and serve food, they must be trained to realize that microorganisms adhere to the surfaces of gloves and thus gloves can be sources of cross-contamination just as much as unwashed hands. Disposable gloves must be changed frequently (Synder, 1997).

Although there are many studies for identifying knowledge of personnel's working at hotels, restaurants, nursing homes that provide food serving services in Turkey and in other many countries, on food safety and hygiene , any similar study in Mardin city and also a comparative study that has been carried out in Mardin and Istanbul was not found. The aim of this study is to evaluate the

knowledge level of food hygiene among employees working in kitchen at touristic certified enterprises in Mardin and Istanbul provinces. The results achieved are important from points of food hygiene and development of tourism and positive image and therefore the results achieved and data collected will be shared with decision makers and related bodies in order to be used in the development of such type of studies.

METHODOLOGY

A structured questionnaire was designed to conduct the survey. The language of questionnaire was translated to the respective first language of the participants (Turkish) and then translated back to English for publication.

The questionnaire that is prepared for evaluation the perception of employees working at food and beverage departments of hotels on hygiene that has been prepared by Buyruk and Şahin (2002) has been used.

Data collection tool is consisting of two sections. The first section Socio-demographic profile of participants it includes statements to measure the individual characteristics , such as gender, age, level of education, graduated education field, duty in the working place, period of service on the job, health control and training on food safety. While the second section for measuring, knowledge of food and personal hygiene as well as kitchen tools and equipment The questions to evaluate the knowledge are designed as 22 statements on food hygiene, 14 statements on personal hygiene and 11 statements on tools and equipment hygiene, totally 3 variables and 47 statements. Out of 200 questionnaire forms sent to hotels in Istanbul and Mardin, 140 were completed. This represents a response rate of 70% percent. Data collection tool has been used on kitchen staff in İstanbul and Mardin hotels between September- December months of the year 2014.

Statistical analysis

Data collected from the study analyzed with SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) package program. With the assumption that there could be a relation between the knowledge level of kitchen personnel on food safety and some characteristics (age, education, gender, province, food safety training) Chi square (X^2) test has been made. In the reliability analysis alpha coefficients of all variables are investigated. While Cronbach Alpha coefficients at dimensions found in the data collection tool changes between 0,677 and 0,807; the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of whole is identified as 0,841. These results show that the data collection tool used in this research can be highly reliable.

RESULTS

Results in Table (1) indicated that (82.1 %) of the sample was participating group working in Istanbul and (17,9%) working in Mardin hotels. Most of the participants (60 %) were male with age (between 26-45 years). It observed that the

highest level of education achieved was high school (41.4 %). The study of Kibret and Abera (2012) revealed that only 41.7% of the food handlers had completed a minimum of secondary school education. Only 21.8% of all food handlers in the study received food hygiene training and 10.5% of the food handlers acquire knowledge of food preparation through formal training whereas 89.5% of them acquired through observation indicating the poor food handling practices and poor sanitary conditions of food service establishments in Ethiopia.

Most of the staff kitchen participants (87.9 %) stated that while being employed they passed through health control. The rates of people who indicate that health controls are done regularly was (87.9%) while the rate of controls in the starting of employment and rate of carrying out regular controls was (85.75%), it is concluded that the rate of regular controls was (83,6%). Also when we asked about status of taking training on food safety high rate of the total sample (79%) (More than half of the sample in Istanbul (58.3%) and nearly half of the sample in Mardin (48%) indicated that they had food safety training. In the study conducted by da Cunha et al. (2014) 68.3% of the participants had participated in at least one food safety training session and the average percentage of their correct answers on the knowledge questionnaire was 64%. These authors showed that training based on theoretical aspects is not related to the attitudes, self-reported practices and observed practices of food handlers from different food services in Santos, Brazil. On the other hand, in the study conducted in Canada by McIntyre et al. (2013), knowledge of food safety were significantly higher in trained compared with untrained food handlers, supervisory status and years of experience improved knowledge in both trained and untrained respondents, but increasing age was important in only the untrained employees and no differences were noted between sex (McIntyre et al., 2013). Food handlers' place of employment and level of education were also associated with knowledge (McIntyre et al., 2013; Pichler et al, 2014).

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile of participants

Province	Frequency	%	Gender	Frequency	%
Istanbul	115	82,1	Female	56	40,0
Mardin	25	17,9	Male	84	60,0
Total	140	100.0	Total	140	100.0
Age	Frequency	%	Level of education	Frequency	%
18and under	20	14,3	Literate	7	5,0
19-25	40	28,6	Primary school	15	10,7
26-35	39	27,9	Secondary School	29	20,7
36-40	26	18,6	High school	58	41,4
41-45	9	6,4	Higher education	31	22,1
46and upper	6	4,3			
Health control	Frequency	%	Control carried out	Frequency	%
Yes	123	87,9	Portor	120	85,7
No	17	12,1	Lung	105	75,0
			Parasite	88	62,9
Regular control	Frequency	%	Food safety training	Frequency	%

Yes	117	83,6	Yes		
No	23	16,4	Istabil	67	58.3
			Mardin	12	48
			No		
			Istanbul	48	41.7
			Mardin	13	52

Findings on kitchen staff participants knowledge of food hygiene

As can be seen in Table (2) percentage levels of answering the statements that are used to measure the food hygiene knowledge indicated that most of participants had adequate and similar level knowledge of food hygiene in most aspects as table (2) indicates, almost participants (85.2%) from Istanbul and (92%) from Mardin they knew that ‘Food hygiene is, food is free from any type of disease elements’.and (87%),(96%) of participants from Istanbul and Mardin respectively they had correct answer in regard to the statement "There is no inconvenience whether trash and food are found together in the kitchen" Another finding (93%),(84%) from Istanbul and Mardin respectively knew well that Personnel responsible to serve food can not touch food by hand. Also they had information with nearly percentage by the same arrangement (87%) , (88%) for the statment "Preparations of raw and cooked food should be carried out separate benches" and (90,4%),(92%) for "Occurrence of food poisoning damnifies the reputation of the hotel".These findings are paralleled by a study conducted in hospitals by Tokuc et al. in 2009 in their study, staff working in the food and beverage departments of hospitals had the same knowledge as those in this study.

Other findings of our study are that the correct answer rates generally were high (80% and more) in general questions about the food hygiene it also seen in the high answer rate (91.3%) in Istanbul and (96%) Mardin for the statement “All tools and materials should be left air dry after washing, rinsing and sanitization” as it shows in Fig. 1

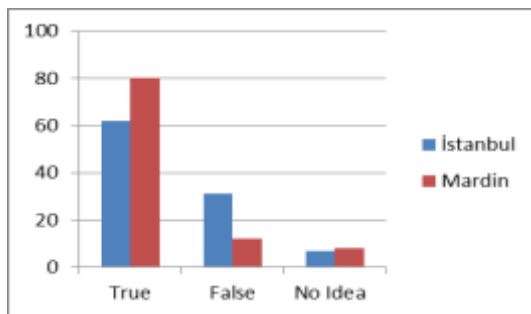


Figure1. Response rates for tools and materials and sanitization

On the other hand the correct answer rates were changing to be different and lowering between participants in the questions need more details technical knowledge which relating to the temperature of food storage and serving and also critical temperature for food poisoning bacteria. It can be seen in the figure (2) the correct answer (67%), (80%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively for the statement “There is no inconvenience that the cooked food to wait more than 2 hours before serving”

In another finding on the subject of food hygiene nearly half of participants in Istanbul and Mardin (55.7%, 56%) respectively knew the correct answer of the statement "Frozen food must be defrosted in a warm environment (in the kitchen, on radiator etc)" (Fig. 3). Also it showed that in the questions (15.16) related to the usage of cheese produced from unpasteurized milk and eggs not washed before putting in refrigerator the rate of correct answers were (61.7%, 60%) ,(61.7%,48%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively (Fig4,5)



Figure 2. Response rates for serving hygiene

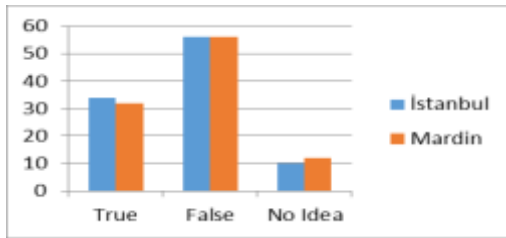


Figure 3. Response rates for Frozen food

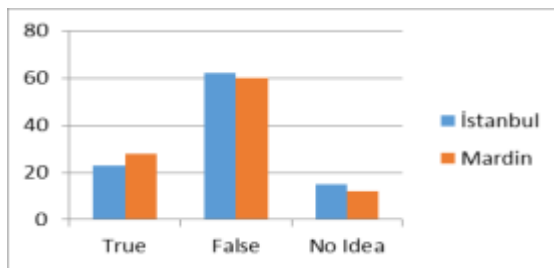


Figure 4. Response rates for Fresh cheese

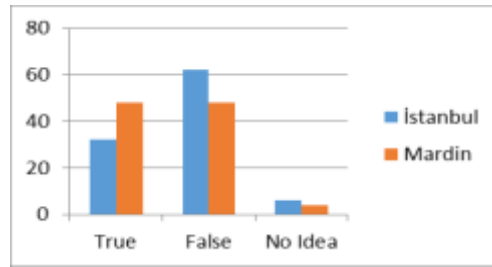


Figure 5. Response rates for Eggs should be washed before putting into refrigerator

Table 2. (%) Levels of kitchen staff participants knowledge of food hygiene

Statements	Istanbul			Mardin		
	True	False	No Idea	True	False	No Idea
1 Food hygiene is, food is free from any type of disease elements.	85,2	7,0	7,8	92	4	4
2 There is no inconvenience whether trash and food are found together in the kitchen.	9,6	87,8	2,6	4	96	0
3 Personnel responsible to serve food can touch food by hand.	5,2	93,0	1,7	16	84	0
4 Preparations of raw and cooked food should be carried out separate benches.	87,0	9,6	3,5	88	8	4
5 Occurrence of food poisoning damages the reputation of the hotel.	90,4	5,2	4,3	92	8	0
6 Hot food should be kept at 60 C or over until they are served.	67,0	17,4	15,7	80	12	8
7 There is no inconvenience to keep foods with milk or egg and meat and meat products at high temperatures.	11,3	76,5	12,2	8	72	20
8 Attention should be given to the meat have stamp on it while buying.	90,4	6,1	3,5	96	4	0
9 In the kitchen clean and healthy water whose laboratory tests are made, should be used.	88,7	7,0	4,3	100	0	0
10 Hot food should be cooled and stored in small and shallow vessels.	65,2	14,8	20,0	80	4	16
11 There is no inconvenience that the cooked food to wait more than 2 hours before serving.	27,0	60,9	12,2	52	40	8
12 After foods are defrosted, they can be refrosted.	12,2	80,9	7,0	28	72	0
13 Taste control of food should be made by a separate spoon.	89,6	7,0	3,5	84	12	4
14 Frozen food must be defrosted in a warm environment (in the kitchen, on the radiator etc.)	33,9	55,7	10,4	32	56	12
15 Fresh cheese made of unpasteurized milk could be used.	23,5	61,7	14,8	28	60	12
16 Eggs should be washed before putting into refrigerator.	32,2	61,7	6,1	48	48	4

17	Bacteria causing food poisoning can be easily reproduced between 5 C and 63 C.	70,4	8,7	20,9	68	8	24
18	In order to reheat the leftover food , the internal temperature of the food should reach to at least 75 C.	67,8	13,0	19,1	44	28	28
19	I take out the molded part of the molded food and use the rest.	18,3	70,4	11,3	40	52	8
20	The food consumed cold should be kept over 8 C, at most 4 hours.	59,1	23,5	17,4	44	24	32
21	The bacteria causing food poisoning cannot be understood by smell, taste and sight.	69,6	22,6	7,8	76	12	12
47	Separate chopping boards are required for meat and vegetables.	91,3	4,3	4,3	96	4	0

Findings on kitchen staff participants' knowledge of personal hygiene

One of the basic personal hygiene knowledge is washing hands ,The results in Table (3) are shown that (74.8%) in İstanbul and (84%) in Mardin had correct answer for the statment "hands should be washed for at least 20 secons" and we were expecting that recieving more correct answer rate where Tokuç et al. (2009) found in their study 93.2% of the food staff washed their hands after using the toilet.

Another finding (69.6%) of the paticipants in Istanbul indicated that "Bacteria are contaminates mostly by respiratory means" compared with (84%) in Mardin.

However (85.2%, 88%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively stated that "Hands are the places where the microorganisms in the body are most densely found" and by the same arrangement (78.8%, 80%) stated that "Bacteria spread though open wounds and digestive system" also (85.5%, 92%) "Personnel should have health screen in every 6 months time"(88.7%,96%) "Personnel should use clean, ironed cap and bonnet" (85.2%) in Istanbul and all participants in Mardin (100%) "There should be showers and bathrooms in sufficient capacity for the personnel"

Nearly most of the sample (90.4%,96%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively stated that "In cases of flu, influenza, diarrhea etc., personnel should not be employed or taken to support services".

One of our finding in Istanbul and Mardin had correct answer with same rates (83.5%,92%) respectively for the following two statements "Hygienic cleaning of hands means that by using warm water and soap, cleaning" the hands from the level of wrists, rubbing the interspaces between fingers, brushing the nails " and "Personnel should pay attention to hygiene in the entrance and exit of premises.

The results indicated also that (78.3%) in Istanbul and (88%) in Mardin said "There is no inconvienece for the personnel to smoke in the kitchen"

In addition (81.7%,92%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively they know"After washing the hands use of paper towels to dry is a right procedure"

Most of sample (91.3%) in Istanbul and all sample in Mardin (100%) stated that"The cuts and wounds in the hands of the personnel should be covered"

From previous results we can show that the correct answers rate in the personal hygiene part is changing between (69.6% and 91.3%) in Istanbul, and changing from (80% to 100%) in Mardin and we can say that may be the change in the rate has returned to most of the sample get training on food safety this view is consistent with Ehiri et al. (1997) as they determined that 74% of the trainees receiving hygiene education had correct information relating to bacterial contamination resulting from coughing or sneezing.

Table 3. (%) Levels of kitchen staff participants knowledge of personal hygiene

Statements	Istanbul			Mardin		
	True	False	No Idea	True	False	No Idea
1 Food hygiene is, food is free from any type of disease elements.	85,2	7,0	7,8	92	4	4
2 There is no inconvenience whether trash and food are found together in the kitchen.	9,6	87,8	2,6	4	96	0
3 Personnel responsible to serve food can touch food by hand.	5,2	93,0	1,7	16	84	0
4 Preparations of raw and cooked food should be carried out separate benches.	87,0	9,6	3,5	88	8	4
5 Occurrence of food poisoning damns the reputation of the hotel.	90,4	5,2	4,3	92	8	0
6 Hot food should be kept at 60 C or over until they are served.	67,0	17,4	15,7	80	12	8
7 There is no inconvenience to keep foods with milk or egg and meat products at high temperatures.	11,3	76,5	12,2	8	72	20
8 Attention should be given to the meat have stamp on it while buying.	90,4	6,1	3,5	96	4	0
9 In the kitchen clean and healthy water whose laboratory tests are made, should be used.	88,7	7,0	4,3	100	0	0
10 Hot food should be cooled and stored in small and shallow vessels.	65,2	14,8	20,0	80	4	16
11 There is no inconvenience that the cooked food to wait more than 2 hours before serving.	27,0	60,9	12,2	52	40	8
12 After foods are defrosted, they can be refrosted.	12,2	80,9	7,0	28	72	0
13 Taste control of food should be made by a separate spoon.	89,6	7,0	3,5	84	12	4
14 Frozen food must be defrosted in a warm environment (in the kitchen, on the radiator etc.)	33,9	55,7	10,4	32	56	12
15 Fresh cheese made of unpasteurized milk could be used.	23,5	61,7	14,8	28	60	12
16 Eggs should be washed before putting into refrigerator.	32,2	61,7	6,1	48	48	4
17 Bacteria causing food poisoning can be easily reproduced between 5 C and 63 C.	70,4	8,7	20,9	68	8	24
18 In order to reheat the leftover food, the internal temperature of the food should reach to at least 75 C.	67,8	13,0	19,1	44	28	28
19 I take out the molded part of the molded food and	18,3	70,4	11,3	40	52	8

	use the rest						
20	The food consumed cold should be kept over 8 C, at most 4 hours.	59,1	23,5	17,4	44	24	32
21	The bacteria causing food poisoning cannot be understood by smell, taste and sight.	69,6	22,6	7,8	76	12	12
47	Separate chopping boards are required for meat and vegetables.	91,3	4,3	4,3	96	4	0

Findings on kitchen staff participants' knowledge of tools hygiene

Table (4) indicated that (61.7%) in Istanbul and (80%) in Mardin had the correct answer of the statement "All tools and materials should be left air dry after washing, rinsing and sanitization". Whereas only (67%) in Istanbul and (52%) in Mardini know that "There is no inconvenience for the entrance of sunlight to the storage or cellar" and also (75.7%,60%) in Istanbul and Mardin respectively stated that "There is no inconvenience to hold the mouth part of fork, knife sets".

Nearly the same finding of lower correct answer rates in Mardin where the percentages were (72.2%,56%) for the statement "It is not required to wash and to dry the cleaning cloths continuously" in Istanbul and Mardin respectively. On the other hand the highest were showed for the last 2 questions "During washing of dishes, care should be taken at the process of washing, rinsing and sterilization" and "Wastes should be removed from the kitchen by grinding and putting into waste bins" where the percentages were (87.8%,96%) and (92.2%,96%) respectively in Istanbul and Mardin.

When we look at the previous rates of correct answers in Table (4), we can see that the correct answers rate for tools hygiene part is a little bit less than personal hygiene part specially in Mardin more than Istanbul in some aspects.

Table 4. (%) Levels of kitchen staff participants knowledge of tools hygiene

Statements	Istanbul			Mardin		
	True	False	No Idea	True	False	No Idea
1 Food hygiene is, food is free from any type of disease elements.	85,2	7,0	7,8	92	4	4
2 There is no inconvenience whether trash and food are found together in the kitchen.	9,6	87,8	2,6	4	96	0
3 Personnel responsible to serve food can touch food by hand.	5,2	93,0	1,7	16	84	0
4 Preparations of raw and cooked food should be carried out separate benches.	87,0	9,6	3,5	88	8	4
5 Occurrence of food poisoning damnifies the reputation of the hotel.	90,4	5,2	4,3	92	8	0
6 Hot food should be kept at 60 C or over until they are served.	67,0	17,4	15,7	80	12	8

7	There is no inconvenience to keep foods with milk or egg and meat and meat products at high temperatures.	11,3	76,5	12,2	8	72	20
8	Attention should be given to the meat have stamp on it while buying.	90,4	6,1	3,5	96	4	0
9	In the kitchen clean and healthy water whose laboratory tests are made, should be used.	88,7	7,0	4,3	100	0	0
10	Hot food should be cooled and stored in small and shallow vessels.	65,2	14,8	20,0	80	4	16
11	There is no inconvenience that the cooked food to wait more than 2 hours before serving.	27,0	60,9	12,2	52	40	8
12	After foods are defrosted, they can be refrosted.	12,2	80,9	7,0	28	72	0
13	Taste control of food should be made by a separate spoon.	89,6	7,0	3,5	84	12	4
14	Frozen food must be defrosted in a warm environment (in the kitchen, on the radiator etc.)	33,9	55,7	10,4	32	56	12
15	Fresh cheese made of unpasteurized milk could be used.	23,5	61,7	14,8	28	60	12
16	Eggs should be washed before putting into refrigerator.	32,2	61,7	6,1	48	48	4
17	Bacteria causing food poisoning can be easily reproduced between 5 C and 63 C.	70,4	8,7	20,9	68	8	24
18	In order to reheat the leftover food , the internal temperature of the food should reach to at least 75 C.	67,8	13,0	19,1	44	28	28
19	I take out the molded part of the molded food and use the rest.	18,3	70,4	11,3	40	52	8
20	The food consumed cold should be kept over 8 C, at most 4 hours.	59,1	23,5	17,4	44	24	32
21	The bacteria causing food poisoning cannot be understood by smell, taste and sight.	69,6	22,6	7,8	76	12	12
47	Separate chopping boards are required for meat and vegetables.	91,3	4,3	4,3	96	4	0

The results of the chi square analysis that is performed in order to put forward whether there is statistical relation between the characteristics such as the province the kitchen employees work, gender, education level, having training on food safety or not and level of knowledge on food safety, in the research are given in Table 5. Most of the participants are constituted by employees working in İstanbul. It is observed that there is no significant difference between the different provinces they work at and employees' knowledge on food safety. ($p>0.05$). According to the gender variable, male employees consist of most of the participants. It is observed that there is no significant difference in the test to identify the relation between the food safety knowledge level and gender variable ($p>0.05$). Most of the participants are at young age. It is observed that in the tests there is no significant difference between the knowledge of food safety and the age variable of the employees' ($p>0.05$). According to the education status variable, it is also observed that there is no significant difference ($p>0.05$). Another subject that could be important for the research is the relation between the success level and not

having any training on food safety issues. In the research it is concluded that there is no significant difference between success and having training on food safety issues or not ($p>0.05$). This result shows that, how the kitchen personnel perform, is more important than whether they took training or not.

Table 5. Relation between kitchen staffs' level of knowledge on food safety and variables.

Characteristics			Number of Correct Answers less than 33	Correct	Number of Correct Answers Between 33-47	Correct	
Province worked in	İstanbul	Frequency		%	Frequency	%	
		33		89,2	82	79,6	
	Mardin	4		10,8	21	20,4	
$X^2 = 1,702$		$p=0.192$	$df=1$				
Gender	Female	Frequency		%	Frequency	%	
		14		37,8	42	40,8	
	Male	23		62,2	61	59,2	
$X^2 = 0,098$		$p=0.754$	$df=1$				
Age	18 and under	Frequency		%	Frequency	%	
		6		16,2	14	13,6	
		19-25	12		32,4	28	27,2
		26-35	10		27,0	29	28,2
		36-40	6		16,2	20	19,4
	Above 41	3		8,1	12	11,7	
$X^2 = 0,875$		$p=0.928$	$df=4$				
Level of education	Literate	Frequency		%	Frequency	%	
		2		5,4	5	4,9	
		Primary school	4		10,8	11	10,7
		Secondary School	8		21,6	21	20,4
		High school	17		45,9	41	39,8
	Higher education	6		16,2	25	24,3	
$X^2 = 1,082$		$p=0.897$	$df=4$				
Food safety training	Yes	Frequency		%	Frequency	%	
		20		54,1	59	57,3	
	No	17		45,9	44	42,7	
$X^2 = 0,115$		$p=0.734$	$df=1$				

CONCLUSION

In this study, we sought to evaluate the knowledge of kitchen staff on food hygiene in some hotels with touristic certified enterprises in Mardin and Istanbul provinces as a comparative study. From previous results and findings of this study it can conclude that the correct answer rates of knowledge generally were high (80% and more) in general questions about the food hygiene and most of hotel kitchen

staff participants from the hotels studied in Istanbul and Mardin had adequate and similar level knowledge of food hygiene in most aspects. On the other hand the correct answer rates were changing to be different and lowering between participants in the questions need more details technical knowledge which relating to the temperature of food storage and serving and also critical temperature for food poisoning bacteria. Whereas the correct answers rate in the personal hygiene part is changing between (69.6% and 91.3%) in Istanbul, and changing to be higher rates (80% to 100%) in Mardin. When we look at the previous rates of correct answers in tools hygiene part we can see that the correct answers rate for this part is a little bit lower than personal hygiene part specially in Mardin more than Istanbul in some aspects. In generally the research results revealed that most of hotel kitchen staff participants from the hotels studied in Istanbul and Mardin had adequate and similar level knowledge of food hygiene, personal and tools hygiene in most aspects.

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Representation and Dissemination of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Bangladesh through Social Media

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INTRODUCTION

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has declared Baul songs (UNESCO, 2008) and Jamdani saree (UNESCO, 2013) as 'Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity,' stating their importance as a symbol of identity, dignity, and self-recognition in Bangladesh. The potential roles of social media in the process of preserving intangible cultural heritage (hereafter ICH) offer a space for awareness-building, knowledge creation and diffusion of innovations. The fields of ICH that emphasize on the methods and desired roles of online media are expanding with the development of new tools for online data extraction, analysis and visual presentation (Severo & Venturini, 2015).

Bangladesh is one of the next eleven countries and home to more than 160 million people. The country is experiencing an exponential growth of social media users due to the increase in affordability of smartphones, literacy rate, education level, and adoption of Internet services and applications. Bangladesh, with its digital agenda, has a favorable environment for the transformation and development of digital media and culture. There exists unexplored, assumably underutilized, and potential roles of Internet-mediated communication about the two nominated ICH of Bangladesh. Towards the goal of strategically representing and diffusing ICH through social media, this research explores the current roles of social media in the transmission of ICH in the virtual world. The research question is: How are Baul song and Jamdani weaving as intangible cultural heritage of Bangladesh represented and disseminated through social media platforms?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The convention for the safeguarding of ICH (UNESCO, 2003) mentions that cultural heritage deals with tangible and living heritage. With four basic characteristics, ICH has five domains (Diwasa, Bandhu, & Bhim, 2007, pp. 9-10): oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; performing arts, social practices, rituals and festive events; knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; and traditional craftsmanship. Baul song covers the first four domains, and Jamdani is part of all the domains. This study takes a step towards exploring the characteristics and domain knowledge disseminated through social networks.

Dominick defines social media as "online communications that use special techniques that involve participation, conversation, sharing, collaboration and linkage" (2012, p. 24). All social media fall into nine different categories: (1) social networking sites (*Facebook, LinkedIn, MySpace*, etc.); (2) social news sites (*Digg, Reddit, NewsVine, Kirtsy, BallHype*, etc.); (3) social bookmarking sites (*Delicious, Magnolia, Diigo*, etc.); (4) social sharing sites (*YouTube, Flickr*, etc.); (5) social events sites (*Eventful, Meetup and Upcoming*); (6) Microblogging (*Twitter*); (7) Wikis (Wikipedia); (8) Blogs; (9) Forums and message boards (Evans, 2010). The character and technical possibilities of these diverse media types show how different forms of participation and co-creation can be integrated into cultural heritage communication.

Facebook is the most popular social networking site in Bangladesh (Alexa, 2016). Currently, the number of Facebook users in Bangladesh is 30 million, and a new user joins in Facebook in every 12 seconds, which is more than the birth rate of the country (Sujan, 2015). For this study, Facebook is selected by considering the adoption rate in Bangladesh.

ICH IN BANGLADESH

Bangladesh has been a repository of tangible and intangible cultural heritage for many centuries. However, ICH is a relatively new term and concept in the academic sphere of Bangladesh. Currently, due to the lack of sufficient awareness about ICH protection, parts of ICH is in imminent danger in many areas of Bangladesh. There are very few governmental and non-governmental institutions and agencies, at a national and local level, that, directly and indirectly, play the vital roles towards the management and promotion of ICH. The mainly responsible public bodies are 1. the Ministry of Culture Affairs, Bangladesh, 2. Bangladesh Shilpakala Academy, and 3. Bangla Academy.

The two Bangladeshi elements inscribed on the UNESCO representative list of ICH of Humanity are

“Baul Songs” (traditional music) and “Traditional art of Jamdani weaving.”

Baul Songs are pioneered by Fakir Lalon Shah (1774-1890), the greatest spokesperson of the marginalized Baul tradition of the undivided Bengal. UNESCO (2008) states that Bauls live either near a village or travel from place to place and earn their living by singing, involving the instruments Ektara (a one-stringed instrument), the lute dotara (two-stringed), and a drum called dubki. The Baul movement, at its peak in the nineteenth and early twentieth century, has now regained popularity among the rural population of Bangladesh. Their music and way of life have influenced a large segment of Bengali culture, and particularly the compositions of Nobel Prize laureate Rabindranath Tagore.

The traditional art of Jamdani weaving was “exclusively possessed by the weavers of Dacca aurung” (Gillow and Barnard 2008, p. 186). It is estimated that there were 36 varieties of muslin products in South Asian region, and Jamdani was one of the very best varieties of the muslin (Iqbal, 2013, p. 3). Jamdani is a vividly patterned, sheer cotton fabric, traditionally woven on a handloom by craftspeople and apprentices around Dhaka. Jamdani textiles combine intricacy of design with muted or vibrant colors, and the finished garments are highly breathable (UNESCO, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

The study is anchored on the cultural representation and transmission function of media. The major thesis of the theory, as put forward by Laswell (1948, pp. 203-243) and Wright (1974, pp. 198-199), refers to the ability of the media to learn various norms and values that exist in society and transfer from one generation to the next. Moreover, the term ‘representation’ refers to the construction in any medium of aspects of ‘reality’ such as people, places, objects, events, cultural identities and heritage through various ways. The research methodology applied in this study is content analysis (Neuendorf, 2002). Ten Facebook pages are identified by searching phrases containing ICH, Jamdani, Baul song, and Bangladesh. Five of the pages are official (government or institutional) and five are non-institutional. Data are extracted and analyzed by using the analytics application sociograph.io.

RESULTS

The extracted data (end-date was 31 December 2015) are analyzed from the selected 10 Facebook pages (see Table 1). Three main categories of actions identified are (see Table 2):

- ICH representation role (that is media formats representing ICH),
- ICH dissemination role (that is, actions of change agent’s role), and
- ICH recipient or adopter role (that is, clients’ or visitors’ actions showing interest).

Table 1. Overview Of The Selected Facebook Pages

Page name	Web address	Category regarding identity	Category regarding ICH issue	Duration of data collection
1. Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Bangladesh	https://www.facebook.com/culture.bd/?fref=ts	Governmental	ICH	6 Aug, 2014 - 31 Dec, 2015
2. Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation-BPC	https://www.facebook.com/BangladeshTourismCorporation/timeline	Governmental	ICH	2 Sept, 2013 - 16 Jan, 2016
3. Bangladesh Shilpakala Academy	https://www.facebook.com/BangladeshShilpakalaAcademy	Governmental	ICH	18 Oct, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
4. Bangla Academy	https://www.facebook.com/bangla.academy.org	Governmental	ICH	13 Feb, 2014 - 31 Dec, 2015
5. UNESCO, DHAKA	https://www.facebook.com/unescodhaka	International Organization	ICH	1 Jan, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
6. Tangible and Intangible Cultural Heritage of Bangladesh	https://www.facebook.com/Tangible-and-Intangible-Cultural-Heritage-of-Bangladesh-455085624540045/?fref=ts	Personal	ICH	17 Dec, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
7. Save the Heritages of Bangladesh	https://www.facebook.com/groups/saveheritagebd/	Personal	ICH	1 Jan, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
8. Jamdani Sharee - Heritage of Bangladesh	https://www.facebook.com/JamdaniShareeBD	Personal	Jamdani	18 Nov, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
9. JAMDANI::: A BENGALI HERITAGE	https://www.facebook.com/JAMDANI.BANGLADESHI.HERITAGE/?fref=ts	Personal	Jamdani	18 Nov, 2012 - 31 Dec, 2015
10. Baul Gann	http://www.facebook.com/baul407/?fref=ts	Personal	Jamdani	1 January, 2012 - 31 December, 2015

Representation includes photos, videos, status (multimodal), comments (multimodal), and other file formats. In this case, multimodality includes text, video, photo, link, tag and files (various formats). Dissemination includes the following actions: status post (multimodal), reply to comments (multimodal), share, tag, and events. The visitors of the page, who are typically in the information receiving role,

interact with the actions like, comment (multimodal), and tag. Tagging is not included in the analysis as it is not analyzed by sociograph.io.

Table 2. Representation, dissemination action and connection of people with ICH of Bangladesh

Page no	Representation					Dissemination			Client-impact		
	Photo	Video	Status	Comment	Other file format	Status Post	Reply to comment	Share	Event	Like	Comment
1	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	11	0
5	3	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	14	0
6	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
8	6	0	8	1	0	8	0	3	0	152	1
10	8	37	9	19	0	9	0	140	0	413	19
Total	20	37	20	20	0	21	0	143	1	593	20

Through analysis of selected Facebook pages, some distinctness can be highlighted:

1. Most importantly, among the first five pages, none of the pages contain posts that have video, share, and comment. This means that every institutional page for ICH in Bangladesh is almost inactive (see Table 2).
2. Constitutive and detail explanation of ICH of Bangladesh are not found in any of the selected Facebook pages. The social networking site cannot play the ideal role of information dissemination, especially, when a proper informative Facebook page is necessary for the transmission of ICH.
3. Governmental and institutional or official Facebook pages highlight high officials' activities but not about the ICH.
4. The information about UNESCO's acceptance of two ICH of Bangladesh is not available on any of the Facebook pages. Personnel responsible for press and media should be directed to the operations and maintenance of ICH representation and dissemination activities through Facebook and other social media platforms.
5. Video sharing is essential for promoting and safeguarding of ICH but is found on only one page (see Table 2). Since sufficient content and video are not available, the Facebook pages cannot play an effective role in disseminating and safeguarding the ICH. As more video are uploaded online and posted in the page 'Baul Gann', the page gets more shares likes and comments.
6. Private pages are more active than official pages regarding ICH issues.

7. ICH items are represented and interpreted as commoditized objects on personal Facebook pages, especially on Jamdani issue.

Online digital objects (i.e. video, images, web pages, and other file formats) representing ICH of Bangladesh should be developed with strategic initiative.

Sharing is central to the diffusion process; through social networking sites, online promotion of the digital objects representing ICH can bring awareness and revive those.

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Health Cruise Tourism: Towards Thalassotherapy

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INTRODUCTION

Wellness tourism represents the intersection of a powerful lifestyle trend and growing global industry (Global Wellness Institute, 2013, p. 5). The modern Cruise industry emerged in the late 1960s and soon developed into a mass market using large vessels and adding more revenue-generating passenger services onboard. It has become a salient symbol of the globalization of the tourism industry in terms of its market coverage, its practices and the mobility of its assets (Rodrigue & Notteboom, 2013, p. 31).

THALASSOTHERAPY

However, thalassotherapy is one of the wellness tourism's type (See Figure 1) and there is a necessity to achieve the basic development requirements such as water and clean beaches, because it is impossible to achieve it in current situation. Therefore, it is suggested to achieve multiple sections called Cruise Health thalassotherapy smaller set. However, its development requires fundamental measures regarding environmental issues. Otherwise, it will not happen because of health tourism. In Japan, as described above, three projects are proceeding in Mie, Chiba, Fukuoka (Nomura, 1991, p.339).

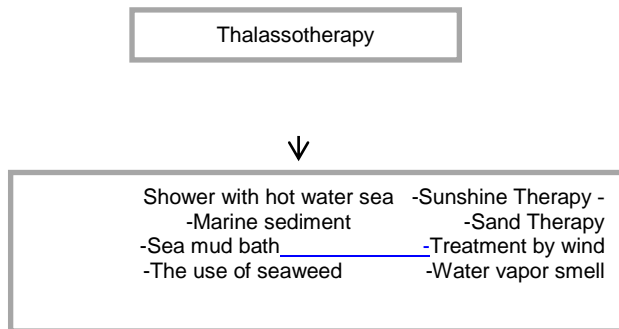


Figure 1. Thalassotherapy Topics

LITERATURE REVIEW

Table 1 shows most important researches related to Cruise industry and tourism during the past three decades.

Table 1. Cruise Literature Review

CRUISE MARKETS AND ECONOMICS
Chase & McKee (2003); Duman & Mattila (2005); Dwyer, Ngairé & Zelko (2004); Forsyth & Dwyer (1998); Hall & Braithwaite (1990); Henthorne (2000); Ikeda & Jaswar (2002); Kester (2003); Lois, Wang, Wall & Ruxton (2001); Marti (2005); Petrick (2003); Petrick & Sirakaya (2004); Seidl, Guiliano & Pratt (2006); Swain & Barth (2002); Teye & Leclerc (1998)
CRUISE SOCIAL IMPACTS
Gibson & Bentley (2007); Jaakson (2004); Morrison, Yang, O Leary & Nadkarni (2003); Shaw & Williams (2004); Weatherby (2003); Weaver (2005); Weaver (2005); Weaver (2005); Yarnal & Kerstetter (2005)
CRUISE ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES
Johnson (2002); Lester & Weeden (2004); Stewart, Kirby & Steel (2006); Thomas (2004).
CRUISE BUSINESS (GENERAL)
Dev (2006); Kwortnik & Lynn (2006); Kwortnik (2006); McCalla (1998); Peisley (1995); Perry Hobson (1993); Wood (2000); Wie (2005).
CRUISE HEALTH
Cramer, Gu & Durbin (2003); Ramilo, Augenbraun & Hammerschlag (2004); Sternstein (2003).
THALASSOTHERAPY
Crecente, Santé, Díaz, & Crecente (2012); Gordon & Avtomeenko (2012); Zlatkov, Bozhkov & Genov (1973); Maraver, Michán, Morer & Aguilera (2011); Charlier & Chaineux (2009); Nomura (1991); De Andrade et al (2008).

METHODOLOGY

The Major Princess Cruises 2015 was analyzed in this field study. The main purpose of the research was to develop a health Cruise. Exploratory method was used in order to support health and the tourists in enjoying the Cruise tourism. This research was conducted to answer to the following questions: How the Cruise health products are presented? What are the development requirements for health Cruise? This research was applied in terms of the type and content analysis, descriptive and survey in terms of methodology which techniques, observation, questionnaires, interviews and discussion were used. The data were collected via questionnaire including different levels of management, environmental, infrastructural, social and economic administrators and authorities in Cruise companies. Cruise including matters related to tourist's lifestyles that figure 2 shows its most important topic.



Figure 2. Cruises Topics

RESULTS

Based on a different theme Cruises, the following questions are examined in Princess Cruise to the interests of tourists and the results can be the basis of tourism development planning in the Cruises health (See table 2). It is worthwhile to note that Princess Cruise is one of the top ten in the delivery of thalassotherapy services. Thus the tourists' interests in Cruise were analyzed and the following results were obtained. As shown in table 5, nearly half of the tourists' favorites (48.08) are in the field of Health tourism and thalassotherapy. That can be offered and implemented measures to develop it further by using advertising programs.

Table 2. What do you want to do during a sea day?

Them	percent
▪ Wellness & Fitness	4.54
▪ Hobbies & Craft	4.54
▪ Dancing	2.60
▪ Sports Fan	11.04
▪ Yoga and Pilates	5.19
▪ Kids & Family	1.30
▪ Music	3.90
▪ Faith-Based	3.25
▪ History & World Affairs	1.95
▪ Books & Artists	3.90
▪ Science & Nature	5.19
▪ Food, Wine & Beer	16.88
▪ TV & Film	9.09
▪ Lifestyle	14.94
▪ Health	2.60
▪ Spas	5.19
▪ Doing nothing	3.90
	100.00

Source: Princess Cruises, 2015

CONCLUSION

To achieve Cruise Health thalassotherapy with a focus on comprehensive studies the followings dimensions should be considered especially regarding to the potential of ports and world water tourist destinations:

MANAGEMENT ISSUES

It is necessary to address corporate management, including strategies for keeping afloat, operator processes, purchasing, logistics, and human resource management. In this research, marketing management, pricing and revenue management, and Cruise packaging are focused. The management of the Cruise product includes itinerary planning, shore side activities, and service quality. Operations management discusses hotel operations, food and beverage operations, safety and security, and marine operations (Vogel, Papathanasis & Wolber, 2012, p. 2220).

- The quality of the food on board is critical to the success of the Cruise, yet the food product is not the main reason to choose this kind of vacation.
- The price includes the cost of providing food and drink.
- Cruise ships operate a variety of restaurants to meet diverse customer requirements.
- There may be complicated logistics involved in setting up a supply chain.

- The facilities for dining are managed to achieve the highest possible standards.
- Passenger-to-crew ratios can be low, so the levels of service are potentially high.
- The crew is expected to work long hours seven days a week for several months at a time.
- Crew rewards can be high because of tips, tax-free wages, and the opportunity to travel (Gibson, 1955, p.114).

It should be noted that in this study optimal management is based on health Cruise development with a focus on thalassotherapy, because the water and the beach cleaning in all over the world is difficult and need a global consensus.

ENVIRONMENT ISSUES

Environmental issues are of importance for European countries and the United States as the largest producers of fossil fuels for Cruise, while the environmental largest source is degrading. Therefore, it is necessary to provide appropriate strategies to change the type of fuel due to the distance, direction and location of ports, reduction of waste, water, electricity and cleaning the ports, legislation relating to water conservation, waste management or conservation of coral, practices to encourage sustainable tourism and support local communities.

INFRASTRUCTURE ISSUES

In the service sector, health infrastructure is proposed as Cruise feature. The standardization of services is pertained to the characteristics of thalassotherapy in all sectors; so that the sustainable health Cruise environment for tourists and residents will be realized with four components including Cruise, residents, environmentalists and tourists.

ECONOMIC ISSUES

The findings of various researches on Cruise in the economic sector depict that although there is already demand for high income and economic feasibility to develop a Cruise health, the continuation of such center is not very predictable and consistent. Thus, if the health sector is developed, thalassotherapy will achieve its further development and the context will be provided for more justification to attract tourists.

SOCIAL ISSUES

Social sector development as well as other countries Cruise health is needed. In general, securing health tourists, especially tourists' creation and development of digital security and development of NGO, international organizations, local communities and all stakeholders are necessary in this regard.

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French Golf Tourism and Sustainable Development

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INTRODUCTION

In the last few years golf has an increasingly more important contribution to the tourism development. To attract a large number of visitors who practice this sport is necessary to develop a quality infrastructure, concretized not only in courses, but also in restaurants, hotels and leisure facilities. If all of these are built close to attractions, landmarks and sightseeing, the visitors can combine the sport activity with culture, heritage and tourism.

Starting from the definition of golf tourism “as travel for non-commercial reasons to participate in golf activities away from the traveller’s local environment”(Hudson, 2003), and taking into consideration the data provided by different golf associations, federations and other organizations, we try to describe how the golf tourism market is developed in Europe and more precisely in France, and how this country promote an eco-responsible policy concerning the practice of this sport activity.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to data provided by European Golf Association, France counts 597 golf courses, which means an increasing of 20% during the last 10 years. If golf courses had an horrific reputation because of their environmental impact, use of drinking water, of fertilizer and weed killers, today the green keepers are convince that golf doesn’t pollute but, more, participate to clean the environment. The image of golf courses as green as the fattest English meadows in the middle of the Dubai desert is just an ecological nonsense, but appeal to the public emotions and, unfortuna-

tely, added to other examples or just outdated methods to manage a golf structure may give a bad image to this sport. Just for instance, France reduced its water consumption for the golf of 14% during the last 10 years and 90% of the golf structure use non-drinkable or even recycled water.

Everything began in 2006 with the first Charter for Water signed by the French Golf Federation (FFG) with Ministries of Ecology, Sports and some golf associations, aiming at reducing the amount of water used coming from the public service by 30% in 3 years and the use of fertilizer and weed killers. This agreement joins in the line of the sustainable tourism, itself merging from the Brundtland report on sustainable development (WCED, 1987). Today, with possible exceptions, tourism and sport tourism managers are aware of the necessity to protect the environment to keep the tourists. That is why the French Golf Federation signed the National agreement "Golf and environment" in 2010 with several ministries (Agriculture, Ecology and Sports). It is necessary to invest much money to provide high-level services to bring the tourists but it is absolutely necessary to protect and give a good image to the sites to get the tourists back, to gain their loyalty in a world where appetizing proposals are so numerous and where the information, good or bad, travel so quickly.

If the golf managers under the national federation umbrella make real efforts, some problems are remaining in the golf structures themselves but in the surrounding, too. For instance, the golf balls are an environmental problem. They are made of rubber, plastic from petrol and paint. Hundreds of thousands are lost every year in the nature around the golf courses. A part is found and recycled but what for the others? More importantly, golf courses must provide or be surrounded by other facilities to bring clients: restaurants, hotel, etc. and, of course, parking places. These structures are impervious surfaces. How to deal with this problem but using new technology?

METHODOLOGY

In this paper we tried to present the place of French golf in Europe (infrastructure, number of players etc.) and the development of this sport activity in link with the sustainable development. The methodology is based on the study of several reports, articles, books, and on processing and interpretation of datasets provided by different national or international golf organizations.

RESULTS

Founded in 1937, the European Golf Association counts today 47 member countries. Only 12.77% of them (6 countries) have more than 400 courses, while 46.81% (22 countries) are equipped with less than 10. Concerning the number of players, 12.77% (6 countries) register more than 200,000, 40.43% (19 countries) have between 1,000-99,999 players and 34.04% (16 countries) less than 1,000 players, especially the countries from Central and Eastern Europe (see table 1).

By calculating the ratio between the number of players and the number of golf courses we observe that that this value is very high in countries like Netherlands (1927.5 players/course), Finland (1106.6 players/course) and Sweden (1059.8 players/course) (see table 1). These countries have a number of courses less than 500 and less than 500.000 registered players.

Table 1. Figures about golf in Europe, sorted by number of courses – the place of France (table created with data from European Golf Association)

No.	Country	*Number of courses	*Total players	Players/courses	No.	Country	*Number of courses	*Total players	Players/courses
1.	England	1849	678372	366,9	25.	Hungary	12	1498	124,8
2.	Germany	728	639137	877,9	26.	Cyprus	9	1303	144,8
3.	France	597	408388	684,1	27.	Estonia	9	2668	296,4
4.	Scotland	545	199764	366,5	28.	Kazakhstan	9	650	72,2
5.	Sweden	448	474777	1059,8	29.	Greece	8	2350	293,8
6.	Ireland	413	194151	470,1	30.	Bulgaria	7	843	120,4
7.	Spain	348	280712	806,6	31.	Croatia	6	1420	236,7
8.	Italy	275	91713	333,5	32.	Lithuania	6	568	94,7
9.	Netherlands	201	387429	1927,5	33.	Luxembourg	6	3557	592,8
10.	Denmark	188	150699	801,6	34.	Romania	6	300	50
11.	Norway	165	102007	618,2	35.	Ukraine	4	547	136,8
12.	Austria	156	103225	661,7	36.	Bosnia and Herzegovina	3	118	39,3
13.	Wales	151	49084	325,1	37.	Andorra	2	79	39,5
14.	Finland	129	142757	1106,6	38.	Azerbaijan	2	104	52
15.	CzechRepublic	102	56438	553,3	39.	Israel	2	795	397,5
16.	Switzerland	96	88523	922,1	40.	Latvia	2	1004	502
17.	Portugal	86	14094	163,9	41.	Serbia	2	747	373,5
18.	Belgium	84	60867	724,6	42.	Albania	1	64	64
19.	Iceland	65	16371	251,9	43.	Armenia	1	55	55
20.	Poland	32	3739	116,8	44.	Georgia	1	50	50
21.	Russia	28	1341	47,9	45.	Liechtenstein	1	632	632
22.	Slovakia	22	7644	347,5	46.	Macedonia	1	119	119
23.	Turkey	18	6776	376,4	47.	Malta	1	546	546
24.	Slovenia	13	8762	674			Courses	Players	
						Total	6840	4186787	

*Data retrieved on 7th Mars 2016.

France is one of the best destinations in Europe to practice golf. With those 408,388 golfers (about 65% male, 25% female and 10% juniors) registered in 2014 to French Golf Federation, France ranks the 4th place in the European hierarchy, after England, Germany and Sweden.

Concerning the number of courses, this country ranks the 3rd place with 597, after England (1849 courses) and Germany (728 courses). But, to attract more visitors, the most important is the number of golf courses with 18 holes or more. Of this point of view, France is in the 3rd position, with 416 courses of 18 holes or more, preceded by England (1496 courses) and Germany (563 courses) (see figure 1).

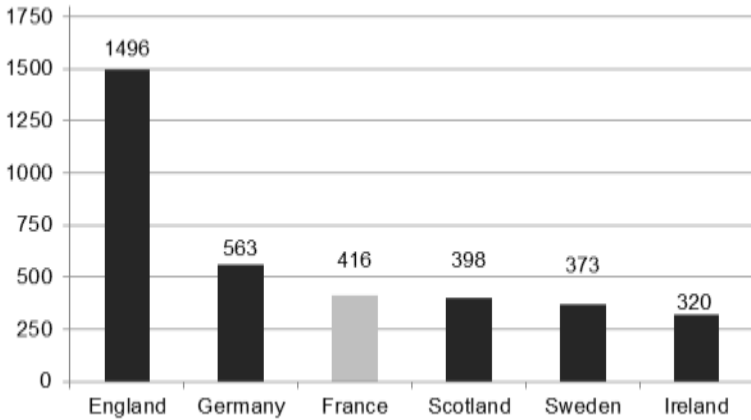


Figure 1. The number of courses with more than 18 holes in Europe – the place of France

The majority of golf courses in France have 18 holes (57% - 340 courses), followed by 9 hole golf courses (30% -181 courses) and 27 holes (8% - 50 courses). Only 5% is represented by 36 and 45 holes (26 courses).

A study conducted by BIPE (2007) shows that the annual turnover generated by French golf industry is about 1.5 billion euro of which mostly come from golf courses (37%). Also, the average daily expenditure of a golfer tourists between 170€ - 230€ (green-fee, accommodation, meals, transfers etc.) and the average length of a stay is 6-7 days (Atout France, 2014). Regarding the employment, the golf generates in France 13.000 jobs of which 41% comes from golf courses maintenance (BIPE, 2007).

French golf is not yet considered a responsible activity but, on this line, some efforts are being made. A French enterprise founded in 1991 and named ECOCERT gives the label "Eco-durable" (Eco-sustainable) to the golf courses (if certain environmental, economic and social criteria are accomplished) in order to promote a better management in a logic sustainable development.

CONCLUSION

In spite of the Spanish and Portuguese concurrence, French golf courses bring more and more tourists on the French territory. Several elements explain this attractiveness: the quality of the courses themselves, the climate variety between the North not so far from the English climate (with somewhat less rain), and the South not so far from the Spanish climate (with somewhat less heat) and the variety of landscapes, lowlands, mountains, woodlands, etc. Most of the golf courses are organized near a residential area and/or equipped with hotels. The success of the French golf courses is the result of 20-30 years of investments, work of the federa-

tion and of the owners. It is important to note the diversity of types of properties, private, public, associative, all of them working in the same direction: bring the players but with respect of the surrounding and the environment which means qualification of the workers to develop their skills.

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Content and Sentiment Analyses of Travel Barriers to China

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INTRODUCTION

The importance of the U.S.-China relationship for peace and stability in the world extends to the tourism sphere, and the American and Chinese governments as well as tourism academics and industry practitioners are looking for ways to increase tourism between the two countries. This interdisciplinary research deals with attractiveness of China as a tourist destination for American pleasure travelers, barriers that American tourists perceive as preventing their travel to the destination, and their sentiments towards travel to China. The study uses qualitative data obtained in a large-scale online panel survey of American leisure travelers and applies computer-assisted content and sentiment analyses to extract categories of travel constraints and attitudes towards travel to China.

Although computer-assisted content analysis based on identification of the most frequent concepts in the data is a long-established methodology, automated sentiment analysis studies are still rare in tourism and hospitality research (Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). Thus, this study compares three sentiment analysis algorithms, namely, *Deeply Moving*, *Pattern*, and *SentiStrength*, against the manual classification of textual responses into three categories, positive, negative, and neutral, and applies the best performing software *Deeply Moving* to quantify the respondents' sentiments towards travel to China. Further, the study compares socio-

demographic groups of survey respondents on attitudes expressed towards travel to China.

METHODOLOGY

The survey was conducted in 2011 and targeted adult American leisure travel population operationalized as those who took a leisure vacation at least once during the 12 months preceding the survey and who was over 18 years old at a time of the survey. An American online survey company sent invitations to its national panel. To represent the population of interest, the survey was balanced on region, gender, age, and household income (Pan & Li, 2011). The obtained sample included 3,263 valid responses. The final sample had a fairly balanced gender distribution (51.2% were female). With a mean age of 43.1 years old, most respondents were white (83.2%), well educated (82% attended at least some college), and earned a household pre-tax income between \$25,000 and \$100,000 (70.5%).

In examining how American actual and potential tourists perceive China in terms of risks and barriers of going there, open-ended answers to the following question were examined: *Please describe, in your own words, what would make mainland China a more appealing international vacation destination for you?* The approach to analyze the data included (1) content analysis of textual responses to identify the main categories of risks and barriers; (2) sentiment analysis of textual responses to evaluate the affective feelings towards travel to China; and (3) comparisons of various socio-demographic groups within the body of respondents on their sentiments towards China as a vacation destination.

RESULTS

Content Analysis

There were 2,232 respondents who submitted qualitative data. Fourteen categories of risks and barriers represented in the data were identified by the means of computer-assisted content analysis using word- and phrase-counting software instruments available online and capabilities of MS Excel (details will be provided at the conference). In the order of frequency of mention, these categories are: (1) Political system; (2) Cost; (3) People; (4) Safety; (5) Environment; (6) Culture; (7) Tours; (8) Language; (9) Information; (10) Human rights; (11) Image; (12) Distance; (13) Crowded; and (14) Nothing/Not sure.

Sentiment Analysis

Sentiment analysis software attempts to automatically extract the sentiment expressed in texts. A major drawback of many existing applications lies in treating each textual unit (e.g., a sentence, a phrase, or a word) separately (lexical approach) as opposed to a holistic treatment of the whole response (non-lexical). In the lexical approach, the sentiment of the entire textual unit is derived based on the balance of words with negative and positive sentiment, subject to linguistic rules.

The most prominent lexical resource is Princeton's WordNet (Miller, 1995). The non-lexical approach is based on the machine learning where the algorithm is trained on a thematically close text corpus. Notably, the sentiment is expressed differently in different types of content, e.g. in blogs and newspapers (Balaur et al., 2013), which requires diverse algorithms, ideally trained on samples from the studied population of texts. The associated costs render this task unfeasible for most projects, leading practitioners to cross-compare performance of different pre-trained software. In this study, three sentiment analysis software instruments were compared:

- *SentiStrength* (Thelwall et al., 2010), developed in the University of Wolverhampton, UK. The program uses a set of words derived from the social network MySpace, which makes it specifically suitable for rating short informal comments.
- *Pattern* sentiment analysis algorithm, developed by CLiPS (Computational Linguistics & Psycholinguistics) at the University of Antwerp (www.clips.ua.ac.be). *Pattern* separately evaluates each word's polarity, using SentiWordNet's ratings (Baccianella et al., 2010).
- *Deeply Moving* machine learning algorithm, developed at Stanford and based on the Recursive Neural Network on top of the grammatical structure (Socher et al., 2013). Sentiment detection is done through the supervised training; this study used the data based on classification of movie reviews provided by the authors of the program.

These sentiment analysis instruments were evaluated based on their performance relative to human coding. A sample of 200 survey responses was randomly selected and assigned to two human raters for classification using a $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ scale, where -1 corresponds to predominantly negative, 0 to neutral, and 1 to predominantly positive sentiment. The same textual responses were rated by each of the three software programs as well. Both *SentiStrength* and *Pattern* return two values, one for positive and the other for negative sentiment, while *Deeply Moving* returns one overall value. For all three packages, values are centered on zero (neutral sentiment); the further the values from zero in either direction, the stronger the sentiment (positive or negative) expressed by the respondent. To ensure compatibility of the automated and manual classification, positive and negative scores estimated by machine algorithms were transformed to the $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ scale.

Table 1 presents the overall results of the manual and automated classification on a sample of 200 randomly selected textual responses. Because the questions that the respondents were answering targeted the barriers preventing them from travelling to China, negative emotions prevailed, which was detected by both human raters. It should be noted, however, that human raters knew the survey question, which gave them more information as compared to the machine classifiers. Nevertheless, human raters still had difficulty in emotion detection, which was manifested in significant difference in the percentage of responses classified as having negative sentiments (52% vs. 70%). Among the automated classifiers, only

Deeply Moving algorithm was able to find the distributional pattern of sentiments similar to that of the human raters.

Table 1. Distribution (%) Of Positive, Negative, And Neutral Responses Returned by The Human Raters And Automated Classifiers.

Sentiment	Rater 1	Rater 2	Deeply Moving	Pattern	SentiStrength
Negative	52	70	56	27	25
Neutral	21	11	25	39	52
Positive	27	19	18	34	23

Similarly, the inter-rater agreement between the human raters and machine classifiers was the best for the *Deeply Moving* algorithm (Table 2). It should be noted that in Comparison 1, the percentage of agreement for *SentiStrength* was the highest, misleadingly suggesting that *SentiStrength* is performing better than the other two software packages. However, in Comparison 1, only the opposite ratings (-1 and 1) were counted as disagreement. Since *SentiStrength* returned a very high number of neutral ratings, all of these ratings were counted as “agreement”. Notably, the *Pattern* classifier performed only slightly better than a random classification would have performed (Table 2, Comparison 2, 42% and 34%, as opposed to 33.3% in the case of three categories).

Both human raters and automatic classifiers demonstrated modest performance overall. The main reason for a better performance of human raters in comparison with the sentiment analysis software was likely the raters’ knowledge of the question to which responses were provided; thus, the raters operated based on a larger amount of information. Nevertheless, the “deep learning” artificial neural network algorithm, which is a foundation of the *Deeply Moving* software, demonstrated acceptable performance and was selected for further analysis of the whole set of textual responses.

Table 2. Agreement (%) Between Human Raters And Automated Classifiers.*

Comparison	Rater	Rater 1	Deeply Moving	Pattern	SentiStrength
1	Rater 1	-	84	78	93
	Rater 2	89	86	74	89
2	Rater 1	-	55	42	53
	Rater 2	73	56	34	42

* In Comparison 1, only the opposite classifications are treated as a disagreement. In Comparison 2, any difference in classification is treated as a disagreement.

In order to validate, albeit indirectly, the performed sentiment analysis, the categories of constraints identified with content analysis were regressed on the sen-

timent scores obtained with the *Deeply Moving* software. Responses like “unsure” and “nothing”, whose meaning was uncertain, were removed. The categories People and Tour were excluded, as they did not significantly contribute to the model ($F(11, 2126) = 19.527, p < 0.001$). Among the remaining 11 types of barriers, only comments classified under the Culture category affected the overall sentiment positively ($t = 4.474, p < 0.001$). The largest negative impacts were associated with such barriers as Environment ($t = -6.264, p < 0.001$), Distance ($t = -6.134, p < 0.001$), Language ($t = -5.629, p < 0.001$), and Information ($t = -4.859, p < 0.001$).

Next, sentiments were compared among socio-demographic groups of respondents on such variables as GENDER (male, female), GENERATION (G.I./Silent, Baby-boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y), ETHNICITY (White, Black, Latino/Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Other), and LIFE STAGE (single; married couple without children; family with small and teenage children living with parents; family with at least one child grown and left home but the parent are not retired; and at least one spouse is retired).

Female respondents expressed more negative attitudes than male respondents ($t = 3.637, p < 0.001$). No differences in attitudes were found with respect to GENERATION ($F(3, 2133) = 0.082, p = 0.970$), ETHNICITY ($F(4, 2098) = 1.848, p = 0.117$), or LIFE STAGE ($F(5, 2126) = 1.031, p = 0.397$) variables. Since responses with uncertain meaning regarding travel to China were excluded, one more variable from the original survey was used for the analysis, namely, the INTEREST to go to China. The difference between the two groups was found ($t = -8.782, p < 0.001$). The No-Group (1,637 respondents, $M = -0.34, SD = 0.743$) expressed significantly more negative sentiments towards travel to China than the Yes-Group (501 respondents, $M = 0.00, SD = 0.795$).

CONCLUSION

The results suggest the feasibility of the proposed approach for content and sentiment analysis of tourism-related data and provide directions for further research. From a methodology standpoint, we suggest to use interrater vs. human-computer agreement as a criterion for automated classifiers. Our research reveals considerable differences in the outcomes of automated classifiers; in future studies, comparisons among multiple software programs and human coders are required to determine best instruments for the data. The accuracy of results is likely to be higher if the training of the algorithm is performed on a text corpus similar to the data being used in the study. A large number of responses with uncertain meaning needs to be evaluated with respect to underlying structural patterns, similar to how missing data are evaluated on being MCAR (missing completely at random). In this study, the t-test and ANOVA comparisons with and without data from the Nothing/Unsure category generated close test statistics and p-values, which was interpreted as the absence of any significant systematic pattern.

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Tourist Satisfaction and Behavioral Intention: A Case Study of Beijing Tourist Distribution Center

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, Foreign Independent Tourists surges in tourism market and become the major tourist group. Therefore, Tourist Distribution Centre was built to meet the tourists need which do benefits to quality and personal service. The Tourist Distribution Centre not only effectively relieves the golden week travel peak, but also increases the competitive advantage of regional tourism. More and more research had focused on the influence effects, types, function modes, sites and development countermeasure of the Tourist Distribution Centre. Few researches noticed the relationship between the Tourist Distribution Centre and tourist behaviour which will make a difference to the development of Tourist Distribution Centre. Our study examines the effect of service quality on tourist behavioural intention and identified six service evaluation factors which have great influence on future Tourist Distribution Centre construction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism distribution centre is an organizational entity providing tourists (mainly individual visitors) with tourism services and products, which exists in the form of an enterprise or public institution with the property of public products. It is also an important channel to integrate tourism resources and a tourism resources system or resources integration platform (Huang, 2007) .

At present, scholars have examined tourism distribution centres from different perspectives, including the concept, reasons for establishment, influence, types and models, location selection and layout, operations and profit analyses, development and so on. For example, Feng (2007) conducted a case study of Hangzhou Tourist Distribution Centre to examine the relationship of service quality of tourism distribution centre, tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioural intention. The results show that service quality of tourist distribution centre affects individual tourist satisfaction and further influences individual tourist’s behavioural intention. When it comes to the relationship between customer satisfaction and behavioural intention, Bolton (1991) reported that customer satisfaction is inherent in the customer purchase experience, and customer satisfaction influences behavioural intention. Boulding’s study (1993) indicated that customers’ evaluation of service quality can influence their assessment on the whole service satisfaction, which further affects customers’ behavioural intention. Baker (2000) pointed out that satisfaction and behavioural intention have direct mutually influential relationship.

To sum up, the mutual influential relationship of service quality, tourist satisfaction and behavioural intention can be categorized into two types: (1) direct influence of service quality on behavioural intention; (2) indirect influence of service quality on behavioural intention via tourist satisfaction, which are illustrated as Figure (1).

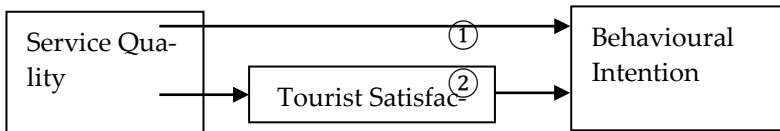


Figure 1. Service Quality and Behavioural Intention Relationship Model

METHODOLOGY

According to the relationship model of service quality, tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioural intention, the cognitive level of service function and tourist behavioural intention have significant and positive relationship (Cronin, 2000). It can be inferred that the better tourists’ cognitive perception of tourism distribution

centre service quality is, the more likely the tourists will repeatedly choose tourism distribution centres for travel. This study proposes three hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1: Service quality has positive influence on tourist behavioral intention.
- Hypothesis 2: Service quality has a positive impact on tourist satisfaction.
- Hypothesis 3: Tourist satisfaction casts a significantly positive influence on tourist behavioral intention in regard to the relationship between tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioral intention.

Based on documentary research, surveys, and interviews, this study classified service functions of tourism distribution centres into 5 factors – transfer, product attractiveness, publicity, informationization service and centre service. A set of detailed evaluation factors was further proposed and questionnaires were therefore constructed. Questionnaires were distributed to tourists from tourism distribution centres of Zhengyangmen (Qianmen, East District, Beijing), West Street (Qianmen, Beijing) and B2 Tower of Chengming Mansion (Xizhimen, Beijing). A total of 165 copies were distributed and 156 copies were collected, among which 142 copies were completed and valid. The data were analyzed by SPSS19.0. Factor analysis was used to identify the dimensions of service quality of tourist distribution centre; regression analysis was employed to examine the relationship among tourist service quality, tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioural intention.

RESULTS

(1) Regression analysis of service quality and tourist behavioural intention

Statistics indicate that $R^2=0.372$, which means that two variables – tourism distribution centre service function and publicity – jointly account for 39.5% of the variance of tourist behavioural intention ($F = 46.966, p<.0001$). This further indicates that tourism distribution centre service function and publicity can effectively explain tourist behavioural change. Take standard regression coefficients into analysis and it gives rise to a standard linear regression equation: tourist behavioural intention = $0.398 * \text{publicity} + 0.308 * \text{centre service function}$.

By correlation analysis and regression analysis of tourist service experience factor and tourist behavioural intention, it can be found out that centre service function can cast significant positive influence on tourist behavioural intention. Publicity of quality experience has positive influence on tourist behavioural intention.

(2) Regression analysis of service quality and tourist satisfaction

The regression analysis indicated $R^2=0.441$, which means that tourist service quality accounts for 44.1% of the variance of tourist satisfaction ($F = 38.134, p<0.001$). The standard coefficient of three indicators were significant, including

centre service function, tourism product attractiveness, and time and money. A standard regression equation is as follows: tourist satisfaction= $0.535 \times$ centre service function $+0.301 \times$ tourism product attractiveness $-0.164 \times$ time and money cost.

According to the above regression analysis, distribution centre service function, tourism product attractiveness and time and money are correlated. Service function is the most important factor affecting tourist satisfaction; tourism product attractiveness comes second and time and money cost ranks the third.

(3) Regression analysis of tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioural intention

The regression analysis indicated $R^2=0.448$, which means that tourist satisfaction accounts for 44.8% of the variance of tourist behavioural intention ($F=113.544$, $p < 0.001$). The T value of tourist satisfaction is significant ($p < 0.001$). The regression equation is as follows: tourist behavioural intention= $0.669 \times$ tourist satisfaction. It can be noted that tourist satisfaction has a significant positive influence on tourist behavioural intention.

CONCLUSION

Based on the above regression analyses of tourist service quality, tourist satisfaction and tourist behavioural intention, it can be concluded that publicity and centre service functions have significant positive influence on tourists' repeat purchase, while service functions, product attractiveness and time and money have significant influence on tourist satisfaction and then affect tourist behavioural intention. It can be further concluded that among the six factors of service quality of tourist distribution centre, direct influence on tourist behavioural intention and indirect influence on tourist behavioural intention via tourist satisfaction are not exactly the same.

In the development of Beijing Tourism Distribution Centre, service functions enhancement is the top priority. It is essential to solve service insufficiency that tourists normally complain, and to strengthen cooperation between Beijing and peripheral areas, enlarge the radiating areas and improve service quality. It is urgent to make seamless docking with Tianjin and Hebei tourism distribution centres to achieve the integration of regional tourism transportation of Beijing, Tianjin and Hebei. It is significant to raise employees' awareness of voluntary service and service quality, and improve tourism product attractiveness and reduce the time and money cost. Therefore, the integration of tourism resources in Beijing, Tianjin and Hebei can be achieved to enhance the joint trans-regional tourism product attractiveness.

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Host-Guest Interactions: Conceptualising and Testing the Role of Apathy

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INTRODUCTION

It has been widely recognized by the existing academic literature that a tourism planning that is sensitive to resident's perceptions, needs and attitudes towards tourism development is an integral component of sustainability (e.g. Choi & Sirakaya, 2006) and a necessary condition to obtain residents' support for tourism development (Ap, 1992) and higher sense of belonging to the place (Del Chiappa & Atzeni, 2015). Further, it is needed to reach community empowerment, high level of individual participation (Mitchell & Reid, 2001) and brand ambassadorship behavior (e.g. Simpson & Sigauw, 2008)

That said, it could be argued that achieving an actual community integration and participation in tourism planning and development it is needed that residents have the opportunities, the abilities and the resources to carry it out; hence, no limitations should exist preventing residents to exert an active role in tourism development.

According previous researches (e.g. Tosun, 2000; Tosun, 2002), limitations to community participation in tourism can be divided into three categories: operational (such as lack of co-ordination between stakeholders), structural (such as lack of financial resources, expertise and trained human resources, investment capital and/or know-how and the skills needed to take the initiative when developing tourism) and culture. As far as the cultural barriers are concerned one could consider alienation of local people, unwillingness of elite to share the benefits of deve-

lopment within the wider community, the potential poor knowledge of tourism among local people, the fact that residents could not have a realistic understanding of tourism impacts, the lack of indigenous tourism planners that leads to communication barriers and language differences between planners and residents and, finally, apathy (Tosun, 2000).

Apathy is a construct approached in different disciplines. Among these psychology seems to play a relevant role. Specifically, it describes apathy as a diminished goal-directed behavior, not attributable to diminished level of consciousness, cognitive impairment, or emotional distress (Marin, 1990). Broadly, it could be argued that apathy is a multidimensional one that comprises mostly psychology (e.g. Esposito et al, 2014), politics (e.g. Rosener, 1982), and environmental issues (e.g. Heath & Gifford, 2006).

Quite surprisingly, research aimed at analysing limitations to community integration and participation appears to be underdeveloped with limitations being often cited but not deeply defined, conceptualized and analyzed. This is what happen, for example, when the concept of "residents' apathy" is considered. Based on an extensive literature review from different disciplines, this study attempts to conceptualize residents' apathy toward tourism phenomenon and its dimensions. Further it aims at proposing a conceptual framework that will be tested in two different tourism destinations (Italy and Portugal).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term "apathy" is normally defined in English language dictionaries as a lack of interest or motivation in or concern for things. Similarly, and based on Tosun (2000) residents' apathy could be generally understood as cultural barrier to community integration and participation that occurs when local residents lack interest or motivation that for being enthusiastically interested/involved in tourism activities (Tosun, 2000). Based on an extensive literature review, it could argued that in an attempt to define residents' apathy tourism researchers could benefit from the academic research that has been previously developed in different disciplines, mainly: psychology, politics, social and environmental issues. Therefore, it could be useful to discuss apathy and its constructs in each of these disciplines.

Apathy in psychology is defined with two important variables: lack of interest and lack of initiative. Apathy is defined as lack of motivation affecting cognitive, emotional, and behavioral domains and is usually assessed by standardized scales, such as the Apathy Evaluation Scale (AES) in psychology (Raimo et al, 2014). Studies in the psychology provides items and scales to measure these dimensions of apathy. Barriers to a community-based approach could include, for example, lack of overall vision for the community and region or a lack of interest or awareness of tourism on the part of local residents (Wen & Tisdell, 2001) mostly reasoned by the political apathy population feel.

Apathy is more complicated when it is discussed in politics, where it is usually associated with alienation, authoritarianism and anomie. Alienation is the sense of estrangement from a situation, society, group or culture. It is the feeling or state of uninvolvement, of literally being an alien. In other words, it suggests the sense of not belonging which people are believed to suffer from a feeling of isolation, placelessness, powerlessness and meaninglessness. The concept of alienation itself has been investigated with three concepts: normlessness, powerlessness and social isolation (Dean, 1961). In tourism for example Cohen's phenomenology of tourist experiences is based upon the notion that people experiences change with alienation they are experiencing their home environment (Jafari, 2002).

Authoritarianism is favoring complete obedience or subjection to authority as opposed to individual freedom. Authoritarianism and anomie refer to social resignation, and a lack of willingness to stand up against authorities, that lead to political apathy (Van Snippenburg et al, 1991). Sociologically the term of anomie has received huge attention since Durkheim's work on suicide (Dann, 1977). Anomie is a state of normlessness, powerlessness and meaninglessness that pervades society, in contrast to its effects on personality. In tourism research, anomie has been linked to motivation, particularly among people whose dearth of interpersonal contacts in the home environment, such as the elderly, encourages them to look for a sense of belonging elsewhere. It may also be experienced by the relatively privileged who do not perceive the need to seek enhanced status through tourism (Jafari, 2002).

Another important branch of research in apathy was investigated in environmental issues mostly with ecocentrism and anthropocentrism. Ecocentrism was defined 'valuing nature for its own sake' and anthropocentrism, 'valuing nature because of material or physical benefits it can provide for humans'. These scales were found to predict independently conserving behaviors, apathy toward environmental issues (Thompson et al, 1994). Value-basis theory suggest that the value a person attaches to the environment depends on their perception of the environment and consequently the use of its resources (Bruun & Kalland, 1995).

Although the several constructs and subconstructs apathy possesses the apathy is a context specific constructs that tends to be defined in light of the context established. This drives this research that pretends to contribute to the body of knowledge by developing a model to measure residents' apathy in a multiple context situation as it is Tourism.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The literature review paves the way to define the conceptual model to assess how the residents' apathy may influence resident's behaviour towards tourism development.

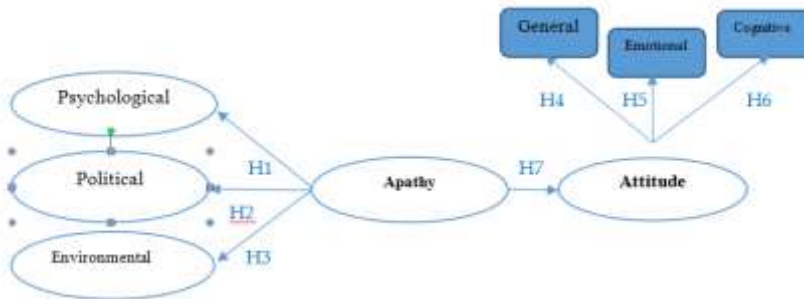


Figure 1. The proposed conceptual model

An antecedent-consequent paradigm were adopted where the multiple context specificities of tourism explained apathy that by definition conditioned resident's behaviours towards tourism. Further attitude is assessed in three dimensions general, cognitive and emotional.

Even though other dimensions of apathy might be considered for the purpose of this research it is assumed that apathy are mostly psychological, political and environmental. The study seeks to test the following hypothesis:

H1: Psychology is an important dimension to explain apathy

H2: Politics is an important dimension to explain apathy

H3: Environment is an important dimension to explain apathy

Attitude is a settled way of thinking or feeling about someone or something, typically one that is reflected in a person's behavior. The attitude comprises a general dimension (H4); emotional (H5) and cognitive (H6). Finally H7 establishes that apathy influences attitude.

METHODOLOGY

For the purposes of this study a survey instrument has been developed based on existing literature devoted to analyze the concept of apathy in tourism. It includes three sections. The first section asks respondents to assess their level of agreement with a list of 39 items specifically selected to measure their level of apathy toward tourism. The second section asks respondents to express their level of agreement toward a list of 17 items used to measure the extent to which they are acting as brand ambassador for their destination (offline and online) and they are willing to support a further tourism development. A 7-point Likert scale is used to obtain their answer (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither disagree nor agree, and 7 = strongly agree). The third section invites respondents to provide their general socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education, etc). Data will be collected through a face-to-face self-administered questionnaire from resident aged

18 or above and residing in two different tourism destination, namely Arzachena-Emerald Coast (Sardinia, Italy) and Lisbon (Portugal). A total of 616 questionnaires are expected to be collected in each tourism destination. We use a three stepwise model EFA, CFA and SEM to be able to test the correlations between constructs and dimensions of proposed conceptual model. The data analysis develops in two phases of analysis. The first phase consisted of an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This allows for the identification of latent variables concerning apathy in several dimensions. At the second phase, a structural model is estimated to evaluate the dimensions toward tourism development. EFA is used as a preliminary technique to find the underlying dimensions or constructs in the data. A subsequent CFA allows for evaluation of the resulting scales. This analysis specifies the relationship between observed variables and latent constructs, and suggests that all the constructs can be intercorrelated freely (Joreskog, 1993).

CONCLUSION

It is expected that the results of present research will help to understand the role of apathy in tourism development and to identify important limitation that could affect the further development in tourism destinations. The research outcomes could be useful and helpful for both researchers and destination marketers/policy makers. On the one hand, the study will provide academia with useful scales to be used to measure residents' apathy toward tourism development in their destination. On the other, practitioners will be provided with useful information to support internal marketing and branding operations aimed at empowering residents and make them willing to support tourism planning and implementation, thus driving the tourism development of the destination consistently with the principles of community-based tourism and collaborative policy making. By reducing level of apathy affecting local community destination marketers and policy makers will hopefully achieve also the goal of enhancing residents' quality of life and their ability to warmly welcome visitors, which in turn tend to increase guest's satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

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After the Mud Bath a Look for Environmental Refugees from Bento Rodrigues-MG

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, an environmental disaster occupies spaces in the national and international media because of its impact on the environment and on people's lives. This accident resulted in three Brazilian states and the Atlantic Ocean, being subject of debate and research. In November of 2015, Bento Rodrigues, subdistrict of Mariana, Minas Gerais, was submerged by water, mud and waste of a large dam ruptured, causing deaths and environmental destruction. Recently, the visitation in Bento Rodrigues was mandatory, with the attractive Ouro Fino Waterfall and the Feast of St. Benedict, the patron subdistrict (Mariana Town Hall, 2016). The county of Mariana is part of the Royal Road circuit that has broad national and international tourist disclosure for its historical, cultural, architectural and culinary. It has an important past, it is a mining center since the eighteenth century and was the first capital from Minas Gerais (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Map of Minas Gerais and Brasil



Source: <http://www.mapas-brasil.net/>

This disaster caused the destruction and disappearance of Bento Rodrigues, but most of its 600 inhabitants managed to save and were housed in hotels in Mariana county hostels, which, until then, were intended for hosting tourists.

Supported by studies on hospitality this article sought to identify the relationships that were established between the owners / managers that shelter residents who have lost all their property to the environmental disaster. Therefore, we had the following objectives: a) to verify the elements that motivated the host by the owners / managers of establishments, environmental refugees; b) to investigate whether the coexistence between the owners / managers of hotels and environmental refugee situations occurred hospitality and / or hostility; c) examine that system - giving and / or commercial - was established the hosting contract of environmental refugees; d) list the losses and gains in social and trade relations for establishments who agreed to host the residents of Bento Rodrigues; and e) the perspective of the owners / managers of establishments, to analyze the effects of the environmental disaster for tourism in Mariana, Minas Gerais.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is possible to understand hospitality as the whole host of actions to guest nice way, based on attributes of certain meetings between hosts and guests, which can be hospitable and, in some cases, hostile. According to Camargo (2008), is not a rule that all meetings take place pervaded by the hospitality.

Lugosi (2008) teaches that hospitality goes beyond the house, provide food and drink and entertain, it has its foundation in human relations, the exchange of experiences in contact and social interaction. And yet, this relationship remains supported by the feeling of generosity and please the guest, recognizing it as an individual (Lashley, 2004).

Through hospitality lenses Darkey and Gurney (2004) analyze the hostility from the perspective of performance and conflicts that arise to accommodate the guest. They claim that this action brings tension to the host to be seen at the possibility of a closer and more continuous interaction with the guest who will transverse regions considered private or restricted access.

Lynch, Molz, McIntosh, Lugosi and Lashley (2011) studied the hospitality grounded in traditions, point out that the concern goes beyond the issues involving guest accommodation, it also takes care of its protection. Thus, when dealing with the hostility of the familiar and what is strange, exemplifying with treatment of refugees and asylum seekers, extending the studies on issues related to citizenship and human rights. The authors bring to this context the notion of hospitality as economic and social exchange based on the values of ethics, protection and shelter, honor and generosity that everyone involved will have to return more than received in order to earn the respect of their peers (Lynch et al., 2011).

It is important to understand that from the moment that the hotels, hostels and other genre began to occupy the place before we booked the houses, many studies on the commercial hospitality began to emerge due to the importance of understanding the changes that occur between the client and host. In this context, there is a commercial operation; it has to be relevant, since what is at issue is customer satisfaction with the service offered, as well as those who offer, as provided to the financial benefit (Camargo, 2008). Generally, in this exchange, there is a contract between the two parties, impersonal character, with specified time and venue set for the pending solution. The complete author stating that, despite the existence of a legal agreement, any establishment confesses his interest only in business (Camargo, 2008).

Taking up the notion of hospitality as economic and social exchange and look for refugees and asylees, include the homeless, specifically those who have been involved in environmental disaster. According to Bates (2002), the United Nations organizations, the conference presented the Stockholm Declaration on the Human Environment and created the United Nations Programme on Environment in order to monitor environmental issues in the world. With this document comes the Environmental Refugees expression, defining

[...] those people who have been forced to leave their traditional habitat, temporarily or permanently, because of a marked environmental disruption (natural and/or triggered by people) that jeopardized their existence and/or seriously affected the quality of their life [sic]. By 'environmental disruption' in this definition is meant any physical, chemical, and/or biological changes in the ecosystem (or resource base) that render it, temporarily or permanently, unsuitable to support human life (Bates, 2002, p. 466)

This problem gradually began to occupy spaces in academic studies and media, as often this category is seen in the possibility of ever returning to their place of origin, from environmental destruction occurred (Goffman, 2006). And this is a social reality that deserves academic and legal attention.

METHODOLOGY

This research is presented as a study of multiple case, exploratory, considering that this area has limited knowledge and systematization thus does not involve assumptions for its probing nature (Vergara, 2003, p. 47). It is descriptive for exposing aspects of a given population, without the commitment to establish correlations between variables or offer explanations for the phenomena described (Vergara, 2003).

The data were collected through the snowball technique, which is a non-probabilistic sample, which is characteristic of the indication of new research participants for the initial participants, and so on, until reaching the saturation point and without the addition of new (World Health Association, 1994). This technique

sets up on a network that has more reliable information for research. The reference chain provides significant amount of information about all members who are part of the research group (Albuquerque, 2009). As a collection instrument used the semi structured interview applied in eight owners / managers of hotels and hostels, from a universe of 16 establishments that housed the Bento Rodrigues refugees.

For data analysis used content analysis, the categorization technique proposed by Bardin (1977, p. 115), which is "a sort operation of the components of a set, for differentiation and subsequently by regrouping according to gender (analogy), with pre-defined criteria".

RESULTS

Of the eight owners / managers indicated one was willing not to grant the interview - even though the schedule - on the grounds that their answers would be the same as those of other respondents. It sought to the statement of another respondent, who also refused to participate, claiming that certain issues should be forgotten. Thus, based on the results of the data collected, it was considered that:

- a) the acceptance happened enveloped by the spirit of solidarity and to put in another situation: "Imagine! It could have happened to me or my relative! You never know what will happen in the future "[HG]. Six respondents were adamant that the experienced situation was terrible, could not think of no help and shelter, "They were coming here with nothing, dirty, scared [...]" [HP].
- b) all they said that there was no hostility between them, but that there were conflicts caused by others: "[...] started to get people interested, curious ... made equal to [...], not only relatives close but lawyers, journalists [...]. It was then that we realized that the house was vulnerable "[HC]. The owners established visitation rules, which caused unease among the curious and interested to realize that was restricted access to the rooms of refugees. As for hospitality, revealed If the host and the protection afforded to refugees:.. "we had to control the entry of people, because they had many children here You do not know who is coming" [HC] decision also adopted by HP, HM and HG respondents. HT, HA and HL claimed they were not required to adopt such measures.
- c) in five establishments hosting occurred the donation system: "At first the hotel would not accept anyone because we would get a very large group of London, but the shock took over [...] canceled the reservation [...] we put all our beds available to the [mining] "[HP]. HC explained that just received [...] when I got my daughter had already begun to receive people from Benedict. I do not even know if I realize. Then the [mining] came to us and hit stays. Only HL said that refugees only reached their establishment after contact [mining]. All they stated that [mining] has borne all the costs of hosting and everything was paid.

- d) all them stated that there was no loss in social relations, on the contrary, the accident strengthened the relationship with the refugees and the mining company. They revealed that the losses were caused by the media, by misrepresenting the event: "Everyone is thinking that Mariana is covered in mud" [HC]. Supplementing, HT, HA, HP, HL and HG to analyze on hotel occupancy in the city: "Today, the movement is 10%" (HM).
- e) the outlook is negative, it does not perceive the involvement of municipal government, state and federal, "everyone is wanting to earn money from fines that have been applied, but do not realize that [mining] must return to operate, otherwise, here become a ghost town "[HC]. "What it [mining] was wrong, it was wrong. But everyone here needs working it "[HP], an opinion that has the agreement of all participants.

CONCLUSION

It is considered that the hospitality between the parties was the basis for the tragedy was not worse for the refugees. The relationships established over the years contributed to the trust, acceptance and protection of environmental refugees by the time they are placed in their temporary homes, but also to the unity of the local population towards the possible return of the mining activities.

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Consumer Information Technologies in Intercultural Tourism: A Case Study of Chinese Outbound Backpackers

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INTRODUCTION

Backpacker sociality is a networking sociality, which is created through intersecting movements between physical and virtual space (Castells, 2002). Interweaving with physical sociality, Chinese backpackers (CBs) are highly active on their virtual world. This study focuses on connectedness of CBs and their daily social networks through Information Communication Technologies (ICTs). CBs with embedded Chinese values therefore tend to practice and perceive information services uniquely. This paper aims to explore the relationships among cultural values, information services perceptions and adoption, as well as how these services affect CBs perception of the value of technology. To achieve this aim, we investigate the use and acceptance of information technologies by Chinese outbound backpackers in Europe, by exploring their perceptions, practice and preferences of different types of ICT services in an intercultural context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Confucian value of Harmony, has been regarded as the foundation of Chinese values (Bond, 1986; Fan, 2000) and significantly impact the pattern of social interactions (Chen, 2002). The influence mainly reflected in the determination of built up connections called '*guanxi*', which is a fundamental factor in Chinese society (Lin, 2011). Chinese believe the establishment of *guanxi* in the initial stage of group communication has vital impact on the harmonious interactions.

According to Reisinger and Turner (1998), Chinese cultures are regarded as high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance and collectivistic cultures whilst

Western cultures are opposite. In terms of power distance, Chinese society tends to be more socially hierarchical, obedient and cooperative. Furthermore, with the influence of collectivism, Hsu (1971) emphasizes Chinese are social and psychological dependent on others and have a strong group orientation; therefore individualistic behaviour is regarded as expense to others. Reisinger and Turner (1998) conclude that in Chinese culture, there are more rules of obedience, avoidance of conflict, and 'face' issues, it is essential to maintain harmonious relations and Chinese tend to control and restrain emotional expressions. Chinese culture and values influence significantly on the formations of attitudes, perceptions and behaviours, leads the distinct characteristics of CBs.

CBs rely highly on ICT during travel (Lim, 2009). Molz (2006) argues the visibility in this social relation incorporated by online travel websites: On one hand, online audience can see the world through travellers' gaze by formats of photography, video and texts; on the other hand, backpackers make themselves visible through various ways. The issue of surveillance has been addressed in discussions between mobilities and ICT (Molz, 2006; Green, 2002). Backpackers are watched by their audience through social media or online forums, which brings both positive and negative repercussion for mobile social relations (Cooper, 2002). Having a constant presence online can be seen as positive, which allows continual communication for backpackers, who are hypermobile and do not follow planned itineraries. However, this constant presence might also make backpackers feel oppressive. For some backpackers, with the influence of one-child policy, they are expected to keep updates in order to appease worried relatives and friends. These updates thus become supplied surveillance from their parents to know where they are and know whether they are safe or not, which to some extent limit their freedom of travelling. Travellers can always be contacted by any means of social media or instant messengers; therefore, they can never hide or escape from this implied surveillance. Molz (2006) suggests the expectation of visibility and availability by audience through online social networks may exacerbate rather than appease.

It therefore becomes necessary for us to understand how ICT is being used in this context. To better understand how consumers perceive and derive value from the ICT services they use, McKenna et al. (2013) derived a model (Figure 1) which combines the Theory of Organizational Information Services (TIOS) (Mathiassen & Sørensen, 2008) with the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003).

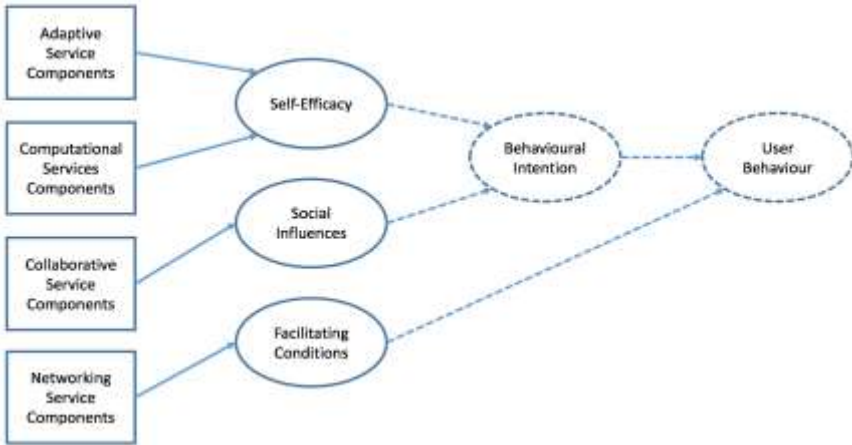


Figure 1. Research Model of Mckenna Et Al. (2013)

The model was created based on several propositions, and the actual mapping of services to the variables (dashed lines) has not been explored. This paper gives us the opportunity to explore these relationships in an intercultural context.

The model proposes that when particular ICT service types are being used by consumers, that certain use and acceptance variables also apply to the use of that ICT service. TIOIS defines the service types as follows:

- *Computational service* components support users in transforming available and formalized information into stimuli by following standardized and repeatable patterns of information processing.
- *Adaptive service* components interpret and transform available and emergent information into stimuli by adapting patterns of information processing to specific contexts.
- *Networking service components* aid users in producing information on phenomena in an environment by following standardized and repeatable patterns of information processing.
- *Collaborative service components* support users in producing information about phenomena in an environment through interpretation of the specific context (Mathiassen & Sørensen, 2008; McKenna, Tuunanen, & Gardner, 2013).

The UTAUT model defines the variables as follows:

- *Self-efficacy*: the judgment of one's ability to use a technology to accomplish a particular job or task.

- *Social influence*: the degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe that he or she should use the new system.
- *Facilitating conditions*: the degree to which an individual believes that an organizational and technical infrastructure exists to support use of the system (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

METHODOLOGY

To achieve an understanding of CBs perception and practice of ICT, a mobile ethnographic study was adopted. Three ethnographic studies were undertaken between June 2014 to December 2014 by following three different groups of CBs in Europe using participant observations and in-depth interviews. Data was also collected through China's biggest online travel forum Qyer.com, instant messenger, social networking applications such as Wechat, as well as everyday practice of ICTs.

The data was applied to the model of McKenna et al. (2013). A task based analysis was performed to determine how CB use different service types. This involved understanding the steps involved in using a service. The tasks were then able to be mapped to each of the four service types from the model. This then further enabled us to explore the use and acceptance variables for each service type.

RESULTS

Our findings are illustrated in Figure 2. In the example services, the bolded and underlined text represents ICT service tasks that are typically carried out by CBs. The remainder of the tasks are for backpackers generally. Our findings show that CBs mostly use collaborative services throughout their trips. Collaborative services are highly linked with social influences, which align with collectivistic values of Chinese culture. These services produce information by sharing travel information and updating safety status in backpackers' social circle. Chinese collectivistic culture and high uncertainty are main motivations of small group travel. CBs look for travel companions online to avoid uncertainty of the foreign environment.

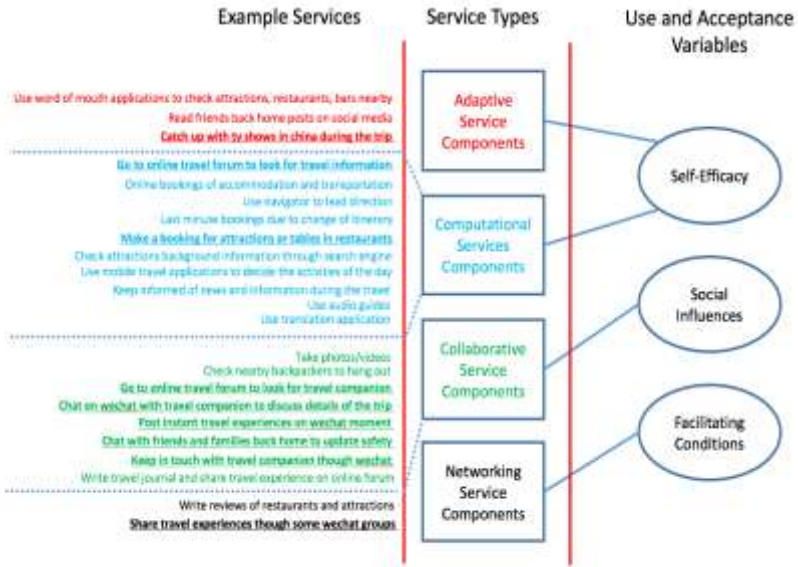


Figure 2. Results of The Study

The maintenance of '*guanxi*' largely affects Chinese usage of information services. On one hand, CBs want to maintain the status of connectedness with their social circles, on the other hand, some CBs took detailed considerations about frequencies and the content of their posts. Constantly posting on Wechat during the trip is a preferable way for CBs to keep family members and loved ones who worry about their safety informed. In Chinese culture, relationship between generations is comparatively close; furthermore, in the past thirty years, Chinese one-child policy had enormous social impacts that the new generation become the core of the family. As a result, 'excessive attention' from parents (Zhu, 2009) leads the prior concern of safety when their kids undertake a long-haul journey.

The next most used service type was computational services which are highly linked to self-efficacy. This service type allows backpackers to fulfil the trip smoothly and relates to how CBs use technologies to assist themselves for travel related activities. This relates strongly to general backpacker culture which suggest independence and learning new skills throughout the trip. One key characteristic of backpackers is they are relatively information sensitive. With availabilities of the Internet, they are able to apply multiple tools and technologies to assist them to accomplish various tasks. For CBs, they particularly prioritise 'learning through backpacking'.

Our findings also show that the least used services are adaptive and networking services. Adaptive services, which are also linked to self-efficacy, allow the

CBs like to use technologies which enable them to integrate their daily lifestyle (from home) into their trip. These types of services need to be easy to use without the user needing to ask for help. Maintaining connectedness also enable CBs to get access to their mundane lives. Although most informants expected to escape their daily lives when backpacking, they faced challenges of this escapism when the Internet was connected.

In networking services, CBs are able to create networks to link together geographically separated travellers. In these networks, backpackers are free to produce information of travel tips, experiences and reviews available for others to use as a travel reference. CBs try to avoid uncertainty and risk by gathering travel information from multiple sources before the trip. This information is in high demand by other CBs therefore there are many popular platforms available to produce information in various forms. Therefore, facilitating conditions are important for this activity as Internet based platforms are available for backpacker communities to share, exchange, and obtain travel information through digital formats such as chat groups and online discussion forums.

CONCLUSION

This study has explored the role that culture values play the research model by examining the the relationship between service types and use and acceptance variables. This study contributes in several ways. It is the first paper to explore the relationship between the service types and the use and acceptance variables by applying the model in an intercultural tourism context. The study also found that Chinese prefer to use mostly collaborative services which proves that Chinese collectivist values can be implemented through ICT.

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Constructing a Typology of Backpacker from a Cross-cultural Perspective

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INTRODUCTION

The term 'backpacker' has been used in the travel literature since the 1970s (Richards & Wilson, 2004a). In the same period of time, Erik Cohen initiated the study of backpacker tourism by distinguishing non-institutionalized tourists from the institutionalized ones (Cohen, 1972) and further pointed out that drifters - the prototype of contemporary backpackers- pursued 'experimental' or 'existential' experiences in travel, unlike the mass tourists (Cohen, 1979, 2003). As the long-haul, long-term independent travel has gained its popularity in western societies since the 1990s, especially among the young people (Kevin Hannam & Ateljevic, 2008; O'Reilly, 2006; Richards & Wilson, 2004b), the study of backpacker increased significantly. Through survey, scholars like Laurie Loker-Murphy and Philip L. Pearce (1995) clarified the definitional elements of backpackers, including a preference for budget accommodation, an emphasis on meeting other people, an independently organized and flexible travel schedule, longer rather than brief holidays, and an emphasis on informal and participatory holiday activities. Followed empirical studies of budget travelers in general are consistent with Loker-Murphy and Pearce's study (Larsen, Øgaard, & Brun, 2011; Richards & Wilson, 2004b).

Nevertheless, more and more scholars have indicated an emerging diversity and increasing heterogeneity of backpackers (Cohen, 2003; Kevin Hannam & Ateljevic, 2008). The hallmarks of backpackers suggested above focusing on their social and behavioral characteristics have been challenged by researchers who put an emphasis on the cultural and social contexts of backpacking, as more and more studies focused on backpackers from non-western, non-Anglo-Saxon, background

(Bui, Wilkins, & Lee, 2014; Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014; Kawashima, 2010; Kyung-Sup & Min-Young, 2010; Noy & Cohen, 2012). In the meantime, the new technological context and a globalized culture also have a great impact on today's backpacking culture (K Hannam & Diekmann, 2010; Richards, 2015).

However, most research attempted to explore the role culture may play in backpackers' motivation and behavior, while very little noticed how backpacker was understood and interpreted in different cultures and countries. Therefore, this study attempts to construct a typology of backpacker from a cross-cultural perspective. More specifically, this study has three research questions: first, how different cultures and societies understand backpacker and what the hallmarks of backpacker respectively; second, why the understanding of backpacker varies from country to country and what are the potential historical and social factors; third, how the typology proposed by this research may contribute to the backpacking study by filling the research gaps between theory and practice, as well as different cultures.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are two different approaches towards the definition of backpacker. First is to describe crucial characteristics directly, suggested by Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) as stated above. This approach is especially well-accepted by quantitative research because it served as a practical operationalization tool, although research in different contexts always adjust the criteria. For example, since the public holidays and paid holidays in developing countries such as China are relatively fewer than in countries such as the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Japan, the question about how far and how long to travel in order to be a backpacker necessitates an inquiry (Chen et al., 2014). The second approach of definition is suggested by Erik Cohen. Based on the tourist's individual tastes and preferences as well as the institutional setting of the trip, Cohen (1972) proposed a typology of four tourist roles to show a continuum of combinations of novelty and familiarity. Similarly, based on the cognitive-normative dimension, he developed five modes of touristic experiences, namely the recreational, the diversionary, the experiential, the experimental, and the existential, according to traveler's motivation and attitudes towards daily life (Cohen, 1979). This approach contributes to a comprehensive understanding of backpacking by putting it in the whole picture of tourism. However, similar to the description approach, it fails to show the diversity of historical and national contexts of backpacker. Moreover, previous backpacker studies have focused predominantly on Western European, North American and Australasian travellers. Their pursuit of challenge and adventure as well as self-actualization and personal growth are portrayed linking to the core cultural values of Americans, British and Australians (Laing, 2005). Furthermore, the proposed change from drifters to backpackers and backpackers to flashpackers mainly mirrors the changing socio-cultural and technological circumstances of the contempo-

rary West, with a linear historical perspective (Cohen, 2003; K Hannam & Diekmann, 2010; O'Reilly, 2006).

Since the 2000s, an increasing number of research on backpackers from non-western societies reveals the diversity and heterogeneity of backpacking, as a practice and as a concept. The study of Israeli backpackers illustrates how backpacking has been developed into a rite of passage by young people after their mandatory military service (Noy & Cohen, 2012). While the study of East Asian backpackers shows the role of culture played in interpreting backpacking experience (Bui et al., 2014). The dual facets of liminal experiences, namely escape from pressures at home and a strong commitment to home, largely resulted from the filial piety culture in East Asian countries. Additionally, researches on Japanese working holiday markers in Australia (Kawashima, 2010) and South Korean working holidaymakers in Canada (Kyung-Sup & Min-Young, 2010) both pointed out such experience in western societies has a great impact on these Asian travelers' personal life. The most recent comparative study of backpackers from Australasia and backpackers from Asian countries clarified the shared values and the differences in the backpacker culture of the two groups (Paris, Musa, & Thirumoorthi, 2014). In addition to the social and cultural factors, the policies and strategies towards backpacking implemented by different countries and commercial operators also influence people's understanding and interpretation of backpacker (Zhu & Lv, 2007). For example, Australia and New Zealand firstly recognized the significance of backpacker tourism by supporting the Youth Hostel Association and introducing the working holiday visa. Although more and more research have pointed out the importance of national and cultural contexts in backpacking study, the question of how backpacker was understood and interpreted in different countries and the reason have not been fully addressed. Therefore, this study aims to develop a typology of backpacker that can display the diversity and heterogeneity of backpacking.

METHODOLOGY

This study employs semi-structured interview, participatory observation and narrative analysis of travel blogs as research methods. One author interviewed 30 Chinese backpackers and conducted participatory observation in the youth hostels of China and the United Kingdom in 2014 and 2015. Another author did interviews and participatory observation as a part of a continuous research program in recent 14 years by the on-and-off backpacking travel practice in the United States, Canada and the Caribbean area. As the research theme, the definition and understanding of backpacker and backpacking were answered by interviewees from various countries and cultural backgrounds such as China, Malaysia, the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Israel. In addition, based on netnography, twenty-six representative blogs about Yangshuo, a world famous backpacker hub in China, have been selected from mainstream western and Chinese traveler's

websites (Zhu, forthcoming). Content analysis of these blogs aims to compare the travel experience in the natural setting between western and Chinese backpackers.

RESULTS

With one dimension of the travel's length and expense and another dimension of the preferred activities, the study proposes a four-quadrant typology of backpacker and suggests four major backpacker types. Each of these four quadrants supports a different bias resulted from national and cultural differences, but the typology also demonstrates how different characteristics of backpacker interrelated with each other.

More importantly, the study is interested in exploring if certain backpacker could change from one type to another and how. Different factors such as the change of individual life stage, the travel companions, the employed communications technologies and the transportation system in destinations all have a great impact on the backpacker's motivation and behavior. In a word, this four-quadrant typology of backpacker not only illustrates the national and cultural differences of backpacking, but also displays how they related and interacted.

CONCLUSION

The current study contributes to academia by showing the diversity and heterogeneity of backpacker from a cross-cultural perspective. The results also have some merits for the industry because the government and commercial operators can develop accurate marketing strategies according to the specific cultural and social context. With a further analysis of how travel cultures, institutional infrastructures, policies, resources and other relevant factors in different countries shaped people's understanding of backpacker, this study moves beyond the boundary of tourism and makes a contribution to sociology. The typology of backpacker provides a tool to examine how the individual and social structure mutually constructed and interacted in the context of tourism.

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Identifying Basic Differences between Turkish Tourists' Sub-Groups: The Case of Thessaloniki's Tourists

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INTRODUCTION

This paper tries to describe the important demographic aspects that are critical to define behavioral differences between sub-groups of tourists and more specifically between the Turkish tourists of Thessaloniki (Greece). The results yielded useful findings regarding their travel habits, the role and influence of travel and suspension of Word of Mouth. Also, expectations were measured and evaluated by their journey and the quality of service. The structure of the paper consists basically of three parts. The first part is the literature review, the second part is the expression of the statistical hypotheses and tests and the last part is the conclusion and administrative suggestions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A better understanding of the perceptions of the tourist experience, improves service performance in the tourism sector. Literature implies that the quality of service experience is directly related to the emotional responses of tourists. 'Product' in the tourism sector, is defined as the experience delivered from one destination to its visitors (Chen & Chen, 2010). The general term of the tourist experience is defined in the scientific literature from Killion model (1992), which was simplified by Craig-Smith and French (1994), through observation of the three linear stages, in which future experience can be gained by updating on the past existing experiences. In specificity, the future behavioural intentions are suggested to be not only an outcome of satisfaction and attitude towards destinations, but also experience-based measures such as previous experiences with the subject (Mazursky, 1989).

Ritchie and Crouch (2003) make an important observation concerning activities, claiming that the real reason for a tourist to visit a destination is to have active role and participate in activities that will stimulate the moment. In trying to make a destination attractive and competitive, it is important to ensure that the destination offers a wide range of activities to create a sense of memorable.

The literature has concluded that customer satisfaction depends on the value of the product or service, which in turn depends on the price paid for the product or service (De Ruyter, Bloemer, & Peeters, 1997).

Customer experience and satisfaction are interwoven with the quality of service, which can only be examined by holistically and subjective personal experiences (Fick & Ritchie, 1991).

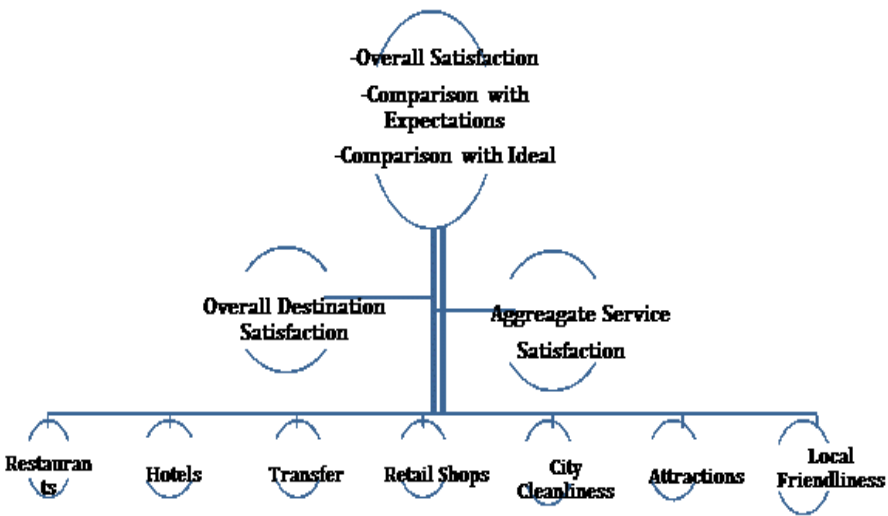


Figure 1. Suggested Aggregation Model of Tourist Satisfaction Index

In literature, interest focuses on perceived quality, which is defined as the consumer's judgment about the overall superiority of an entity (Zeithaml, 1987). Cam (2011) defines perceived quality as the evaluation of a combination of five different attributes/facets, such as environment, infrastructure and accessibility, culture and social, tourist leisure and entertainment and local food.

As the quality of service and customer's satisfaction is intertwined conceptually, a series of studies, (ACSI), attributed the perceived quality precedes satisfaction (Figure 2).



Figure 2. Cumulative Tourist Service Quality Model
 Source: <http://www.theacsi.org/>

Quality and Satisfaction

Quality has a positive effect on satisfaction.	Fornell <i>et al.</i> (1996)
The price has a positive effect on satisfaction and loyalty	Johnson <i>et al.</i> (2001)
Satisfaction positively affects the faith	Kotler (2003)
Tourist satisfaction has a positive effect on emotional commitment and an indirect effect on loyalty.	Müller, Rauski, Eyng and Moreira (2005)
Satisfaction is not the only determinant of the intention to revisit the destination.	Court and Lupton 1997 Kozak and Rimmington 1999

Satisfaction is defined as a psychological condition which results when the emotion surrounding unconfirmed expectations and is linked to earlier consumer feelings about the consumer experience (Oliver, 1981). According to Rittichai-nuwat et al (2001), part of the satisfaction concerning the business tourism, is caused by the participation in other activities such as shopping, sightseeing, culture, food, etc. A similar research, conducted to Japanese tourists who visited Australia, Mastrer and Prideaux (2000) indicates the importance of maritime activities, shopping, etc., on satisfaction. From other surveys stems the conclusion that the term satisfaction includes features of the experience of participatory activities that will introduce them to the culture of the destination (Reisigner & Turner, 1997). According to Sureshchandar et al. (2002), customer satisfaction reflects the feelings of the customer, his experience of the provider and the quality of services

may be affected by perceptions of value (value for money) or the third negative experiences.

Concerning Destination Competitiveness & Sustainability, characteristics of Qualifying and Amplifying Determinants is location, security/safety, cost/value, interdependencies, awareness/image and carrying capacity (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). It is significant to be mentioned that the higher the number of repeat of tourists to the same destination and the higher the frequency, the more it is attractive and competitive in the market. However, many tourists have experiences with other destinations. It is, therefore, expected that visitors are likely to make comparisons between facilities, attractions and service standards (Kozak, 2001b).

METHODOLOGY

Firstly, we try to describe the sample characteristics (3 – month period sampling procedure in the year 2015) with descriptive statistics. At the next step, we use correlation analysis to define, using statistical tests, the important differences within the Turkish tourist segment. In this survey sought to collect 200 objective and general data, which then will be converted into statistics to make comparisons between the different variables and to produce objective explanations for the causes or relationships between variables, which will be an objective and general theory. The fact that purely Turkish tourists were chosen is because of the lack of promulgations and measurable results for them as tourist potential candidate audience while the agents and practitioners of Thessaloniki show excessive interest in this particular market. In 2014, according to the Association of Hoteliers of Thessaloniki, Turkish tourists accomplished 50.656 overnights, which rank them third in the top 20 nationalities tourist traffic in Thessaloniki.

RESULTS

The 14.9% of the sample answered that travels once a year, while 62.7% travels twice or three times a year. The average number of overnights in Thessaloniki amounts to $1,02 \pm 1,01$ days. Evaluating the quality of services provided to them, the highest percentage of respondents (72%) are satisfied with their accommodation at the hotel, while higher is the degree of satisfaction of respondents from the cleanliness of the city, since the figure is equal to 86.5%. Moreover, 76.6% is the percentage of respondents stating moderately satisfied with the ease of movement in the city of Thessaloniki, while extremely high appears to be the degree of satisfaction of respondents concerning the food in the city of Thessaloniki and slightly lower the level of satisfaction of respondents concerning the value for money of the trip. The survey studied the desired activities that Turkish tourists would like to be included in their journey. Respondents reported water sports (39.2%) and sailing (25.5%).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Means	S.D	%
Length of Stay	1,02	1,01	
Satisfaction			
	Hotel Accomodation		72,0%
	City Cleanliness		86,5%
	Ease of Transpotration		76,6%
	Food		94,2%
	Value for Money		85,7%
Gender (Women)			50,8%
Travel Reviews			59,2%
Destination Thessaloniki	Sailing		25,5%
	Water Sports		39,2%

Moving on correlation variable assessment of services provided to visitors in Thessaloniki by grouping the variables listed in the intensity of satisfaction with these services, in relation to the frequency with which respondents travel, there are not significant differences arise in the averages rankings of concentrator degree of service evaluation ($p=0,456$).

Therefore, Hypothesis 1: The frequency of travel for visitors in Thessaloniki is positively related to the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to the city, is not confirmed.

According to the survey, 59.2% of them are willing to post criticism from an experience regarding their trip to the Thessaloniki and 12.3% to a negative answer to the corresponding question. At the same time, it does not show a statistically significant correlation of intention of respondents to post travel reviews on them by their travel experiences in Thessaloniki, regarding the evaluation of the services received by visitors to the observed significance level of the corresponding control cases also higher than $\alpha=0,05$ and equal to 0,684.

Therefore, Hypothesis 2: The intention of suspension travel reviews concerning parts of their experience of their trip to Thessaloniki is related to the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to Thessaloniki, is not confirmed by the analysis of the scoreboard.

Also, it is observed a positive and statistically significant correlation of Pearson's evaluation between services and the length of respondents' accommodation in Thessaloniki ($r = 0,438$, $p = 0,041$).

Therefore, Hypothesis 3: The length of accommodation of visitors in Thessaloniki

is positively associated with the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to the city, is confirmed by the analysis of the scoreboard.

Statistically significant differences via t control corresponding observed in evaluating the quality of service on the part of the respondents based on their gender ($p = 0,048$), as represented in Table 6. In particular, women are better assessing the services provided to them on their trip to Thessaloniki in relation to men, focusing on general data of respondents initially was observed that 50.8% of the samples are women and 49.2% are men.

Therefore, Hypothesis 4: The gender is related to evaluation of services provided to visitors of the city during their visit to the city, is confirmed.

Summarizing, two of the hypotheses were valid while the other two were not. So, according to findings, the gender is related to the evaluation of services provided to visitors of the city during their visit to the city. Furthermore, the length of accommodation of visitors in Thessaloniki is positively related to the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to the city.

On the other hand, the hypothesis that the frequency of travel for visitors in Thessaloniki is positively related to the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to the city was not verified. Also, the hypothesis that the intention for posting travel critics concerning the activities of visitors in Thessaloniki is related to the evaluation of the services provided to them during their visit to the city was not verified.

CONCLUSION

The paper presents important managerial implications for the administrative parts and contributors, with the scope to enlarge the tourism period and to target better, based on the demographic differences of the visitors. Tourism is recognized as one of the key areas of development for destinations and for maintaining competitiveness and demand rates high, plays an important role in the high satisfaction ratio and intensity of the evaluation of services, namely the perceived quality offered to tourists. Experiential marketing focuses on customer experiences and replaces sensory, emotional, behavioural and rational values with functional values. The indicators for monitoring capacity of Thessaloniki to deliver quality and competitive tourist services remain rather insufficient and partially uneven in terms of content. In addition, important can be called the finding that confirms the correlation between gender and evaluation component that can shift the Thessaloniki strategy in tempting incentive practices to the female gender.

Similarly, there is no confirmed correlation between service evaluation and intensification of travel review, which is a worrisome discovery, knowing that Thessaloniki made repeated efforts to upgrade the services being provided as an incentive to attract technological feedback both negative and positive, in an aim to promote correlation from all different parties. However, it is significant to be noted that

59.2% of respondents are willing to post a review of their experience and also striking is the result of the overwhelming majority of respondents to answer in percentage 92.7%, have received a positive image for trip to Thessaloniki reading post from a travel blogger.

At this point, it is proposed to the operators of Thessaloniki to focus on enriching their packages with activities, as well as the results of our survey gave variety tourism species intend to try Turkish tourists and numerous activities that will allow them to feel that they are actively involved with the experiences.

In this context the Thessaloniki could organize hospitality for travel bloggers who will represent a kind of Turkish guest (luxury, budget, family, culture, shopping, gastronomy, nightlife roundtrips) where they will be invited to experience "Thessaloniki moments". During their hospitality and accommodation, they will be allowed to manage all contemporary city social networking combined with their own social media, to disseminate their experience in the Turkish market.

Similarly promising and encouraging are the findings, that the degree to which respondents answer that in this journey do something that they like is very high, while relevant is the degree of agreement to statement that on this trip they do something memorable that enriches their life.

Finally, the indicators for monitoring the correlation between the assessment and the number of overnights confirmed that the placement of Thessaloniki can be based on the attractiveness and the extension of the promising experience. That said, a future research it would be reasonable to relate the variety of activities in relation to the number of overnights, in order to study whether it would be reasonable motive for prolonging the tourist city residence.

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Visitors Experiences, Expectation and Satisfaction in Trade Shows and Exhibition in Malaysia

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INTRODUCTION

Customer experience has become a very commonly used phrase in recent years, but like “innovation” and “design” it is actually difficult to find a clear, commonly held definition, even though many businesses see improving their customer experience as a competitive differentiator. Customer experience is the practice of designing and reacting to customer interactions for the purpose of meeting or exceeding customer expectations, thereby, increasing customer satisfaction, loyalty and advocacy. In consumer goods markets, many companies have recently adopted marketing practices centered on a more holistic view of consumers and their relationships with brands based on an emotional rather than a rational approach to consumption and marketing stimuli. This new approach, which puts consumer experiences at the centre of marketing practices, gained momentum at the end of the 1990s thanks to the publication of some best selling management books. Specifically, the perspective considers experiences as a new category of supply as different from services as services are different from goods (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, 1999; Gilmore & Pine, 2002).

Creating an experience that truly impresses customers and exceeds expectations ensures that they will want to continue doing business with you. Proponents suggest that by creating memorable and complex customer experiences comprising different but interrelated elements (e.g. cognitive as well

as emotional, behavioral as well as relational), marketers can obtain a competitive advantage over rival firms (Schmitt, 1999; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Moreover, monitoring and managing these experiences may increase customer satisfaction increased considerably (Berry et al., 2002).

From the ivory towers of academic debate, this experience centric view of consumption started to influence managerial practice when a few best selling management books popularized the implications of such research on effective marketing. Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) and Gilmore and Pine (2002) suggested that experiences are a new supply category, as distinct from services as services are distinct from material goods. Schmitt's (1999) synthesis of basic findings in consumer research provided marketers with a "how to" handbook on creating experiences. By deploying "experience providers" such as product design and packaging, store atmosphere, human resources' behaviour, advertising, etc., firms can create a competitive advantage in terms of product differentiation, brand image, customer satisfaction and loyalty (Schmitt, 1999; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). The purpose of these study is to examine visitor experiences across different stands and other event areas at the trade show and exhibition; to identify visitor expectation with the different exhibitors and with other visitors; to identify visitor satisfaction through their evaluations of different experiences at the Malaysian trade show and exhibition. Finally this research also would like to propose a new perspective to see business visitor behavior from an experiential standpoint.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The meeting, incentives, convention, and exhibition business (MICE) generally comprises small to medium sized organizations, and is not as formally integrated as many other industries. The sector does, however, maintain a high degree of continuity and consistency in what is a complex and diverse area of business activity through ongoing exchanges among industry organizations and via regular forums. Tradeshows, along with other large group sessions, are part of the meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions (MICE) sector and constitute a major global economic activity.

Trade shows, trade fairs or trade exhibitions may vary in their names, but the basic function of all these events is the same. A trade show is an event that brings the manufacturers of products, suppliers, distributors, potential customers, and all those related service providers who manage to set up the exhibition of their products under one roof, in a given period of time and at a specific location or venue. While according to Oxford dictionary, exhibition is an event where a public display of works of art or items of interest, held in an art gallery or museum or at a trade fair.

Wikipedia (2013) defines a trade show as: "An exhibition organized so that companies in a specific industry can showcase and demonstrate their latest products and services, study activities of rivals and examine recent market trends

and opportunities." The event has two features: a defined time frame and is held periodically. A trade shows aims to match interests among the organizers, exhibitors, and visitors and, thus, Kotler (2000) classified trade shows as constituting a means of sales promotion. Governments, chambers of commerce, industry associations, or specialized exhibition companies usually organize trade shows. They can be classified into the following types according to their characteristics (Wen & Duan, 2008).

- By origin of participants: international, national, regional, and local trade shows. They range from large to small areas according to origin of exhibitors and visitors.
- By range of goods offered: including universal/general, special interest, and industry-specific trade shows (Gopalakrishna & Williams, 1992).
- By audience: including business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-customer (B2C) shows. Consumer fairs are open to the public, while company representatives and the press can only attend others; thus, trade shows can be classified as "public" or "trade only".

From visibility to credibility, exhibiting at a trade show has hundreds of benefits for your business. Establishing a presence, whether big or small, for your company at a trade show gives you a powerful platform for meeting new customers, reaching out to your existing client, and building a more established and reliable brand. Trade shows and exhibition have increasingly been considered as effective product promotional events. Trade shows have also constituted a multi-billion dollar business all over the world (Dekimpe, Francois, Gopalakrishna, Lilien & Bulte, 1997).

The significance and importance of trade shows and exhibition have been increasingly researched and well documented in international marketing literature. Trade shows are recognized as effective marketing tools that boost the firm's ability to compete and succeed in the rapidly changing global business environment (Seringinghaus & Rosson, 1998). The usefulness of trade shows is a unique medium for new product introduction, meeting with large numbers of potential customers, suppliers and distributor etc. Trade shows are also considered as a cultural phenomenon enabling them to understanding of different cultures from all over the world under one roof (Ling, 2008).

Tradeshows are an essential instrument in the marketing of goods and services since they provide vendors a very focused platform for communication and exchange with customers of different kind (Kirchgeorg, 2005). Thus, the fair and tradeshow business itself today has become an international multi-billion dollar industry (Hansen 2004), in which trade fair organizers earn the biggest share of sales with exhibitors, who are paying fees for exhibition services. As other services, tradeshows come along with intangible elements and a high degree of customer integration as co-producer of perceived service quality at the point of

service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Thus, vendors strive for achieving a high level of customer satisfaction in order to foster desired customer attitude and behavior like e.g. intention to buy, positive word of mouth and purchase or repurchase behavior (Keaveney, 1995). Measurement and evaluation of customer satisfaction, specifically exhibitors' and visitors' satisfaction therefore are key success factors for every trade fair and public fair organizer.

Literature on trade shows has also not so far adopted an experiential perspective, even if trade shows are one of the few cases of business-to-business experiential marketing cited in the most popular books on experiential marketing (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Trade show participation represents a significant share of the promotional budget of firms operating in business markets (Shipley & Wong, 1993; CERMES, 2007) and, not surprisingly, scholars have long tried to provide industrial marketers with guidance on cost-effectiveness issues. Over the years, existing trade show scholarship has provided a body of knowledge that can assist industrial marketing managers in three key decisions (Hansen, 1996; Munuera & Ruiz, 1999):

1. How to select the “right” trade shows among the many competing events present in the market (e.g. Bonoma, 1983; Gopalakrishna & Williams, 1992; Kijewski et al., 1993; Shoham, 1992);
2. How to manage trade show participation effectively (e.g. Godar & O'Connor, 2001); and
3. How to measure trade show performance and returns on investments (e.g. Sashi & Perretty, 1992; Williams et al., 1993; Gopalakrishna & Lilien, 1995; Gopalakrishna et al., 1995; Sharlang & Balogh, 1996; Hansen, 2004; Tanner, 2002; Seringhaus & Rosson, 1998).

Literature discussing trade show visitors has, on the other hand, been much more limited. This scholarship (e.g. Moriarty & Spekman, 1984; Bello, 1992; Bello & Lohtia, 1993; Rosson & Seringhaus, 1995) has shed light on trade show audience composition and visitor motives for attending these events. However, most of these studies adopt a view of visitors as the audience of exhibitors' communicative efforts. In other words, industrial buyers are conceived as cognitive agents who process individual exhibitor marketing stimuli as information. In this paper, we propose that the adoption of an experiential standpoint may contribute to a more holistic understanding of industrial buyer behaviour and the identification of more effective trade show participation solutions for industrial marketers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Research can be carried out in a number of ways; however, all research follows a similar framework that contains a sequence of activities that are highly interrelated and which together form the research process. Not all research processes follow a stringent sequence; however a common pattern does exist:

firstly, the problem is discussed and located within the body of existing knowledge, followed by the research design, sampling, and data collection. After this, data analysis takes place and finally, the summary of findings. This process may follow a cyclical order because iterative steps may be needed to solve certain problems. Also when some studies reach their conclusion they often create new problems and these, in turn, provide the foundation for further enquiries (Veal, 2006).

Saunders *et al* (2007) in line with Veal's (2006) view suggest that before carrying out a study, the researcher must decide on an appropriate framework by observing a number of considerations and decisions, which should include the following:

- Reappraisal of the objectives of the research project which consequently assist in choosing suitable paradigms;
- Decisions about methods and techniques to be utilised in data collection and critical examination of methods used in previous studies;
- Identification of constraints of the research project which is likely to help in eliminating less suitable methods and strategies of data collection;
- Decisions about the possibility and viability of adoption of mixed methods in order to obtain superior data set;
- Identification of the limitations of the research design and issues relating to reliability and validity of the design.

The framework above is particularly beneficial as it emphasises the significance of analyzing and using previous studies conducted within the subject/topic area as guides. In addition, it accentuates the evaluation of data gathering methods to ensure reliability and validity. This research basically will focus on two major paradigms as per below;

CONSUMER EXPERIENCE AND EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

Traditional approaches to marketing have been sustained by a view of customers as rational individuals who process advertising and other marketing stimuli as information. In more recent times, however, many firms operating in consumer goods markets have started to adopt marketing strategies based on the premise that cognitive processes are just a part of the picture when speaking of consumers and their relationships with brands. The first academic proponents of the experiential perspective argued that, at least in certain contexts (e.g. hedonic products such as novels, plays and sports), consumer actions may be motivated by "fantasy, feelings and fun" and not only rationality (Holbrook & Hirschmann, 1982).

Over the years, other contributions have shown that consumers do actively search for the emotional, sensorial and relational aspects of consumption goods

and activities, as these aspects are intrinsically gratifying and contribute to constructing individual and collective identity (e.g. Holt, 1995; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995; Murray, 2002; Schau & Gilly, 2003; Arnould & Thompson, 2005). Other scholars have identified the different elements that create experiences, including sensorial stimuli and, most importantly, meaningful social bonds with other consumers. Shared consumption experiences enable the creation of several typologies of community of consumers, variously labelled as consumer tribes (Cova & Cova, 2002; Cova et al., 2007), subcultures of consumption (Celsi et al., 1993; Schouten and McAlexander, 1995), and brand communities (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001).

EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING IN BUSINESS MARKETS AND TRADE SHOWS

Experiential marketing has so far been mostly discussed in the context of consumer markets. In contrast, the possibility of applying an experiential approach in a business-to-business marketing setting has received scant attention, with the exception of a few marginal references (e.g. cases of emotionally charged rather than features-and-benefits advertising for industrial products in Schmitt, 1999; suggestions for the spectacularisation of business products and services in Pine & Gilmore, 1999). A possible explanation for this lack of attention is that the experiential perspective has to a great extent focused on emotions, feelings and hedonic dimensions as central determinants of consumption behaviour (Addis & Holbrook, 2001). This focus has probably resulted in greater theoretical difficulty in applying the conceptual lenses of experience to industrial buyer behaviour, where the received wisdom considers purchasers to be professional and rational actors (Gilliland & Johnston, 1997).

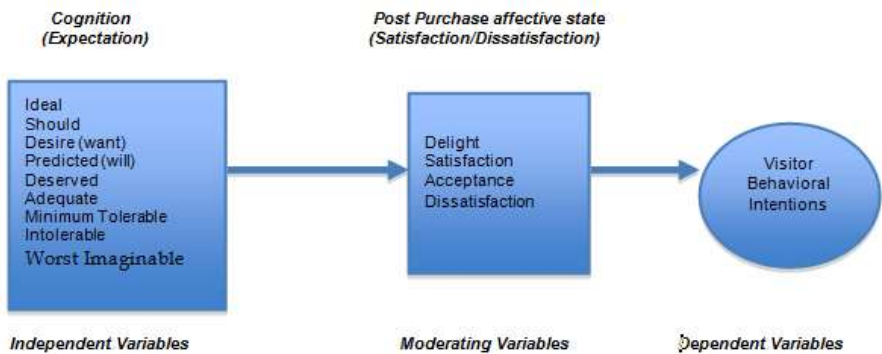
METHODOLOGY

This study aims to investigate patterns of visitor experiences, expectation and satisfaction at trade shows and exhibition. The rationale for the research resides in the proposition that by monitoring customer experiences, precious indications for managing such experiences in more effective ways may be gathered (Berry et al., 2002). To make sense of the complex experiences lived by industrial buyers at trade shows and exhibition, we will adopt ethnographic methods based on extensive study and a long "immersion" by researchers in a sample of Malaysian trade shows and exhibition. As is common in market-based ethnographies (Arnould & Wallendorf, 1994), the research strategy will be based on both participant observation and elicitation of information through interviews. In the field of business-to-business marketing, ethnographic approaches are still unconventional, but scholars have recently advocated the use of interpretive methods to make sense of industrial markets (Cova & Salle, 2003; Gummesson, 2003) and discover new phenomena that more conventional approaches would fail to recognise.

The context for our investigation consists of five Malaysian trade shows and exhibition dedicated to different industry (biogas, biotechnology, architecture, innovation, invention and technology) held in the period of 2016-2018. These events are among the most important international shows in Malaysia. The purpose of these study is to examine visitor experiences across different stands and other event areas at the trade show and exhibition; to identify visitor expectation with the different exhibitors and with other visitors; to identify visitor satisfaction through their evaluations of different experiences at the trade show and exhibition; and to propose a new perspective to see business visitor behavior from an experiential standpoint.

As is common in ethnographic approaches, multiple methods and techniques will be use to collect and analyse data (e.g. Arnould & Wallendorf, 1994; Sherry, 1995). Participant observation will consist 60 researcher-days of field experiences, which will result in field notes and journal reflections. Over 100 formal and informal interviews will be conduct and fully transcribe. Informants will include visitors from different backgrounds and company positions. Typical questions included the reason for attending the trade show, the use of time during the event, more and less useful/ enjoyable aspects of the visit, sequencing of activities during the show, and selected background questions. The questionnaires will identify the visitor expectation, satisfaction and overall experiences at the trade shows and exhibition. Proposed conceptual framework for this research as per below;

RESEARCH CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ADDOPTION FROM EXPECTATION DISCOMFIRMATION THEORY (EDT)

CONCLUSION

In particular, this research will focus on trade shows and exhibition, which are important promotional instruments for firms operating in industrial markets. The most important contribution is in the understanding of visitor behaviour, and the results will extend research on visitors by highlighting that industrial buyer search activities at trade shows and exhibition. This research will be also tracking the industrial buyers, shed light on typical routes that have gone unnoticed in previous studies.

Furthermore, the study will contribute to research on exhibitors, as provide an initial understanding of the nature of the experience they provide at trade shows and exhibition. In reporting corresponding visitor responses, this study will also contribute to research on trade show and exhibition performance. This paper will also responds to the recent call for research on trade show organisers (Munuera & Ruiz, 1999; Rinallo & Golfetto, 2006). In a context characterised by a proliferation of trade shows that actively fight to attract the limited resources of exhibitors and visitors alike, these organisations need to understand their dual markets more fully in order to offer better events. Moreover, exhibitor performances are, to a certain extent, dependent on organiser activities. Even the most carefully managed stands will yield few returns if organisers fail to attract visitors that correspond to the exhibitors' target groups. It is therefore in the best interests of both exhibitors and organisers that trade show research provides guidance on how to organise trade shows "better" (Munuera & Ruiz, 1999; Rinallo & Golfetto, 2006).

Despite its focus on trade shows and exhibition, this paper will also contributes to experiential marketing literature. The application of an experiential approach in business-to-business contexts has received scant attention in industrial marketing literature. Nevertheless, industrial marketers have been creating promotional experiences at trade shows for decades without applying the experiential marketing label to their endeavors.

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