THE ART OF LIVING TOGETHER

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7TH ADVANCES IN TOURISM MARKETING CONFERENCE

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Preface

This copy of conference proceedings materializes the contributions to the seventh ATMC by a group of outstanding researchers from across the world. Bi-annually, they discuss the most critiqued and up to date topics in tourism marketing. The series started in Mugla, Turkey, in 2005. Since then, over 600 presentations have been open to the public. The conferences also produced six books, three special journal issues and many more individual articles that have found their way into top-ranking tourism journals after the first presentations, collegial critique and discussions at the ATMC.

This seventh conference is no exception of this proud tradition. It is held in Casablanca and gains through an autonomous organization, where it is aimed to discuss the art of living together in a global world. By “Identifying and exploring the art of living together, this conference proceedings has entangled 80 communications from all around the world that emphasize the globalize tourism’s cultural commitment within the boundaries of local settings.

Culture is the entangling web of symbols, sounds, rituals, rites and practices by which we become persons and by which we can grow. Culture is often the reason for travel, and both bargain and barrier in its consumption. Underpinned by globalization, tourism is both enabling and threatening culture and its practices, as business commodifies authentic differences. This is developed and discussed in different settings making this conference proceedings a must-reader for those willing to further out their knowledge on this topic.

The conference proceedings includes culture and heritage, tourists' and marketers' perspectives and are structured into 20 chapters that developed: the role of tourists, local communities, and business practices in facilitating and sharing culture. Furthermore, relationship marketing, experiential marketing and cross-border marketing are the marketing approaches followed to develop the body of knowledge on sharing cultures.

In this volume of the proceedings, the reader will find the extended abstracts of the papers accepted for presentations. We are proud to emphasize that the methodologies of the contributing authors include both qualitative and quantitative methods ranging from survey methods to case studies.

As is traditional for the collegial atmosphere at the ATMC, academically young scholars are able to meet their mature counterparts to share experiences and to advance their research knowledge so that they, too, may further contribute to the dissemination of tourism marketing knowledge. We hope that the conference attendants will return to their academic institutions and home countries feeling intellectually enriched and further progress in opening new horizons for future generations of academia and industry.

Finally, we are grateful for the contribution by colleagues, speakers, track chairs, authors, reviewers, attendants and other staff and institutions who have given generously to this conference in different ways. We acknowledge the significant contribution of our keynote speakers (namely Jafar Jafari, Myriam Verbeke, and Tom Baum), and all those who have
submitted their papers, including those who participated in the conference by sharing their knowledge with others.

Last but not least, any attempt at organizing academic events would never come to fruition without logistical support. As such, we are profoundly grateful to the following volunteers for their enthusiastic help, patience and hard work throughout the journey of this conference from its beginning to the end: João Ferradeira, João Portugal, Vânia Correia, Jéssica Correia, Fatih Günay, Senem Eski, and Firdevs Tügen. Without their unlimited support we would not have been able to achieve our mission. In addition, we would like to express our gratitude to all the scholars that offer to this conference their contribution to improve the extended abstracts compiled in this volume.

We wish you a very successful conference and enjoyable stay in Casablanca and hope to see you once again in 2019.

Metin Kozak, Ph.D  
Antónia Correia, Ph.D.  
Juergen Gnoth, Ph.D.  
Alan Fyall, Ph.D.

Co-chairs
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SESSION 1

TOURISTS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVICESCAPES AND TOURISTS’ EVALUATION OF SHOPS: CASE OF A SHOPPING DISTRICT IN NAHA CITY.

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Introduction

Shopping has been viewed as an important part of the tourism experience (Hsieh & Chang, 2006) and as a destination attraction (Timothy & Butler, 1995). Apart from providing tourists with shopping opportunities, the activity offers them a taste of the local culture (Stobart, 1998). Indeed, experiencing a destination and its local culture has been pointed out as one of the key motives for shopping at a tourist destination; other motives include purchasing necessities and meeting social obligations (Murphy et al., 2011). Particularly, some shopping places, such as supermarkets, which do not specifically cater to tourists, may enhance tourists’ experiences by highlighting the local customs and cultures (Hsieh & Chang, 2006).

It is then important to clarify the characteristics of shops that contribute to tourists’ shopping and cultural experiences at such non-tourist-oriented shops. Naoi et al. (2015) elucidated the features of touristic, non-touristic, and intermediary spaces in shopping districts as perceived by local students. Uehara et al. (in press) further examined local students’ perceptions of the characteristics of various spaces in a shopping district, with a particular focus on the relationship between the characteristics of commercial spaces and tourist activities undertaken by the students there. However, these studies, which both pointed to the importance of non-touristic features for visitors’ experiences, examined locals’ and not tourists’ perceptions of shopping places.

The characteristics of shopping places can be categorized into landscape, streetscape, and servicescape. The landscape includes broader variables, such as scenery. The streetscape is the exterior presentation of shopping, such as signage. The servicescape includes social, physical, design, and ambient factors, such as product variety, shopkeepers’ attitudes, shop layout, or lighting (Murphy et al., 2011). The servicescape is often regarded as pivotal for the creation of the individual shop’s environment (Murphy et al., 2011).

This study, the preliminary stage of a study on the effects of shops on tourists’ evaluations of a destination, aims to elucidate the relationship between shops’ characteristics and tourists’ evaluation of the shops. It relies on the concept of servicescape and measures the effects of social, physical, and design factors of shops on tourists’ evaluation through an on-site participatory research method. Furthermore, this study pays particular attention to the taste of local life that tourists obtain from the shops. In light of Stobart’s (1998) claim, it appears meaningful to elucidate the features of shops that...
appear active and tourist-friendly, which have been pointed as significant factors in attracting tourists (Naoi et al., 2009) and ensuring they experience the local culture. This study relates to the conference theme of ‘the art of living together,’ particularly ‘shopping experiences’ and ‘the roles of locals & communities,’ in that it focuses on shopkeepers’ attitudes toward customers as a factor influencing the atmosphere of shops.

**Methods & Materials**

An on-site participatory study was conducted in a shopping district of Naha city, Okinawa Prefecture, Japan, from 11:00 to 13:00 on November 11, 2016. The areas surrounding Kokusai Street, a popular shopping district for tourists, were selected. While many shops in and adjacent to the street have since become primarily souvenir shops (Kim, 2009), there are still some that sell local commodities and clothes. Sixteen university students who majored in architecture, and were not from the prefecture, rated the designated thirty shops on forty-five-point bipolar scales. They were considered to be able to offer perspectives as tourists as none of them had ever resided in the prefecture, and their specialty was also expected to help in offering insights into the features of the shops for this preliminary study.

Nine scales regarding the exteriors of the shops (Kimura & Yamamoto, 2005; Tanabe & Ooi, 2006) and nine other scales related to the interiors of the shops (Inagaki & Iijima, 2009; Takahashi & Oi, 2007) were developed based on environmental psychological studies of shops. Eight scales concerning the assortment of merchandise and attitudes of the staff were taken from interpersonal impression studies (Kim et al., 2012; Yuksel, 2004), and fourteen scales related to the overall impressions of the shops were based on tourism studies on evaluations of destinations (Araya et al., 2016; Naoi et al., 2009).

**Research & Results**

Sixteen university students (ten males and six females in their twenties from Tokyo) rated the thirty shops on forty-five-point bipolar scales. The subjects observed each shop for thirty seconds and then rated their evaluation of the shop. The size of the dataset usable for the analysis was 308 (sixteen subjects * thirty shops – the unusable responses).

![Figure 1. The results of the factor analysis](image-url)
Factor analysis (principal method, promax rotation) was performed on the ratings on the scales regarding each of the five key variables: ‘the shop’s exteriors,’ ‘the shop’s interiors,’ ‘the assortment of merchandise,’ ‘the staff’s attitudes,’ and ‘the overall evaluation of the shop.’ The analysis generated two factors regarding ‘the shop’s exteriors’ (Cronbach $\alpha = .904$ and .718), three factors concerning ‘the shop’s interiors’ (Cronbach $\alpha = .809$, .928, and .722), one factor regarding ‘the assortment of merchandise’ (Cronbach $\alpha = .715$), one factor concerning ‘the staff’s attitudes’ (Cronbach $\alpha = .910$), and three factors for ‘the overall evaluation of the shops’ (Cronbach $\alpha = .547$, .798, and .761). All factors had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0, and the factors that did not show significant loadings ($i .4$) (Nunnally, 1994) on any other factor were excluded. The results are illustrated in Figure 1.

Then, a stepwise multiple regression analysis using each factor’s score of the overall evaluation as dependent variables and the factors’ scores of the remaining key variables as the independent variable was performed. As a result, the ratings of ‘Touristic’ were found to be influenced positively by the scores of ‘the shop’s interiors (decorated)’ and ‘the assortment of merchandise (goods for tourists)’ and negatively by the score of ‘the shop’s interiors (organized)’ (Figure 2). The scores of ‘the shop’s exteriors (Okinawa style and open),’ ‘the shop’s interiors (decorated),’ ‘the assortment of merchandise (goods for tourists),’ and ‘the staff’s attitudes (easy-to-access staff)’ positively influenced ‘Activity’ while ‘the shop’s interiors (organized)’ negatively affected it (Figure 3). The score of ‘Experiencing the Okinawa lifestyle’ was positively affected by the scores of ‘the shop’s exteriors (Okinawa style),’ ‘the shop’s interiors (Okinawa style and organized),’ and ‘the staff’s attitudes (easy-to-access staff)’ and negatively affected by the scores of ‘the shop’s interiors (decorated)’ and ‘the assortment of merchandise (goods for touristic)’ (Figure 4). In any case, multicollinearity (VIF $i .5$) was not observed (O’Bein, 2007).

![Figure 2. The results of the multiple regression analysis on ‘Touristic’](image-url)
Conclusion

The subjects’ evaluation was found to be influenced by the features of the shops in various manners. First, as to the role of shops as shopping places for tourists, commercial manipulations (the shop’s exteriors openness, interiors decorations, products for tourists, and shop keepers’ openness to tourists) and presentation of the local style (Okinawa style of the exteriors) was found to contribute to the touristic and active atmosphere of the shops, which points to the importance of ‘staged authenticity’ (MacCannell, 1976) of the local culture. However, excessive manipulation (organization) of the shops’ interiors was suggested to have a negative effect on the shops’ touristic and active atmosphere. The interiors’ disorderliness might have been sensed as a touristic and active aspect of the shops, which further implies the importance of sustaining a certain degree of naïveté. Second, regarding the opportunities for tourists to experience the local way of life, the presentation of the local lifestyle of the interiors and exteriors and shopkeepers’ openness to tourists were again found contributory. However, contrary to its effects on the shops’ touristic and active senses, the decorated interiors and the assortment of touristic goods were found to have negative effects, while the organized interiors were suggested to have positive effects. Therefore, while the presentation of the local lifestyle and shopkeepers’ openness...
to tourists are important for shops to function as places for tourists’ shopping or appreciation of local culture, the decoration and organization of the interiors and assortment of touristic goods might be regarded as detracting from the local authenticity. Thus, it should be carefully reconsidered depending on whether the place intends to foster tourists’ shopping activities or enhance their experience of local culture.

The greatest challenge in generalizing this study’s findings is the employment of subjects limited both in number and diversity that, together with the large number of parameters, also limited the application of more sophisticated statistical methods, such as Structural Equation Modeling. The implications offered by this preliminary study should be confirmed with other groups of tourists or, in light of the possibly limited sample, tourism professionals who are familiar with tourists in the target areas.

References


CHOICE OVERLOAD AND DECISION STRATEGIES: AN EXPERIMENT-BASED APPROACH COMPARING HOTEL AND TELECOMMUNICATION SERVICES.

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Abstract

In modern economies, the business environment is characterized by a profusion of objects and information and consumers face an ever-growing number of choice alternatives from which to choose. This situation, known as choice overload (CO), undermines consumers and often urges them to give up their purchase, to postpone their decision or to opt for simpler choices. This study extends CO literature by considering the case of services (i.e., hotels and phone plans) and investigating the role of decision strategies and goals when consumers face CO situations. Through an experiment-based approach, results reveal that a large choice set (CS) makes consumers more interested in making a choice but brings them to higher levels of demotivation, regret, and choice deferral. Further, people choosing from a large CS (limited CS) tend to use complex decision strategies to a lesser (higher) extent.

Introduction

In the western world, the current business environment is characterized by a profusion of objects and information. More and more often, the consumer faces a tremendous number of choice alternatives, be it products and/or brands. Such overchoice situations undermine consumers and often urge them to give up their purchase, to postpone their decision or to opt for simpler choices. Actually, both classic economic and psychological literature suggests that having more choice is preferable. Economically, having more alternatives increases the chance of finding a satisfying option or to maximize one’s utility (e.g. Jessup, Todd & Busemeyer, 2009). In psychological terms, a larger CS may increase an individual’s intrinsic motivation and sense of control (e.g. Taylor & Brown, 1998). In marketing also, larger assortments have been presented as beneficial for suppliers because it attracts more customers, it ensures competitive advantage over stores that offer less choice and hence it helps them to maximize their profit (e.g. Brown, Read & Summers, 2003; Swartz, 2004). However, since a decade, researchers consider choice in a different perspective. Iyengar and Lepper (2000) and Schwartz (2000, 2004) were among the first authors to suggest that too much choice can have negative consequences, such as being less satisfied with one’s choice or making no choice at all. Such phenomenon has been qualified as “choice overload” (CO), “tyranny of choice”, or the “too much choice effect”. A large number of researchers in psychology and marketing have examined CO in retailing contexts involving FMCG’s
and have highlighted a series of antecedents and consequences of CO (for an overview, see Chernev, Böckenholt & Goodman 2015). In contrast, few studies have investigated CO in a tourism context (Pan, Zhang and Law, 2013; Park and Jang, 2013; Yuksel & Thai, 2015).

This research extends the CO literature in three important ways. First, we examine CO in the field of (tourism) services, which has been neglected so far. Second, whereas most studies on CO focus on one single product/service, this study compares two types of services involving tangible (hotels) vs intangible (mobile phone plans) actions. Finally, this study is also unique in that it investigates the role of decision strategies and decision goals when consumers find themselves in CO situations.

**Research hypotheses**

This research was carried out to investigate a series of psychological and behavioural responses to choice environments, as well as the role of decision strategies and decision goals when consumers face a large choice set (CS) or in front of a limited number of alternatives. Different types of decision strategies will be considered: simple vs. complex strategies; compensatory vs. non-compensatory strategies; holistic (by categorization) or analytical (attribute by attribute) product evaluation; evaluation by alternative or by attribute etc. An experiment will be set up aiming at analysing how choosers cope with CO when being asked to make choices about hotel alternatives and telecommunication services. More specifically, this study was therefore carried out to test the following hypotheses:

- **H1a,b**: Consumers are likely to have more interest (H1a) and to take more time (H2b) for making a decision, when facing a large CS vs. a small CS;
- **H2a,b**: Consumers are more likely to end up in choice demotivation (H2a) and decision regret (H2b) after choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS;
- **H3**: Consumers are more likely to defer their choice when choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS.
- **H4**: Consumers are more likely to use simple decision strategies when choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS.
- **H5**: The complexity of the decision strategies used by consumers mediates the influence of CS’s size on subjective states and behavioral outcomes.
- **H6**: Service type has a moderating influence on the relationship between CS size and the decision strategies used by consumers. People in the large CS condition should be less willing to engage in complex decision strategies, especially for hotels (more differentiated product) as these involve non alignable alternatives which make the comparison process more complicated than it is for telecommunication plans (less differentiated product with alignable attributes).
- **H7**: Decision goals have a moderating influence on the relationship between CS size and the decision strategies used by consumers.
- **H8a,b**: Experience (H8a) and involvement (H8b) have a moderating influence on the relationship between CS size and the decision strategies used by consumers.
Methods & materials

A 2 (large vs. small CS) by 2 (hotels vs. mobile communication programs) factorial experimental design has been developed. Respondents in the large CS condition were presented 20 alternatives from which to choose whereas respondents in the small CS condition were asked to make a choice among 5 options. In addition, we used two services (hotels and mobile telecommunication programs) in order to include both tangible and intangible offers. Each option was described by five determinant attributes. Hotels were described as to brand, price, quality level (stars), location, and customers’ evaluation score. Telecommunication plans were characterized by brand, price, and the amount of SMS, calling time, and Internet download included in the program. A quota sample (n=220) representative of the Belgian population as to age, gender and education level has been recruited through mailing and social networks in May 2014. Respondents were first presented with a scenario explaining that they were to spend a short stay in Brussels/to select a new telecommunication plan, and that they were to choose among 5/20 alternatives that were described by five attributes in a table. Respondents were asked to examine the table and then (1) to answer a list of 24 items about the extent the which they would use different decision strategies for choosing (5 point Likert scales, inspired by Decrop and Kozak, 2009); (2) to make a choice among the CS (an invisible timer was used as well to measure the time it tooks to make the decision); (3) to fill in questions about CS interest (“I am not interested by any of the products offered”), choice demotivation (“I made a decision just because it was required”), choice regret (“If I could, I would have made no decision”), willingness to differ their decision (“If I could, I would have postponed my decision”); (4) experience and involvement questions; (5) 10 items about decision goals (inspired by Decrop and Kozak, 2009); (6) socio-demographics.

We carried out a series of uni- and multivariate analyses using SPSS 22.0, including principal component analysis, ANOVA’s and regression analyses. We also used Preacher and Hayes’ procedure to test the mediating effect of decision strategies.

Research and results

When considering subjective states, ANOVA results indicate that respondents showed a higher level of interest in front of a large rather than a small CS (F(1, 218)=22.999; p=.000). However, respondents in the large CS condition felt a higher level of choice demotivation (F(1, 218)=10.135; p=.002) and decision regret (F(1, 218)=16.629; p=.000) than those in the small CS condition. With regard to behavioral outcomes, analyses show that expectedly respondents took more time to make a decision when confronted with a large CS (F(1, 218)=13.921; p=.000). In the same way, they were more likely to defer their choice (F(1, 218)=19.443; p=.000). These results are in line with our hypotheses.

A PCA analysis on the 24 items measuring decision strategies resulted in three factors. The first factor refers to complex strategies where consumers tend to carefully consider the full range of products and/or attributes before making a decision. In contrast, the two other factors pertain to simpler strategies in which people tend to rely on basic rules for choosing among alternatives. Such rules may be based on previous experience/knowledge with the product or brand (factor 2) or they may refer to price and promotion (factor 3). When comparing the use of those three strategies, respondents in the large CS (CO) condition tend to use complex decision strategies to a lesser extent (F(1, 218)=28.299; p=.000). In contrast, we did not observe any significant differences as to the use of simple strategies.
When considering the relationship between decision strategies and subjective states and behavioral outcomes, results indicate that the use of complex strategies is significantly positively correlated with interest in the CS but also with choice demotivation, regret and deferral (table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Complex decision strategies</th>
<th>Simple experience-based strategies</th>
<th>Simple promotion-based strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CS interest</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choice demotivation</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choice regret</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choice deferral</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Correlations between decision strategies and outcome variables

In contrast, a negative correlation is observed between simple experience-based strategies and choice interest, and between simple promotion-based strategies and choice demotivation. In other words, consumers who make their decisions according to their previous experience/knowledge feel less interested in the alternatives that are presented to them; and consumers who base their decisions on sales incentives feel more motivated by their choice. Furthermore, the mediation analysis related to H5 leads to the conclusion that using a complex decision strategy mediates the CS size’s effect on choice (de)motivation but not its effect on CS interest, choice regret, speed of decision and choice deferral.

Finally, it appears among personal variables that decision goals and level of involvement have a significant moderating influence on the relationship between CS condition and the use of a complex decision strategy, supporting H6 and H7a. Service type is a significant moderator as well (F(2,219)=4.884, p=0.008), which supports H8. Respondents in the large CS condition are always less likely to use complex strategies than people in the small CS condition but this difference is more pronounced for telecommunication than for hotel choices.

**Discussion and conclusions**

In this paper, we show that consumers are likely to have more interest and to take more time for making a decision, when facing a large CS vs. a small CS. In contrast, they are more likely to end up in negative subjective states (i.e. choice demotivation and decision regret) after choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS. In the same way, they are more likely to defer their choice (Iyengar and Lepper, 2000) when choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS. The study also suggests that consumers are less likely to use complex decision strategies when choosing from a large CS vs. a small CS. Finally, when confronted with a larger CS, people are ready to make extra efforts to use complex decision strategies for more differentiated products such as hotels but not for more basic undifferentiated services such a telecom programs.

The above results have both theoretical and managerial implications. From a theoretical point of view, we are the first to suggest that decision strategies may have an important role in CO, as people are more likely to use simple strategies when confronted with an extended CS and to devote more effort using...
complex strategies to a larger extent in front of a limited CS. Of course, this has also managerial implications for hotel and telecom managers as they should try to limit the size of their offerings and help consumers to make a final decision when many options are available. A few limitations should be mentioned as this study’s results stem from a Belgian sample and compare only two services; moreover, the mediating effect of decision strategies was only partially validated.

References


WHAT IS IMPORTANT IN A SOUVENIR?

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Introduction

Souvenir shopping is a common practice in travel experience when visiting a new city (Héroux & Church, 2014) and are considered special objects with meaning (Decrop & Masset, 2017). Although there are several studies addressing the purchase of souvenirs (Decrop & Masset, 2014), most focus on motivations to purchase (e.g. Wilkins, 2010), or on the factors that can influence their purchase, such as travel motivations (e.g. Kong & Chang, 2016; Swanson & Horridge, 2002), attitude towards souvenirs (e.g. Kim & Littrell, 1999) or social and cultural factors (e.g. Park, 2000). However, there are limited studies examining the souvenir characteristics that tourists prefer and what they actually purchase.

Different studies and statistics evidence the importance of souvenirs. In the United States of America alone, gift, novelty, and souvenir store sales amounted to almost 19 billion U.S. dollars in 2014 (Statista, 2014). Souvenirs are economically important for many retailers located in touristic destinations (Swanson & Horridge, 2002). In fact, studies have evidenced the positive economic impact of souvenirs sales (e.g. Lacher & Nepal, 2015). Therefore, a better understanding of tourists’ purchase of souvenirs is paramount in order to offer them products adjusted to their preferences and needs. This study examines which souvenir features tourists prefer and if theses preferences differ among gender and collectors and non collectors.

Methods & materials

This research is based on two studies with qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Firstly, 85 interviews were conducted to tourists visiting Viseu, a city in the Center of Portugal that has been considered the “best city to live” in the past three years. The interviews were conducted by a group of students from the Polytechnic Institute of Viseu based on a semi-structured script, in which participants were asked about the purchase of souvenirs. Interviews were conducted in Portuguese, English and French. Responses were analyzed with NVIVO. After the qualitative treatment of interviews and based on literature review, a questionnaire was elaborated for the second part of the study.

The questionnaire, available in Portuguese, English and French, was distributed to tourists in the city of Viseu. The questionnaire began with some questions to contextualize the trip to the city. In the second part, the respondents were asked to rate the importance they gave to 24 souvenir characteristics, such as quality, weight and fragility, on a scale of 1 to 7 where 1 = not important and 7 = extremely important. The last part of the questionnaire contained questions related to the purchase of souvenirs in this city. In order to ascertain the validity of the answers, and following the recommendations of Oppenheimer,
Meyvis and Davidenko (2009), the questionnaire included a question to access respondents’ attention. With this procedure, 24 answers were eliminated and a total of 277 valid questionnaires were considered for analysis. Data was analyzed in IBM SPSS.

Research and Results

The findings of the first part of the study provided useful insights to gain a deeper understanding on the purchase of souvenirs. For instance, the content analysis revealed why some people do not buy souvenirs (“I prefer to spend the money on typical food here than on those things” and "I think it is a waste of time and money"). It was also possible to infer that many respondents prefer to take pictures of places they visit than to buy souvenirs (“it is the most practical and interesting way I have done to remember the trips I make” and "the phone does the work of keeping the memories and memories of the places that we visited"). The most popular souvenirs mentioned in the interviews were magnets, keyrings, postcards and typical products. Moreover, from the statements of the tourists interviewed and from the literature review, 24 items were identified which served to establish a typology of souvenirs’ features for the questionnaire for the second part of the study.

The findings of the second part of the study point out the souvenirs’ features that tourists’ consider most important. A total of 277 of valid responses were collected from 19 different nationalities. More than half of the participants were from Portugal (64%), 51% were women and respondent’s average age was 35. The results show that 53.1% collect souvenirs. Sixty four per cent of the respondents say that they buy souvenirs for family, 47.3% for themselves and 27.1% for friends. Participants look for typical products from the region (37.5%) and magnets (36.5%) and intend to buy between 1 to 5 souvenirs (79.1%), spending between 1€ to 20€ with each purchase (74.4%). In order to simplify the analysis of the most important souvenirs features, a factorial analysis was conducted. Fourteen items were aggregated into 5 dimensions (explained variance = 62.7 %, KMO = 0.69): Handling properties (“size”, “weight”, “fragility” and “easy to carry”, “can be displayed at home or work”), Intention (“purpose”, “usefulness” and “suitable or appropriate for the recipient”), Singularity (“unusual” and “uniqueness”), Cost (“price” and “being on sale”) and Aesthetics (“appealing design” and “appealing colors”). Figure 1 exposes the means obtained in terms of the importance of each feature and dimension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>9. Being Handmade</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Appropriateness as a gift</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td><strong>10. Handling dimension</strong></td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Having the name or design of place visited</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>11. Personalization</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Intention dimension</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Innovative</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>12. Cost dimension</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Resistance</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>13. Accessories</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Singularity dimension</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>14. Easy to care for or clean</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Aesthetics dimension</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>15. Item can be worn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Dimensions are bolded to easier distinguish them from the items

Figure 1. Means of importance of souvenirs features
The top three features are the quality of the souvenir, its appropriateness as a gift and the fact that it has the name or design of place visited. Means comparisons by gender show that only the aesthetics dimension is different between men ($M=4.38$) and women ($M=4.73$, $t(275)=2.18$, $p<.05$). Mean comparisons by collectors and non-collectors are more contrasting. Collectors give more importance to quality ($M=5.59$) than non-collectors ($M=5.22$, $t(275)=2.10$, $p<.05$). Collectors also give more importance to the aesthetics dimension ($M=4.77$) than non-collectors ($M=4.32$, $t(275)=2.81$, $p<.01$) and more importance to singularity ($M=4.99$) than non-collectors ($M=4.53$, $t(275)=2.10$, $p<.05$).

**Discussion**

This research identifies and highlights the main features that tourists value in a souvenir. The most important features are quality, appropriateness as a gift and having the name of the place visited. Therefore, souvenir designers and manufacturers should consider these features when designing and producing souvenirs.

More than 90% of the respondents purchase souvenirs as a gift. Additionally, some of the most important features are gift related (“Appropriateness as a gift” and the Intention Dimension). Therefore, souvenir retailers and manufacturers should not underestimate the importance of packaging and gift wrapping. The packaging affects consumers value perception and willingness to pay (Joutsela, Latvala, & Roto, 2016). Larsen and Watson (2001) hypothesize that gifts with enhanced presentation and packaging will be more valued.

No significant differences were found between genders regarding the features most valued in a souvenir, with the exception of the aesthetics dimension. Several differences were found between collectors and non-collectors. Since collectors are most certainly going to purchase souvenirs, retailers need to make their souvenirs stand out and should consider the features that they most value: quality, aesthetics and singularity.

A main limitation of this study is that the sample was conducted in only one city of Portugal, with an overrepresentation of Portuguese tourists. Future research should consider examining tourists in other cities of Portugal and in other countries.

Future research could try to analyze the choices of tourists when buying souvenirs between two products manipulated in terms of features. For example, it may be interesting to study the choice between the same product (e.g. a magnet) when one has the name of the city and a symbol and another with no name. In this way, it would be possible to study the true effect of certain features (in this example, the importance of having the name or symbol of the city).

Since one of the most important features is appropriateness as a gift, it would also be worthwhile analyzing the type of souvenirs that people prefer to receive. Another interesting line of investigation would be to compare if tourists from different cultures value features differently. Despite the limitations, this study provides useful insights to souvenir designers and retailers. Retailers who sell souvenirs should seek to make products available that take into account the results of this study.
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BEYOND ATTITUDE: A STUDY OF HONG KONG RESIDENTS IN THE CONTEXT OF MAINLAND CHINESE TOURISTS AS A DOMINANT SOURCE MARKET

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Introduction

Studies examining resident attitude towards tourism development or tourists in general have become one of the most popular research areas in the tourism literature since the 1970s (Sharpley, 2014). However, studies investigating resident attitude towards a specific tourist group are relatively limited, even though the host gaze has been recognized as a determinant tourist experience (Maoz, 2006). Many researchers are primarily concerned about cross-cultural host-tourist interactions and the resulting impact on tourist experiences. In addition, most existing studies on host perceptions of tourists adopted the perspective of local brokers (Wu & Pearce, 2013), such as tour guides and retailors (Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997). Few studies have examined the overall host community’s perceptions of and attitudes towards a dominant tourist market, which may serve as an indicator of their support for tourism development.

Traditional resident attitude studies have received increasing criticisms as to the conceptualization, theorization, or methodology (Sharpley, 2014). The predictive power of attitude on behavioral responses is the most frequently questioned (Sutton, 1998). Moreover, weaknesses of the two pillar theories of resident attitude research, the social exchange theory (SET) and social representations theory (SRT), have been revealed. SET simplifies resident attitude as a function of perceived benefits and costs, ignoring external influences from the complex socio-cultural environment (Pearce, Moscardo, & Ross, 1996). SRT emphasizes the essential role of social representations in the formation of resident attitude, neglecting individual capacity (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

To overcome the above deficiency of resident attitude research, Hsu, Li, and Chen (2016) put forward a new concept, resident sentiment, as a more appropriate indicator of social representations shared by the host community and a more reliable antecedent of resident behavioral responses. Resident sentiment is defined as “an umbrella term unifying a variety of labels used in the tourism literature, such as resident/community perceptions of/attitudes towards, views of, support for, perspectives on, reactions
to and perceived impacts of tourism development” (Hsu et al., 2016), describing a more general and complex mental system than attitude (Cattell, 1965). Furthermore, Hsu et al. (2016) proposed that attitude is a constituent part of sentiment; and sentiment is shaped over time through social interactions. Therefore, SET and SRT can be applied together to serve as the theoretical base for resident sentiment study. However, the authors did not clearly state the dimensional/componential structure of resident sentiment. The aim of this study is thus to explore and identify other components, in addition to attitude, of this new concept.

In exploring the multidimensional structure of resident sentiment, this study specifically focuses on Hong Kong (HK) residents’ sentiment towards Mainland Chinese tourists (MCTs). This case selection is based on the following considerations. First, tourist arrivals from Mainland China to HK has maintained a rapid increase since the launch of the Individual Visit Scheme in 2003, under which MCTs can visit HK on an individual basis without joining a tour group. MCTs constituted for more than three quarters of the total arrivals in 2016 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2017). HK residents inevitably have more frequent, even overwhelming, interactions with this dominant source market. Second, growing tensions between HK residents and MCTs can be easily observed not only from extensive media coverage, but also from escalating conflicts/protests in HK. The noticeable negative media sentiment can provide a supporting evidence for the current exploratory study on resident sentiment towards a dominant tourist group. Generally, HK provides an ideal social setting to observe resident-tourist interactions, and explore the resulting sentiment shared among community members.

Research methods

An exploratory interpretive approach was adopted for this study to obtain HK residents’ real and in-depth sentiment towards MCTs. A semi-structured interview guide was designed to inspire participants’ free and open expressions of their evaluations and/or feelings of MCTs, and probe into the origin/formation process of such impressions. In addition, the attitudes and feelings of participants’ acquaintances towards MCTs, as well as their perceived media sentiment were also included in the interview protocol.

All interviews were conducted by a HK-born research associate who can use local language and thus being viewed as an “insider” by interviewees. Qualified interviewees were selected from permanent residents of HK, through purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Some participants with more direct contacts with MCTs were selected purposefully basing on occupations or residential distance from touristic districts. Snowball sampling was also adopted to obtain a demographically representative sample. A total of 39 qualified informants participated in the interview, and information saturation was achieved. Interview transcripts were analysed following an inductive logic to extract potential subject themes (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

Main findings

A mix of positive, negative, and neutral impressions/attitudes towards MCTs were provided by the informants, though the negative ones outweigh the positive and neutral ones. Behind the declared attitudes, some shared social mentalities among local residents were identified, which include identification, feeling of superiority, and feeling of deprivation. This collectively held consciousness was formed through confronting a dominant source market in complex social interactions, and consequent series of mental activities such as intergroup comparisons.
Identification with MCTs

When explaining the formation of their impressions and attitudes towards MCTs, every informant made frequent comparisons between themselves (either as an individual or a HK community member) and MCTs (as a group). These intergroup comparisons indicated that the respondents had differentiated MCTs as a distinct outgroup from HK people, and identified themselves as an in-group member of the HK community. Accordingly, respondents generally presented a low identification with MCTs, especially in terms of culture, values/beliefs, and manners/behaviors, even though some interviewees recognized their own Chinese identity. This result supports the central tenet of social identity theory that group affiliation is motivated by a desire for positive distinctiveness from other social groups, and group members normally display discrimination and in-group bias to out-group members (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Briefly, the in- and out-group distinction by HK residents and the inherent need for a positive distinctiveness inevitably color their judgement of MCTs, and lead to emotional and behavioral responses.

Feeling of Superiority

A strong sense of superiority was expressed by many informants when judging the manners and misbehaviors of MCTs. Almost all respondents attributed the uncivilized behaviors of MCTs to their lower education level, declining public morals or unenlightened sociocultural environment. Some even believe that HK people can serve as role models for MCTs. This feeling of superiority is derived from not only the “downward” comparisons between “we” (HK people; in-group) and “they” (MCTs, an out-group), but also the long-standing impressions over the past few decades. As HK was under the British colonial rule for 156 years, the local community becomes accustomed to perceive themselves as citizens of developed countries. When facing the inburst of Nouveau riche from Mainland China, the feeling of superiority in civilization, education, and morality may serve as an effective psychological defense mechanism by HK residents to sustain their self-esteem, and strengthen in-group identification.

Feeling of Deprivation

Although the interviewees generally felt superior to MCTs from many aspects, they also expressed a contrary feeling – being deprived by MCTs. This deprivation feeling was often observed when informants complained about MCTs’ competition for, or despoliation of valuable resources of HK. For example, residents have been inconvenienced by MCTs’ excessive shopping on both daily necessities and luxury goods. The former caused many daily necessities unavailable, and the latter led to many small stores going out of business. Similar to the feeling of superiority, the feeling of deprivation also comes from the comparisons of HK residents (in-group) with MCTs (the reference group). However, this “upward” comparison with an economically advantaged group produces a sense of disadvantage and invokes feelings of frustration and anger.

Conclusions

Three shared mentalities by HK residents were identified from interview results, underpinning their presented sentiment of MCTs. These mentalities are developed from complex social interactions with MCTs and various intergroup comparisons, thus being considered as important indicators of the abstract concept of resident sentiment. Adding to the two attitudinal indicators, cognitive and affective impressions of MCTs, this exploratory study proposes five formative indicators for resident sentiment (see Figure 1), each capturing an essential content domain of resident sentiment. Specifically, cognitive impression represents beliefs, opinions, and knowledge held by HK residents of MCTs. Affective
impression comprises feelings stimulated by MCTs. Identification with MCTs refers to the forming of “We/Us–They/Them” dichotomy, which is related to the classification of and comparison between groups. Based on comparisons, feelings of superiority and relative deprivation are derived, which further influences future classification and comparison efforts.

In brief, resident sentiment is formed or induced by the five indicators. However, they do not necessarily co-vary with one another, nor have the same antecedents or consequences. Noting that the theoretical causality is directed from the indicators to the abstract, immeasurable construct, rather than the opposite, resident sentiment can be conceptualized as a formative construct (Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Figure 1. Conceptual Formative Model of Resident Sentiment

The proposed formative model, based on a rigorous qualitative study, needs to be empirically tested with quantitative data. A limitation of the model proposed is its external validity, as three of the formative indicators were generated from one case destination—Hong Kong. Although individual components of the model can be explained with social psychological theories, comprehensive literature support to underpin the overall model is unavailable. Further studies, both qualitative and quantitative, are required to examine other resident communities’ sentiment towards dominant tourist groups to further verify the composition and structure of resident sentiment.

References


SESSION 2

CULTURAL EXPERIENCES
DESTINATION EXPERIENCE PERCEPTION BY TOURISTS AND PRELIMINARY DESTINATION IMAGE IN THEIR MINDS: EMPIRICAL STUDY AND MARKETING IMPLICATIONS.

Lina Anastassova, Burgas Free University, Thailand, anastassova@bfu.bg

Introduction

The study of destination experience is an important task of destination marketers and researchers in the field of tourism marketing as tourist experiences in destinations can correct and shape the preliminary destination image in their minds.

Every destination provides a combination of tourist services and products. The tourists build or create their own experiences in the framework of the destination resources and amenities and in interrelationship with the host population. Tourists are no longer satisfied with traditional services only - they want to go beyond that and have therefore created demand for diversified experiences (Banff Lake Louise Tourism, 2005). Providing an excellent tourist experience becomes a crucial factor for destinations’ future success on its strategic road to market leadership. It is well known that the basis for experiential marketing of tourism destinations rests on the marketability of its products and becomes possible when hotels, tour operators and attractions employ services as a stage and goods as props to engage visitors in a manner that creates a memorable event on vacation segment (Pine and Gilmore, 1998; Schmitt, 1999; Williams, 2000, 2002).

The marketing problem of some Black Sea destinations in Bulgaria is that they lost their product differentiation in the Bulgarian transition period on the way to market economy. Due to the not proper privatization of the Bulgarian resorts’ tourism facilities after the change of the political system in 1989, it came to uncontrolled overbuilding with hotels including very big hotels in some of the Bulgarian sea resorts and villages. Despite of that, such Black Sea coast municipalities as Nessebar, Varna, Balchik, Sozopol and Tsarevo,... depend heavily on tourism for their local residents’ employment (Ivanov, 2017). Because of lack of marketing strategy of the destinations and clear targeting and positioning at this moment there are no clear target segments of the big Black Sea resorts and there is no strong destination brand differentiation.

Therefore, the main aim of this empirical study is to: 1. investigate and determine the perception of main attributes of tourists’ experience in the Bulgarian Black Sea destination “Sunny Beach” and their impact on tourists’ emotions, feelings and 2. to compare the tourist experience perception based on preliminary destination image with the tourists’ expectations for their experience with different destination attributes.
Background of the study

Literature review shows that there is a plenty international research on destination image perception (Beerli A. and M. Josefa D., 2004; Sirgy M. and J.Su Chenting, 2000; Echtner Ch. M. and Ritchie J. R. Brent, 2003; White Ch. J, 2004) and on factors influencing the choice of holiday destination but these factors are based mainly on amenities (Chen Nan, D. C Funk., 2010). While tangible attributes of the destinations are categorized in ‘functional’, intangible attributes are categorized in ‘psychological’ factors, and both of these sets of attributes shape the destination image. Kim and Richardson (2003) define the destination image as an overall impression, belief, idea, hope, and feelings about a place that is accumulated within a certain time. In order to broaden the understanding of “destination image” Echtn er and Ritchie (2003) noted, destination image should be envisioned and discussed both attribute-based and holistic perspectives. Although previous research in the context of tourism revealed that destination image and tourist satisfaction are important determinants of tourist loyalty towards a destination (Faullant et al., 2008; Chi, 2012; Neuts et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014) there is a lack of research in the Bulgarian literature on destination image and tourist experience in destinations but there is generally insufficient tourism research in the country. In this study we do not examine the destination image of Sunny beach but we use the term in the survey instrument just to ask the tourists to determine their expectations for the experience at the destination with respect to the preliminary destination image in their minds.

For the purposes of operationalization of the tourist expectations and in order to make possible the comparison with the experience perception it was decided that the same set of attributes for investigation of both phenomena will be employed. As the tourist experience is closely related the tourist services at the destination, the set of attributes consists of experiences related to the physical destination attributes and experiences related to leisure opportunities egg. services portfolio and feelings and emotions. They are presented below after conceptualization of tourist experience in destinations.

With regard to the term “experience” different definitions are known in the scientific literature. Pine and Gilmore (1999) constitutes experience “as events that engage individuals in a personal way”. They explain the shift from commodities to experiences and noted that successful companies nowadays need to create experiences for their customers if they are to be differentiated from their competition (opp.cit, 1999). Each individual who is engaged into experience remains with the memory of it and this is where the value of experiences is derived (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Both authors summarize and conclude that “while commodities are fungible, goods tangible and services intangible, experiences are memorable” (opp.cit., 1999). As demand for experiences is a major trend in the tourism industry, the destinations now compete more and more by emphasizing their tourist experiences (Banff Lake Louise tourism, 2005). In order to provide a memorable experience as a basis for effective promotion and marketing, the destination management should know in detail the tourist experience perception and to develop a concept for destination brand differentiation via experiences.

When studying experience in tourist destination it is important to have in mind that it is a holistic phenomenon which consists of a variety of attributes. In the perspective of motivation, destination attributes are ‘pull’ factors of travel motivation in the Dann’s (1977) push and pull motivation theory and therefore positive experience with the destination attributes can serve as a pull factor for attracting new tourists or retaining current visitors. The operationalization of the tourist experience in this study occurs through attributes’ set of perceived tourist experience. Some of them are formulated by the author, some of them were derived from previous studies (Tribe and Snaith, 1998; Kozak, 2001; Fuchs
and Weiermair, 2003 and De Nisco, A., Riviezzo, A. and M.R. Napolitano, 2015) and are relevant to the main services and to leisure opportunities in the destination:

- overall hotel experience: great location, comfortable rooms, swimming pool, playground etc.;
- eating experience at the resort;
- experience with tourist animation and at the hotel;
- overall service quality at the resort;
- experience with excursions offered on the spot in the destination;
- experience with night life and entertainment facilities;
- cultural tourism experiences;
- experience with sport facilities and activities;
- experience with tourist-host population contact;
- shopping experience in the destination;¹
- feeling of personal safety and security;
- quality of tourism information services
- experience with the natural resources- beaches, sea and green spaces;
- experience related to the preservation of water and air, the current situation of noise level and cleanliness of public places;

The attributes’ set includes the component “experience with tourist-host population contact” as the overall tourist experience in a destination is closely related to the “tourist-host community” contact even mediated through various other factors. The tourism industry is to a great extent dependent on the host community as usually the human resources employed in the destination are predominantly local people. The relationship between host community and tourists is mainly affected by the socio-cultural impacts that are caused due to tourism development (Smith, 1995). With the globalization of the tourism market this situation is rapidly changing in the lodging industry especially in the big cities and hotels but in destinations the local population is still predominant and its hospitality delivers additional value to the services. The interaction between hosts and international guests contributes to the mutual acquaintance between people from different cultures and religions. Thus, the quality of interaction between tourists and residents contributes to both tourists experience and perception of the visited destination from the one hand and acceptance and tolerance of tourist by residents from the other (Armenski and Lukic, 2011). A relatively new concept about the tourist experience is the concept of co-creation of memorable holiday experience at the destination. According to Ana et al. (2013) co-creation involves active-participation and social-interaction whereby attention and memory get intertwined for a lasting experience. Co-creation involves tourists’ active participation and interaction in experiences (Rihova et al., 2015; Tan et al., 2014).

Every experience has an emotional value which is an object of studying in this research. Emotional value is defined as the ability of the product or service to arouse feelings or affective states (Sheth, ¹ Although Sunny beach is not a shopping destination we included “shopping experience” as well as attribute first, because shopping tourism has now flourished and second, because previous research pointed out that shopping experience is very important even for the holiday makers as they try to combine leisure time with many activities and to keep good memories from the destination;
Newman and Gross, 1991b). Hosany and Witham (2010) posited that customer experience can affect their emotions and satisfaction levels and also develops a competitive advantage for service providers that is difficult for imitation. A variety of positive and a few negative emotions could be expressed in the tourist diary. Respondents made comments about being “happy”, “feeling excited”, “feeling positively surprised”, “feeling neutral” and “feeling disappointed” which described their emotional condition related to various experiences in the resort.

The main objectives of this study are:

- to investigate the tourists’ expectations for their experience at the resort based on preliminary destination image in their minds before coming to the resort in the frame of the destination attributes and to analyze the gap between the preliminary tourist expectations and the perception of destination experience.
- to explore the tourist experiences in the Bulgarian Sunny beach resort during their holiday at the resort and the impact of the experience on tourists’ emotions by using a method “tourist diary (e.g. the emotional value), senses, intellectual condition and memories;
- to derive suggestions how these findings can help destination management for better experiential marketing.

Methodology

The sample type used for the purposes of the study is a random sample of 272 tourists from 5 countries: Germany, UK, Russia, Finland and Hungary which form nearly 90% of the tourists coming to Sunny beach. The respondents were accessed in 6 hotels of Sunny Beach resort in June and July 2016. A 5-point Likert scale was employed to assess the experience perception e.g. the satisfaction level with the various destination attributes.

The data collection methods for the survey include descriptive methods: written questionnaires collected from the whole sample and tourist diary which 40 tourists from 4 nations- Germany, UK, Russia and Hungary completed. They had to describe experiences with various destination attributes extracted from the questionnaire and to relate every experience with different emotions. The scale for the diary includes 5 options: feeling happy (5), feeling excited (4), feeling positively surprised (3), neutral feelings (2) and feeling disappointed (1).

The survey instrument employed for the purposes of the study is similar to the IPA-method which was chosen although traditional IPA framework is compromised by serious reliability and validity issues (Lai and Hitchcock, 2015). Following the original IPA method the study comprises two of the traditional 3 three steps: 1. Definition of the set of destination experience attributes part of which defined by the author and part- by researching previous studies. 2. The respondents are asked on arrival to rate the expectations for each attribute in the set according to the preliminary destination image in their minds and at the end of the holiday to rate their perception of the experience attributes. 3. Measurement of the gaps between the expectations’ assessment and the experience perception assessment.

Based on the holiday diary data of 40 tourists all described experiences were classified according to their relationships with the tourists’ emotions. The diary includes explanations about their feelings on voluntary basis.
The statistical method used for exploring the gaps/differences between tourist expectation for an experience at destination and their experience perception is the method of one sample statistics which fits the descriptive research strategy of the study. The data were processed with the package SPSS 13.0.

Results and discussion

Sample structure

The sample used for the purposes of the study was fulfilled with very small deviations from the planned sample which is reflecting the average structure of the tourist population in Sunny beach with regard to country of origin. The biggest parts of the tourists are from Germany and UK, smaller parts are from Russia, Hungary and Finland as shown in Table 1. The age structure of the sample points out the dominance of the younger and mature resort guest- nearly 27% of the tourists are under 25 years old and 36% are from 26-45 years old.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Nr. of tourists</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Nr. of tourists</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>28,44</td>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>26,64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>24,48</td>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>18,58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18,28</td>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11,52</td>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14,96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnnland</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9,00</td>
<td>55-70</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>15,32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other countries</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8,28</td>
<td>over 70</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7,30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>100,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Tourist’s country of origin and age structure of the tourists

According to the results the image of Sunny beach resort in the tourists’ minds consists of the following components according to the majority of the tourists- more than 55% of the tourists: a resort is with beautiful natural resources- long sandy beach, clean but noisy environment, excellent hotel facilities, middle level of catering options, low level of overall service quality, high level of entertainment opportunities, positive tourist-host population contact (friendly people), not good shopping facilities, middle level of expectations about cultural tourism and sport facilities. The survey results point out that the majority of the tourists, especially the Finnish and Hungarian tourists did not have any idea about two of the attributes of the tourist experience and namely: availability of sport facilities and the excursions offered on the spot. The survey revealed the differences between the tourist expectations based on the preliminary destination image and the tourist perceptions of their experience with various attributes of the destination. The results are shown in Table 2 and the biggest gaps between the expectations and the perception of the experience are for the following attributes: shopping experience in the destination (-0.89), experience with excursions offered on the spot in the destination (-0.66) and experience related to the environment (-0.61).
### Table 2. Differences between the expectations and the perception of the destination attributes

With regard to the impact of various attributes on the feelings of the tourists the results from the diary method reveal that some attributes like the hotel facilities, the eating facilities, the night life entertainment, the tourist-host contact have the greatest positive impact on the feelings and senses of the tourists (see Table 3). In this particular case the experiences with 8 from 14 destination attributes of Sunny beach resort have a positive impact on tourist feelings and emotions (from happy to positively surprised), 4 attributes cause neutral feeling-service quality, excursions offered, sport facilities and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination attributes</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean Perception</th>
<th>Mean Expectation</th>
<th>Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>overall hotel experience: great location, comfortable rooms, swimming pool etc.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eating experience in the catering facilities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>-0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with tourist animation and at the hotel</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall service quality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with excursions offered on the spot in the destination</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with night life and entertainment facilities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cultural tourism experiences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with sport facilities and activities</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with tourist-host population contact</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shopping experience in the destination</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feeling of personal safety and security</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality of tourism information services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience with the natural resources- beaches, sea and green spaces;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience related to the environment (the 24 hours noise and the crowds on some places in the resort)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance is by p < 0.05
tourist information services and 2 attributes have a negative impact on the tourists’ feelings and senses and namely: 1. The tourist environment (the 24 hours noise and the crowds on some places in the resort), 2. The shopping experience (not big variety of goods- clothes, shoes and jewelry).

The two attributes having extremely positive impact on tourist feelings pointed as “feeling happy” are: the natural resources of the resort-nearly ¾ of the respondents and the “overall hotel experience- great location and excellent hotel facilities”- 67.5% of the tourists. The attributes influencing positively the tourist feelings described as “feeling excited” are “the experience with the night life entertainment”- nearly 2/3 of the tourists and “the eating experience at the resort”- 62.5% of the holiday makers. The diary data reveal that even at this party destination “Sunny beach” ¼ of the guests are feeling happy or excited by cultural tourism experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotions experienced</th>
<th>Feeling happy</th>
<th>Feeling excited</th>
<th>Positively surprised</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Destination attributes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. overall hotel experience</td>
<td>67.5%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eating experience</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. experience with tourist animation at the hotel;</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. overall service quality</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. experience with excursions offered at the destination,</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. experience with night life</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. cultural tourism experiences</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. experience with sport facilities and activities</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. experience with tourist-host population contact</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>82.5%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. shopping experience</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. feeling of safety and security</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. quality of tourism</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>information services</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. experience with the natural Resources</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. experience with the environment, noise level etc.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Holiday makers’ diary data

A good research result for the destination marketing is the opinion of the tourists that they feel “positively surprised” by the “experience with tourist-host population contact”- 82.5% of the
respondents, “the feeling of personal safety and security”- 62.5% of the tourists, the “experience with the hotel animation”-57.5% and “the cultural tourism experience”-55% of the respondents.

As survey data are revealing, there are still opportunities to improve and make more creative the animation at the hotels in Sunny beach as 1/5 of the tourists experience neutral feelings e.g. they are not feeling happy or excited with the hotel animation. They explain their emotional status with their higher expectations about the animation for children and animation for days with bad weather. Similar is the situation with the perception of cultural experience where 20% of the holiday makers are not experiencing positive feelings due to the expectations for better offering for cultural events at the resort and cultural heritage trips.

The experience attributes which were pointed with predominantly negative impact on feelings are the “shopping experience”- 62.5% and the “resort environment, especially noise level and overcrowding”- 57.5% of the tourists have chosen the description “feeling disappointed”. Four attributes from all 14 were described as causing neutral feelings: “experience with the overall service quality”, “experience with excursions sold on the spot at the resort”, “experience with the information services” and “experience with the sport facilities”- between 60% and 65% of the holiday makers have pointed out this option. As far as the differences among the various nationalities the most happiest are feeling the UK and Russian tourists and on second place with similar results are the German and the Hungarian tourists having the lowest level of perception of tourist experience- they do not have marked for any destination attribute more than 50% positive feelings- happy or excited.

**Conclusion and practical implications**

The results from this study have some useful marketing and managerial implications as the crucial role of the destination management body is to not only coordinate the efforts of various service providers but also to create and promote differentiated destination product. And differentiation can occur through creating experiences for tourists. As the survey results showed that cultural tourism experiences are making tourists “feel excited”, the destination marketers and the tourist agencies at the resort should put focus on cultural tours, cultural events like festivals, concerts and various programs and workshops. They should create cultural experiences for the tourists in order to provoke excitement and connectivity with the destination brand.

As the majority of the international tourists are feeling excited with the hotel experience concerning the facilities but not especially with the hotel animation, the hotels and tour operators should be more creative in their animation programs and events. They have to enable the co-creation of experiences as the co-created experience affects the five human senses namely sight, sound, smell, taste and touch and will fit to the tourist expectations for memorable memories. The destination management of Sunny beach have to change their marketing communications strategy from promotion based on destination’s physical attributes towards a marketing strategy based on promotion of emotional attributes of the tourist experience.

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TOURIST EXPERIENCE, PERCEIVED AUTHENTICITY AND PLACE ATTACHMENT WHEN CONSUMING PERSON-TO-PERSON ACCOMMODATION: EVIDENCE FOR DESTINATION LOYALTY.

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Introduction

Tourist experience is shaped by visitors’ engagement and interaction with products, services, resources, environments and people at the destination and tends to stimulate cognitive and emotional reactions. In a managerial perspective, tourists’ cognitive and emotional responses are associated with tourist satisfaction and loyalty (Tung & Ritchie, 2011) and their feelings in relation to the visited place (Page, 1998). However, tourist experience is generally not conceived as easy to assess or manage. In order to answer the questions of how tourists conceive the tourist experience and how it may be influenced (Volo, 2009), frameworks for mapping the main dimensions of this experience have been proposed (Lee & Chang, 2012; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). One of the most influential approaches in the general marketing literature is Pine and Gilmore’s (1999) model of the experience economy, applied to tourism by Oh et al (2007), when analyzing the educational, aesthetic, escape and entertainment experience realms for Bed and Breakfast accommodation contexts. These authors revealed the aesthetic dimension as highly significant in determining experiential outcomes such as arousal, overall quality perception, satisfaction and memory. Other authors, such as Lee and Chang (2012), have conducted empirical studies following Schmitt’s (1999) strategic experiential model (SEM), which encompasses the “sense”, “feel”, “think”, “act” and “relate” dimensions. In turn, Tung and Ritchie (2011) have identified dimensions particularly associated with a memorable experience: expectation; affective; recollection and a dimension named ‘consequentiality’ which involves four sub-dimensions: improving social relations, intellectual development, self-discovery and overcoming physical challenges.

Beyond the growing literature about satisfaction and loyalty resulting from the tourist experience (Graefe & Vaske, 1987; Lugosi & Walls, 2013), some studies have suggested the influence of tourist experience on developing attitudes of attachment to destinations. Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim (2010, p.275) define place attachment as “the process by which humans form emotional bonds to places.....In other words, the sense of physically being and feeling “in place” or at “home” can be considered as a sign that an individual has create an emotional tie to a place.” Destination attachment encompasses the notions of (i) place identity, (ii) place dependence, and (iii) place affection (Yuksel et al, 2010). The relationship between destination attachment and destination loyalty has also received attention by scholars highlighting the positive influence of the former on the latter (Yuksel et al, 2010).
In this context, a growing number of business models in tourism based on sharing and collaborative practices between individuals has been observed. These innovative peer-to-peer (P2P) businesses emerge from interactive Internet technologies and are recognized by the terms ‘sharing or collaborative economy’. In tourism, one of the most popular forms of entrepreneurship in this sharing economy are P2P accommodation services (P2PA), provided by Web 2.0 platforms such as Airbnb, Housetrip, or 9Flats.com. Case studies exploring homestay contexts have stressed the relevance of close interpersonal relationship between guests and hosts for guests’ experience (Lynch, 2005). Values such as intimacy, warmth, trust, generosity and spontaneity are, therefore, co-created. Since individuals connect to places by attributing meanings generated also by the social interactions during visitation of that place (Milligan, 1998), it is suggested here that P2P guests’ experiences, in private accommodations where the hosts are present, contribute to formation of destination attachment and, consequently, loyalty.

Moreover, P2PA guests are likely to visit and spend money in the accommodation’s neighbourhood, as frequently the P2PAs are located outside the tourist core of destinations (Guttentag, 2013). As a result, P2PA guests are closer to ‘real life’ of destinations by direct contact with local residents, being immersed in authentic local experiences possible through genuine intercultural encounters. Authenticity has been suggested an important tourist motivation, with particularly Wang (1999)’existential authenticity’ acknowledged as probably most relevant for the independent, exploring traveler, the more typical user of P2PAs. The perception of ‘authenticity’ might thus be considered an important result of the P2PA experience, making that experience more meaningful and leading to increased destination attachment and loyalty to both the place and the visited P2P unit and its owners, as suggested in the following model.

![Conceptual Model](image_url)

Figure 1. conceptual model - own elaboration based on Schmitt (1999) and Pine and Gilmore (1999)

Therefore, this study aims to verify the dimensions of the P2PA guests’ experience and their possible link to perceived authenticity, destination attachment and loyalty and P2PA’s loyalty, using a qualitative analysis framework using passive netnography.
Methods and materials

In order to identify the relevant dimensions of guests’ experience in P2PA and the relations displayed in figure 1, this study has conducted a passive netnography which consists in observing the narratives of users in online environments and extracting the relevant information according to the research purpose (Mkono, 2016). Thus, basic steps of the netnography procedure (Kozinets, 2002) were applied in this study, such as (i) selecting the adequate Website: the Airbnb platform was chosen because it is a well-known P2PA platform, presenting a large number of guests’ reviews; (ii) data collection: data was gathered in March 2017 and consisted of 100 guests’ reviews, pertaining to P2PA listings located in ten different cities, selected according to the ten first ranked “travelers choice awards 2016” of TripAdvisor: London, Istanbul, Marrakesh, Paris, Siem Reap, Prague, Rome, Hanoi, New York, Ubud (TripAdvisor, 2017); (iii) data analysis: according to literature review, 6 dimensions were considered here as P2PA guests’ experience dimensions: aesthetic, affective, education, entertainment, escape and social interaction. Furthermore, these dimensions were codified and an interpretative content analysis within the reviews was conducted, resulting in a total of 346 narratives matched to codified dimensions. The process finished by counting the “reference frequencies” – f, which means the number of times that narratives referred to by the guests matched the codified dimensions.

Research and results

Results from the counting process show that the “aesthetic” is the most relevant dimension for P2PA guests’ experience (f=125), followed closely by the “social interaction” dimension (f=109). The affective dimension is found in 52 narratives, while “escape”, “entertainment” and “educative” dimensions are the less observed dimensions in guests’ reviews.

Content analysis reveals that 60 (sixty) narratives include perceptions of authenticity. More specifically, these perceptions are more influenced by the “aesthetic” sensorial experience of being immersed in the P2PA ambience. The “social interaction” dimension has a similar influence, with relationships between guests and hosts and guests and local inhabitants contributing to an immersion into the host and destination community’s lifestyle and routine. An example showing the relevance of this interaction is the following exert: “The best experience for me of this trip was spending an afternoon with a Cambodian family in the countryside. They cooked us an incredible lunch made with ingredients from the own garden and for a short while I really experienced the local culture” (Guest 6, Siem Reap).

The narratives also demonstrate that guests tend to be loyal to the P2PA. This evidence is verified by clear loyalty expressions of recommendation or revisit intention, such as “I recommend this house to everyone visiting London” or “next time in Rome I will stay here for sure”. Consistent with the counting process of content analysis, loyalty intentions are verified in 85 reviews (85%). Within this percentage, 65% are associated to recommending the stay and 35% to intentions of revisit the P2PA.

Discussion

The multidimensionality of the tourist experience is framed by cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects which arouse more complex emotional responses and attitudes (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2014). The P2PA suggests opportunities of multidimensional authentic travel experiences through distinct hospitality frameworks, not only based on functional benefits, such as comfort, price or convenience,
but rather on increased meaningfulness of the travel experience resulting from guests’ exposure to intimate social interaction and rich aesthetic experiencescape. Six key dimensions of the tourism experience were hierarchized following a) conceptualization of experience dimensions in the literature and b) an identification process of recurrent narratives found in guests’ reviews of different P2PA located in ten preferred destinations worldwide. Accordingly, this study identifies 6 (six) major experience dimensions, apparently relevant to P2PA guests: (i) “aesthetic” as the most relevant experience dimension in terms of guests’ post-experience discourses, confirming Oh et al’ (2007) findings for b&b accommodation. For P2PA, the aesthetic dimension reflects sensorial stimuli recalled from the P2PA atmosphere, with the P2PA decoration, the views from balconies and terraces, the quiet P2PA surrounding and the flavour of foods and beverages offered by hosts standing out. (ii) The second most important dimension refers to “social interaction” (or Schmitt’s “relate” dimension). Staying in a P2PA, guests feel like being at their own homes due to the warm, friendly and generous hospitality offered by hosts. Although Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Eusébio (2015) have demonstrated that the social experience dimension comprises relationships between guests and their hosts, local inhabitants, travel mates and other tourists, the passive netnography conducted here identified only the guest-host relation as quite frequent within the narratives. (iii) The “affective” dimension emerges also as significant for the P2PA guest experience, with emotions of pleasure, happiness and surprise being frequently remembered. (iv) Entertainment, escape and educational experiences are the less verified dimensions within the analysed narratives. (v) Guests consider their hosts as genuine local representatives and, as such, the P2PA ambience reflects, to some extent, the destination image and perception of the host community. Accordingly, the aesthetic and social interaction dimensions are not only the most relevant experience dimensions but they also contribute to the guests’ perception of destination authenticity. (vi) Guests demonstrate loyalty attitudes in terms of recommending and revisit intention to the P2PA. Consequently the present results suggest that P2PA may not only meet market needs not fully addressed by traditional accommodation and constitute an interesting business opportunity for local hosts. These accommodation units may also represent an opportunity for destinations to enhance the destination experience and ultimately destination loyalty.

Some factors limit this study: although literature suggests the effect of tourists’ experiential consumption on destination attachment (Chen et al., 2016), the (passive) netnography methodology conducted on the analyzed P2PA guests’ reviews does not clearly demonstrate the mentioned relation, eventually since guests focus in their narratives on the P2Pexperience and present their more global impression in other forums, such as TripAdvisor. In future studies, a more active netnography or a traditional survey methodology are suggested to study the proposed causal relations.

References


IMMERSION IN LOCAL CULTURE THROUGH CO-CREATING FOOD EXPERIENCES.

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Introduction

There is increasing evidence that tourists value the opportunity of living enjoyable experiences when travelling. They want to immerse in destinations and their culture and to express themselves through experiences that allow knowledge transfer with local communities (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Richards, 2011). Tourists seek authentic, unique and memorable holiday experiences resulting from a close contact with local communities, supply agents and destination resources, leading to effective value co-creation (Prebensen & Dahl, 2013). Tourists also reveal a growing interest in developing an active role as co-producers of their destination experiences (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Campos, Mendes, do Valle & Scott, 2015; Prebensen & Foss, 2011). These desires require the adoption of the experience paradigm in tourism, in which co-creative quality experiences assume a central role, allowing consumer engagement in different experience dimensions (Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

The concept of co-creation is thus crucial and increasingly discussed in academic literature. Commonly, co-creation is related to an active engagement of customers with organizations (Grisseman & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Prebensen & Dahl, 2013), which allows the process of value-creation for consumers, who are also partly producers (Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy, & Prebensen, 2016). Binkhorst and Dekker (2009) suggest that co-creation implies an interaction between consumers and their context, including tourism service providers and local communities, who also assume an active role. Active participation and interaction are thus important key features in on-site experiences (Prebensen & Foss, 2011). Campos et al. (2015, p. 20) point out that “tourists are now seen as experiencers, creators, and actors” and want to live the local and authentic culture through an in-depth destination experience (Carvalho, Lima, Kastenholz & Sousa, 2016; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Marques & Lima, 2012).

Some researchers have also suggested key elements in providing immersive experiences, such as multisensory environments, the integration of local resources and themed experiences permitting a deeper, more unique and meaningful experience of products, resources, places and people (Crespi-Vallbona & Dimitrovski, 2016; Kastenholz et al, 2012). In the context of tourism, social contact, mainly with local residents has been found crucial for permitting closer contact with local culture (Kastenholz, Eusébio, Carneiro & Figueiredo, 2013).

Food tourism is a means of promoting local culture, traditions, identity and sense of place through involving and unique experiences (OECD, 2002) and a potential element to differentiate destinations and stimulate their competitiveness (McKercher, Okumus & Okumus, 2008). Gastronomy constitutes
an important part of tourists’ travel and a crucial element that should be managed by tourism supply in order to promote local food identity.

As a primary or secondary motivation for tourists, food is highly valued as a distinctive factor in destinations through which memorable and authentic experiences are achieved (Richards, 2002). Active participation and immersion in enjoyable and meaningful experiences may also be promoted in food tourism (Crespi-Vallbona & Dimitrovski, 2016). Experiencing food tourism is a travel purpose that is not limited to tasting local food, with the stimulation of different senses (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016) and its contextualization within local cultural and natural heritage contexts being crucial elements in a comprehensive destination experience. Moreover, offering the opportunity to contact with local residents, namely those preparing the food, may permit knowledge exchange and a closer proximity with local culture (Sidali, Kastenholz, & Bianchi, 2015). The co-creation of food experiences also provides tourists with the opportunity of adding “value to the eating experience to make it memorable” (Richards, 2002, p. 11).

Despite the ongoing debate on co-creation and immersion in tourism experiences, and despite the already important research on food tourism, studies on how immersive food tourism experiences may be co-created are still scarce.

This paper aims at showing the role that co-creation of food experiences may play in allowing engaging and unique opportunities to immerse in local culture, based on a Portuguese case study. This study also shows that co-creative food experiences may play a vital role in promoting destination image.

**Methods & materials**

The study is based on a literature review on co-creation experiences and food tourism that helped identify relevant dimensions of co-creative and immersive food tourism experiences. One of the main constructs of analysis was the tourist experience and its diverse dimensions, as suggested by Pine & Gilmore (1998), namely the ‘aesthetics’, ‘entertainment’, ‘educational’ and ‘escapist’ and by Schmitt (1999), when referring to the ‘sense’, ‘feel’, ‘think’, ‘act’ and ‘relate’. The dimensions of co-creation experience identified by Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson (2014) namely the ‘personalization’, ‘engagement’ and ‘co-production’ were also considered. Given the apparent conceptual proximity of some of these dimensions, we decided to consider the following broader dimensions: ‘sense/aesthetics’, ‘think/education’, ‘act/co-production/personalization’, ‘relate/escape/engagement’, with the original dimensions ‘feel’, ‘entertainment’ kept autonomous.

In the empirical study, secondary data was analysed based on Portuguese and foreign tourists’ post-visit comments left on the travel website TripAdvisor. Tourists’ opinions resulted from a food tour experience they had been part of, hosted by a Portuguese operator. TripAdvisor website was considered as it comprises large amounts of shared, user-generated content regarding travel experiences (more than 500 million reviews) (Tripadvisor, 2017). “Taste of Lisboa Food Tours”, a particular Portuguese co-creative food experience operator, is available on TripAdvisor under the tab “activities”. Through this search, it was possible to visualize and consider 451 tourists’ comments (till 13th March 2017) regarding the experience provided by this operator. In the data analysis, tourists’ reviews were copied manually from the site and were subject to a passive netnographic analysis with content analysis adopted to codify and categorize tourists’ discourses, according to the previously mentioned dimensions identified by Pine & Gilmore (1998), Schmitt (1999) and Minkiewicz et al. (2014). The coding process was manually
undertaken and a frequency analysis was chosen to identify the most relevant impressions of these tourists’ tour experience.

Research and Results

An interesting project on food experiences has been developed in Portugal’s capital city – Lisbon. “Taste of Lisboa Food Tours” promotes the authenticity of Portuguese food through interactive and involving experiences in traditional places that are part of Lisbon’s essence. Tourists have the opportunity to taste local flavours, learn about historical and cultural elements that are linked to the city’s traditional products and interact with locals through, among other activities, gastronomic tours or cooking classes, where knowledge transfer is assured. In this study, tourists’ perspectives are based on food tour experiences.

Consumers who have participated in the tours and displayed comments on “Tripadvisor” express a positive opinion about the food and wine which were at the core of these experiences on tour and that are generally perceived as ‘typical’ and ‘tasty’, thereby highlighting the role of the sensory dimension ‘taste’. Sardines, codfish cakes, olive oil, cheese, roast beef sandwiches, fish soup, green wine and “ginginha” (a shot of cherry liqueur) were some of the products mentioned. Tourists seem to be pleased by the multisensory environments experienced making references not only to the taste, but also to the visual aspect of the tasted food and wine as well as the experiencescape, namely typical neighborhoods and traditional places, conferring a particular aesthetic note to the experience. Thus, the sensory food experience may be sub-divided into food-sensory and experiencescape-sensory.

Additionally, comments show that scenarios such as ‘typical neighbourhoods’ provided a relevant opportunity to immerse in the city’s culture, as the following comment illustrates: “rich in depth introduction of the neighbourhood [made by the local guide] gave the tour a soul and a deeper purpose”. In this context, close contact with local people, including the locals serving in the restaurants and contacting with local residents during the tour, enhances the perception of an ‘relate/ escape/ engagement experience’, engaging tourists more deeply and allowing them to gain a deeper ‘sense of place’ or understanding of local identity, highlighted by participants as crucial experience element.

Results also reveal that learning about cultural and historical food facts and those related with Portuguese history and culture when moving past certain city-spots, namely the history of Fado and the reference to typical neighbourhoods like Mouraria, were also very important and interesting to contextualize the food experience (think/ education). Based on the comments, it seems that these ‘food facts’ and curiosities were promoted in a very professional and detailed way by local guides. These educational elements were appreciated and highlighted by several tourists who valued the learning process in which they played an active part (act/ co-production/ personalization) and who also emphasized the role of personal contact to give them a sense of engagement in and effective co-creation of the experience (relate/ escape/ engagement). Personalization was also observed in situations when guides adapted their storytelling to children present in the travel groups.

It was also mentioned that the experience made them feel part of the city, which proves the opportunity of ‘immersion in local culture’ attached to this food experience. Portuguese and foreign customers refer to the positive interaction and close contact with local guides and local community, where the role of local suppliers and inhabitants is enhanced. Visitors frequently reported enthusiasm and delight with the food tour experience (feel). It seems that an active co-production experience with educational elements and social interaction enhances an immersive and pleasantly arousing (feel) ‘escape’
experience. These positive and mutually reinforcing experience dimensions lead to attitudinal and behaviour loyalty, since visitors reported the intention of repeating the visit and exploring other food tours as well as the wish to recommend them to others.

Discussion

Tourism experience is becoming a topic of major interest to suppliers who want to be more competitive through unique and customized experiences (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012), considering that tourists want to express themselves and create memorable experiences (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Campos et al., 2015). Food tourism combines local resources and cultural identity which are unique elements and “raw-materials” of co-creation. Findings show that attractive and distinctive products and environments, involving a varied set of tangible and intangible elements (aesthetics/ sensory), are the basis for very appealing co-creative gastronomy experiences permitting immersion in local culture (escape/ relate/ engagement).

The study also reinforced that some elements recognised by some researchers as important drivers of immersive co-creative experiences – multisensory opportunities, educational opportunities and social contact (Björk & Kauppinen-Rääsiänen, 2016; Crespi-Vallbona & Dimitrovski, 2016; OECD, 2012) – may have a crucial role in immersive, co-creative food experiences, potentially enhancing place-attachment. In the present study, the multisensory environment, based on high quality gastronomy, with typical ingredients and recipes, and on typical neighbourhood sceneries (sense/ aesthetics), enriched by social contacts established with local guides and local community (relate/ escape/ engagement), played a special role in generating highly participative, personalized experiences (act/ co-production/ personalization) where people felt part of the city visited (escape/ relate/ engagement), recognized as very important in immersive food experiences (Crespi-Vallbona & Dimitrovski, 2016). Knowledge-transfer regarding local history and culture, through theming and story-telling (think/ education), a positive element in co-creative tourist experiences (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009; Richards, 2011), is highlighted by tourists, referring to local guides who contextualize food experiences with historical facts. All these features are important to enhance pleasantly arousing (feel) and memorable experiences, potentially leading to more competitive and appealing destinations (Grissemann & Stockburger-Sauer, 2012; Kastenholz et al., 2012; Mathis et al., 2016). It is interesting to note that the Pine and Gilmore’s (1998) ‘entertainment’ dimension was not clearly found in the visitors’ discourses, which may be due to the fact that the here studied food tour experience implies a more active participation of visitors, contrasting the passive perspective suggested by the authors.

Indeed, local gastronomy may be perceived as a vehicle projecting cultural identity and comprises crucial elements that add value to co-creative destination experiences. Considering the limited scope of the present study, additional research should be undertaken to analyse potential drivers and moderators of this kind of experiences in other food tourism and destination contexts. For example, the impact of cultural proximity, level of education and novelty seeking may be interesting variables to consider. A deeper, qualitative analysis digging into tourists’ perspectives on food tourism immersion, relevance and meanings of these experiences within the overall destination experience, should also be considered.
References


"I WAS THERE!" URBAN LANDSCAPE AND THE TOURIST EXPERIENCE IN WARSAW, POLAND.

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Introduction

According to Law (1993) large cities are arguably the most important type of tourist destination across the world. However, identifying what are the main urban tourist attractions remains a challenge. More than 20 years ago Page (1995) noted that conceptualizing why tourists seek cities as places to visit is one starting point in trying to understand the phenomenon of urban tourism. Today we could paraphrase his view by noting that what tourists seek in cities as places to visit is a key issue in studying urban tourism. Sassen and Roost (1999) point out that modern tourism is no longer centered on the historic monument, concert hall, or museum but on the urban scene or, more precisely, on some version of the urban scene fit for tourism. Therefore, it is not the ‘traditional attractions’ that appeal urban tourists, but rather urban offer providing excitement, amusement and experience. As suggested by Ashworth and Page (2011, 5), “the tourist city is not necessarily a distinct spatial entity that the visitor can easily recognize: it is a patchwork of consumption experiences, spatially-dispersed and often grouped into districts and zones (e.g. the entertainment zone) with symbols, a unique language and range of icons to differentiate the experience of place consumption. In this respect the tourist city is a series of sub-systems interconnected by the pursuit of pleasure, the consumption experience and a defining characteristic – the discretionary use of leisure time”.

In our study we refer to the concept of landscape, which is understood here as a complex socio-ecological system that is perceived and experienced by tourists (Bucley, Ollenburg, Zhong 2008). The visual structure of landscape results from its evolution and reflects interactions between different cultural and natural elements (Martinez de Pisón 2009). Each landscape tells its story. This can be, however, interpreted differently.

Drawing on this, the purpose of this paper is to verify how tourists perceive the cultural landscape of a big city and to what extent this image is coherent with the one emerged from the promotional materials. We present the case of Warsaw (Warszawa), Poland. With its 3 m tourists per year (official statistics), Warsaw is not a major, but growing European tourist destination. Due to course of history the city is very diversified, that makes it both attractive and difficult to interpret by tourists. The promotion of the city focuses on its main cultural attractions. Therefore we aim at verifying whether Warsaw as perceived by tourists is about these icons and urban traditional attractions, or maybe it has more complex and individual character, that focuses rather on ‘pursuit of pleasure’ than classical sightseeing.
**Methods and materials**

In order to verify how tourists perceive Warsaw we analyze pictures taken by them and uploaded on the Flickr website. By taking photos, tourists give evidence that something attracted their attention or did indeed happen; that they did consume the city and the cultural experience offered by it (Urry 1990). As suggested by Urry (1990), tourists tend to focus on images which have already been seen in tour company brochures or on TV programs. In this respect, analyzing photographs helps to verify whether tourists indeed record places promoted in a city and what elements are the most important for the perceived image of the city. Knowing this is essential as it allows to predict tourists’ needs and to respond to them in order to manage not just tourism, but the whole urban system in a sustainable and efficient way.

Analyzing photographs shared in Internet is a popular tool used by tourism researchers. Several studies have used photo-sharing websites with different purposes. The most often it is used for monitoring tourism movement (e.g. Wood, Guerry, Silver, Lacayo 2013; Popescu, Grefenstette, Moëlle 2009), but also for studying cultural differences between tourists from different parts of the world (Stepchenkova, Kim, Kirilenko 2014) or clustering tourists (Donaire, Camprubí, Gali 2014). Another option to use data from photo-sharing websites is studying destination image. An important aspect of this developing field of research appears in spatial analysis of collected data. For example García-Palomares, Gutiérrez and Mínguez (2015) used photo-sharing services for identifying and analyzing the main tourist attractions in eight major European cities. As tourists’ behavior is shaped by different factors, including marketing, it is very useful to verify whether these behaviours overlap with promotional city image. Molina, Gómez and Martín-Consuegra (2010) realized such a study comparing survey data (tourists’ city image) with promotional brochures. This study did not, however, include spatial aspects. Stepchenkova and Zhan (2013), on the other hand, verified photo-sharing websites with destination images transmitted by the DMOs, but it was realized on a national level.

In this study we analyze photographs uploaded on the Flickr, which is one of the most popular photo-sharing websites. It allows users to geotag a photo, which, in turn, makes it easy to find pictures that refer to a selected destination. We performed the quantitative analysis of the landscape’s structure using the same logic as in case of content analysis (Babbie 2013), used also in analyzing visual elements (Sztompka 2005). The research procedure is composed of three steps:

1. **Choosing a sample.** In order to make the sample of photographs as reliable as possible in terms of representativeness, we choose every hundredth photo geotagged in Warsaw, which means that around 2500 photographs are being analysed.

2. **Coding.** This step helps to identify key components for the image, and then divide them into categories. These categories should be mutually exclusive, comprehensive and explanatory. In this study we identified the following categories of urban landscape:
   - Main tourist icons of the city from before 1945 (i.e. the Old Town, The Museum of King Jan III’s Palace at Wilanów);
   - Main tourist icons of the city constructed after 1945 (i.e. socialist heritage and contemporary building, such as POLIN Museum of the History of Polish Jews);
   - Architecture (apart from the tourist icons mentioned above)
   - General views of the city
   - Souvenirs and crafts
- Food and drink
- Local people
- Entertainment (clubs, concerts, etc.)
- Parks
- Visla river
- Monuments
- Markers
- Other elements of urban landscape.

3. Content analysis. Each photo is assigned to one category which suits the most. Then, a number of pictures in each type is summed up. As the list presented above encompasses landscape elements of different dynamic (static vs ephemeral), age (historical vs contemporary) and scale (general image vs details) the results of quantitative analysis serve to construct the structural model of cultural landscape of Warsaw as it is perceived by tourists.

The same method is being used for the analysis of Warsaw’s promotional materials. These materials are gathered in two ways: first, the official city’s website is analyzed. Second, the official materials available at the tourist information center in Warsaw are analyzed.

Results

As it is still an ongoing study, we are not able to present full results at this stage. The first outcomes show, however, that although main tourists’ attractions are undoubtedly the „anchors” of the city image, tourists “consume” far more of city’s landscape then just this static image. The landscape as unveiled by the analyzed pictures is dynamic and multi-scaled. The cultural experience of a city is not just about visiting architecture. Tourists take pictures (and likely remember) of not just general images of the main attractions, but of plenty of details, some of them of ephemeral character: cultural events, flowers and animal in parks, signposts and other markers. One of the most important elements of the cultural landscape are other people themselves (locals as well as other tourists). Moreover, urban landscape experienced by tourists is not just a visual image – it is felt by all senses, with testing local food as one of the most often documented.

Discussion

The analysis of material supported by social media is sometimes criticized for its selectivity (only web-active persons are includes) and randomness (we can’t be sure that all images included in the analysis have actually been taken by tourists). Still, it offers the advantage of an easy access to a big amount of visual data which are a source of important information on tourists, their preferences and behaviours.

Tourists experience urban landscape as a complex system. It is not the exact geographical place where a tourist takes a photograph which is important, but elements of an urban landscape. Identifying them and their mutual relations could help not only to deliver attractive tourist products, but also to avoid risks arising from tourism development.
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Events as a way of cultural promotion and competitive strategy behind hospitality

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Florianópolis, capital of Santa Catarina (Brazil), was colonized by Portuguese coming from the Açores (Portugal). It is still possible perceive the cultural aspects preserved in the city. It became a modern city, with infrastructure to receive tourists and events during all the year but the population still follow the historical costumes inherited from its colonizers.

Festivals as the Festa do Divino are considered important tools for preservation and dissemination of local culture. As a way of valuation, the local community is involved not only by visiting the events, but they have their place on the organization, performing and exposing.

Therefore, this research intended understand if the Festa do Divino contributes to the cultural promotion and the competitive strategy of the tourist destination. This research aimed to answer the question: "The Festa do Divino can contribute with the cultural promotion and the competitive strategy of the tourist destination?".

The specific goals was: verify the importance of the Festa do Divino as a way of cultural promotion; understand how the Festa do Divino can potencialize the competitive strategy; analyse how the hospitality is inserted on this context.

The research was a exploratory with a quantitative approach. For data collection was used questionnaire with Likert scale, through Survey. The results show that people mind about cultural events and agree that the realization of them can be an efficient way to preserve the local culture, that means it is positive for the competitive strategy of a tourist destination. Furthermore, it was possible to analyze that the hospitality can be perceived in the moments of organization of the event next to the community, as well as in welcoming the visitor, which also reflects positively in the competitive strategy.

Methodologically, this study is presented as a quantitative research study, exploratory and with qualitative approach.

Methods and Materials

This is a quantitative research study. Data collection was conducted through survey research that aims to answer questions related to the research proposal and to check what happens in the natural environment of the phenomenon, beyond what has already happened in the recent past. This is a descriptive study that seeks to identify views on the subject observed and enables verification of the perception of events in relation to reality (Pinsonneault & Kremer, 1993).
For the research were distributed questionnaires Likert scale over the Internet, via email and social network. This questionnaire was intended to observe how people view about cultural promotion and preservation mainly in festivals.

**Research and Results**

Hospitality to Grinover (2002) means accept, receive, give good welcome, kindness and amiability. According to Gotman (2001), hospitality is able to provide the human relationships between people from different places to settle and reciprocate services as sociability practices.

Lashley (2004) states that "hospitality is the relationship between host and guest" (p. 21), the tourist satisfaction is essential to successful destination marketing because it can impacts the future selection of a destination and intention to visit by tourists.

Brito e Fontes (2002) says that one of the goals in organize a public event is increase the visitors numbers and improving tourism demand for the city that performs event, as Andrade (1999) affirms that the events organization is a way to multiply business due to its potential to generate new visitor flows. According Zottis (2006) in the events the hospitality process begins in public awareness of the importance of the event, seeking community engagement from its planning, causing the community to become a partner and also coresponsible, hosting the event.

Events are a key, a marketing truism that people do not buy products or services, buy the expected benefits to satisfy a need. It is important to identify the needs of visitors to the design of a festival can be adapted to meet them needs identification is a prerequisite to effectively develop elements of a festival (Crompton & McKay, 1997).

Florianópolis is a city of sun and beach tourism that in summer reaches up to receive 2 million visitors by the local media. The Festa do Divino period happens in low season around the city. Are performed a variety of celebrations throughout the island and also on the continent.

The research points that people care about cultural aspects and the main intention of the local community is that the neighborhood has become increasingly known for its concern about cultural preservation.

**Discussion**

Events can be considered part of a competitive strategy for the neighborhood to keep visited and recognized. The survey and the theoretical background aport to the understanding that the hospitality relationships can influence in a destination, as well as the organization of events, including events for cultural promotion and preservation.

Carneiro, Oliveira e Carvalho (2010) state that tourists looking culture have as their main motivation desire to be in contact with different cultures, visiting representative heritage elements of of a certain community (architectural complexes, archaeological sites, traditional dances, religion, cuisine, handicrafts, musicality, artistic performances). Cucculelli and Goffi (2016) affirm that sustainability can improve competitiveness.
References


COMMUNICATING CONSERVATION: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CETACEAN BASED TOUR OPERATOR WEBSITES.

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Introduction

Tourism activities involving cetaceans have gained popularity, with 2009 estimates that activities such as “whale watching [attract] approximately 13 million people in 119 different countries generating US$2.1 billion” (O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez, & Knowles, 2009). The term whale watching is used throughout this paper to describe watching of all wild cetaceans (e.g. whales, dolphins, porpoises). The low-cost entry for small operators to enter the whale watching market makes it an attractive segment to take advantage of. As such, growth of whale watching in developing countries doubled in a decade (Mustika, Birtles, Everingham & Marsh, 2013), and is predicted to account for at least half of future growth within the industry (Mustika, Welters, Ryan, D’Lima, Sorongon-Yap, Jutapruet & Peter, 2016).

While the economic benefits are evident, potential risks for wildlife are important to consider, given the lack of environmental awareness and poorly enforced or non-existent regulations within developing countries (Mustika et al., 2016). Beyond the economic, others argue whale watching has the potential to contribute to both environmental education and research (Lambert, Hunter, Pierce & MacLeod, 2010). Contrastingly, in some developed countries (e.g. Australia) education and interpretation is compulsory for tour operators to ensure they maintain their licences in the interests of a sustainable industry (Peakes, Innes & Dyer, 2009). The nature of restrictions is evident through whale watching codes of conduct around the world. However, Garrod and Fennell’s (2004) analysis of whale watching codes on a global scale showed evidence of wide variation, and posited this was negative when considering the ultimate need for sustainability in the industry. While different whale watching conduct codes around the world cannot necessarily enforce communication outlined on organisational websites, they may give organisations pause to think about their identity and purpose.

Method

The purpose of this study is to explore how small enterprises involved with cetacean tourism express their identity, including how they present and interpret elements of conservation. It is important to establish how businesses and local stakeholders communicate elements of conservation to potential visitors, given the importance and increased practise of cetacean based tourism. Websites act as tools to communicate the identity of an organisation or destination to consumers (Florek, Insch, & Gnoth, 2006). As such, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the online offerings of cetacean based tourism providers, using a content analysis of websites (see Moghavvemu, Ormond, Musa, Isa, Thirumoorthi, Mustapha, Kanapathy, & Chandy, 2017; Horng & Tsai, 2010). Honey’s (2008) notion of an eco-tourism
scorecard was used as a basis for the development of a framework to assess each organisation. Additional context-specific constructs were included from both an initial review of websites, and the literature: interaction and proximity to cetaceans (Orams, 2000; Ziegler, Dearden & Rollins, 2012; Bach & Burton, 2017); and crew commitment (Ziegler et al., 2012) (see Figure 1).

- Travel to Natural Destinations
- Minimises Impact
- Builds Environmental Awareness
- Direct benefits for conservation
- Financial benefits and empowerment for local people
- Promotion of sustainable practices
- Local culture, flora and fauna being the primary motivation for visit
- Interaction
- Crew

*Figure 1. Whale watching scorecard constructs.*

A google search was conducted to identify webpages for cetacean based tourism organisations, using terms related to ‘whale watching’, ‘dolphin watching’, and ‘porpoise watching’, with the inclusion of countries known for whale watching (O’Connor et al., 2009; e.g. ‘whale watching Australia’). Each webpage was saved and transferred to NVivo 11 using NCapture. Analysis was conducted using the scorecard framework developed from a review of the literature (see figure 1).

**Research and preliminary results**

This study represents a preliminary analysis of the data, in which 25 sites were reviewed in relation to the proposed scorecard. The purpose of a preliminary study was to explore the nature of the data before a larger scale analysis was considered. Approximately 230 websites have been identified to date. Given the findings of this initial study, further analysis will be conducted, and will be available for presentation by September of 2017. An example of a completed scorecard is outlined in figure 2.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they advertise travelling to remote locations?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1/4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minimises Impact</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they recycle / minimise waste?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they have a limit on visitor numbers / group sizes</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protect environment?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are they proactive in minimising impacts that</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occur through their use of land?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they attempt to have a low carbon footprint (or</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offset)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Builds Environmental Awareness</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they mention educating their customers on nature /</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eco-friendliness?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage visitors to use eco-friendly / sustainable</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ public transport?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they offer visitors the chance to offset carbon</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emissions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they promote a respect for nature?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct benefits for conservation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is conservation one of their key functions?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are they members of (or in partnership with) any</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conservation trusts?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are they actively involved in conservation?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion of sustainable practices</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scheme or similar accreditation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are they conscious of energy use / efficiency?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**Local culture, flora and fauna being the primary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation for visit**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the company exclusively ecotourism? (Or crossover</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to other forms of tourism?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the local culture, flora or fauna the main focus</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on their website?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is there mention of seeing wildlife?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do they offer the chance to interact with local</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people / culture?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interaction with wildlife</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do tour operators promote the need for distance from</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the whales?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do tour operators promote swimming? (reverse coded)</td>
<td>x*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do tour operators outline the appropriate methods to</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approach whales?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3/3*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crew</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do crew provide interpretations (regarding conservation education)?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are crew scientifically qualified?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are employees committed to conservation?</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Total</td>
<td>13/34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.** Ecotourism/ cetacean scorecard example.

**Discussion**

Coding was conducted using Microsoft Excel, to allow the researchers to allocate scores to each of the attributes within the constructs. Scores were allocated utilising a dichotomous scale, with the attributes either rated as absent (0) or present (1) (Moghavvemi et al., 2017). This allowed evaluations to be made across various organisations and regions, but also allowed the proposed constructs to be considered further. To evaluate relationships between constructs, a correlation analysis was conducted, and presence of attributes across each construct were included as continuous variables. The correlation analysis identified four significant relationships between constructs: awareness and impact \((r=0.42; p=0.04)\); awareness and sustainability \((r=0.50; p=0.01)\); awareness and crew \((r=0.59; p=0.01)\); and empowerment and flora & fauna \((r=0.53; p=0.01)\). Thus, it can be proposed that when an organisation is building environmental awareness amongst visitors they are also interested in impact and sustainability. The relationship between awareness and crew is proposed to relate to the meaningful communication of conservation information (education). The relationship between the empowerment of local people and flora & fauna, emphasises the strong link between the two in relation to conservation. However, this finding also shows that if one of the components is missing from an organisation’s communication, the other is likely to be avoided as well.

This initial study provides researchers with some insights to take forward to the larger study, based on ways cetacean based enterprises portray their identity to potential visitors online. From the initial sample of 25 sites, it is proposed that variations of identity exist across regions. For example, the presence of criteria relating to approaching whales appeared more prevalent within European countries. Additionally, discussions of research and conservation were more prevalent for organisations from developed countries. A key limitation of this study results from the increase in growth of whale watching in developing countries. Given the ease of entry to the market, many of these smaller operations do not have websites to communicate their brand identity. However, of those websites sourced, there is a range of pages from developing countries to be included.

Overall, the purpose of this study is to better understand how conservation is presented at an organisational level. The analysis of cetacean based tourism organisations presents an interesting challenge given the different levels of growth in various areas around the world, and the fragmented nature of whale watching codes (Garrod & Fennell, 2004). Given the insights derived from this study, a larger scale study exploring more than 200 identified websites will be carried out. This will attain and strengthen insights into relationships between constructs presented in whale watching operator identities, how these organisations present themselves globally, and more importantly, how conservation is presented to potential tourists around the world.
References


SESSION 3

EVENTS AND COMMUNICATION
EVENTS AS A WAY OF CULTURAL PROMOTION AND COMPETITIVE STRATEGY BEHIND HOSPITALITY

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Florianópolis, capital of Santa Catarina (Brazil), was colonized by Portuguese coming from the Açores (Portugal). Is still possible perceive the cultural aspects preserved in the city. It became a modern city, with infrastructure to receive tourists and events during all the year but the population still follow the historical costums inherited from its colonizers.

Festivals as the Festa do Divino are considered important tools for preservation and dissemination of local culture. As a way of valuation, the local community is involved not only by visiting the events, but they have their place on the organization, performing and exposing.

Therefore, this research intended understand if the Festa do Divino contributes to the culture promotion and the competitive strategy of the turistic destination. This research aimed to answer the question: "The Festa do Divino can contribute with the cultural promotion and the competitive strategy of the turistic destination?".

The specific goals was: verify the importance of the Festa do Divino as a way of cultural promotion; understand how the Festa do Divino can potencialize the competitive strategy; analyse how the hospitality is inserted on this context.

The research was a exploratory with a quantitative approach. For data collection was used questionnaire with Likert scale, through Survey. The results show that people mind about cultural events and agree that the realization of them can be an efficient way to preserve the local culture, that means it is positive for the competitive strategy of a turistic destination. Furthermore, it was possible to analyze that the hospitality can be perceived in the moments of organization of the event next to the community, as well as in welcoming the visitor, which also reflects positively in the competitive strategy.

Methodologically, this study is presented as a quantitative research study, exploratory and with qualitative approach.

Methods & materials

This is a quantitative research study. Data collection was conducted through survey research that aims to answer questions related to the research proposal and to check what happens in the natural environment of the phenomenon, beyond what has already happened in the recent past. This is a descriptive study that seeks to identify views on the subject observed and enables verification of the perception of events in relation to reality (Pinsonneault & Kremer, 1993).
For the research were distributed questionnaires Likert scale over the Internet, via email and social network. This questionnaire was intended to observe how people view about cultural promotion and preservation mainly in festivals.

**Research and results**

Hospitality to Grinover (2002) means accept, receive, give good welcome, kindness and amiability. According to Gotman (2001), hospitality is able to provide the human relationships between people from different places to settle and reciprocate services as sociability practices.

Lashley (2004) states that "hospitality is the relationship between host and guest" (p. 21), the tourist satisfaction is essential to successful destination marketing because it can impacts the future selection of a destination and intention to visit by tourists.

Brito e Fontes (2002) says that one of the goals in organize a public event is increase the visitors numbers and improving tourism demand for the city that performs event, as Andrade (1999) affirms that the events organization is a way to multiply business due to its potential to generate new visitor flows. According Zottis (2006) in the events the hospitality process begins in public awareness of the importance of the event, seeking community engagement from its planning, causing the community to become a partner and also coresponsible, hosting the event.

Events are a key, a marketing truism that people do not buy products or services, buy the expected benefits to satisfy a need. It is important to identify the needs of visitors to the design of a festival can be adapted to meet them needs identification is a prerequisite to effectively develop elements of a festival (Crompton & McKay, 1997).

Florianópolis is a city of sun and beach tourism that in summer reaches up to receive 2 million visitors by the local media. The Festa do Divino period happens in low season around the city. Are performed a variety of celebrations throughout the island and also on the continent.

The research points that people care about cultural aspects and the main intention of the local community is that the neighborhood has become increasingly known for its concern about cultural preservation.

**Discussion**

Events can be considered part of a competitive strategy for the neighborhood to keep visited and recognized. The survey and the theoretical background aport to the understanding that the hospitality relationships can influence in a destination, as well as the organization of events, including events for cultural promotion and preservation.

Carneiro, Oliveira e Carvalho (2010) state that tourists looking culture have as their main motivation desire to be in contact with different cultures, visiting representative heritage elements of of a certain community (architectural complexes, archaeological sites, traditional dances, religion, cuisine, handicrafts, musicality, artistic performances). Cucculelli and Goffi (2016) affirm that sustainability can improve competitiveness.

**References**


COMMUNICATING CONSERVATION: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CETACEAN BASED TOUR OPERATOR WEBSITES.

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Konstantinos Tomazos, University of Strathclyde, UK.
Juliette Wilson, University of Strathclyde, UK, juliette.wilson@strath.ac.uk

Introduction

Tourism activities involving cetaceans have gained popularity, with 2009 estimates that activities such as “whale watching [attract] approximately 13 million people in 119 different countries generating US$2.1 billion” (O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez, & Knowles, 2009). The term whale watching is used throughout this paper to describe watching of all wild cetaceans (e.g. whales, dolphins, porpoises). The low-cost entry for small operators to enter the whale watching market makes it an attractive segment to take advantage of. As such, growth of whale watching in developing countries doubled in a decade (Mustika, Birtles, Everingham & Marsh, 2013), and is predicted to account for at least half of future growth within the industry (Mustika, Welters, Ryan, D’Lima, Sorongon-Yap, Jutapruet & Peter, 2016).

While the economic benefits are evident, potential risks for wildlife are important to consider, given the lack of environmental awareness and poorly enforced or non-existent regulations within developing countries (Mustika et al., 2016). Beyond the economic, others argue whale watching has the potential to contribute to both environmental education and research (Lambert, Hunter, Pierce & MacLeod, 2010). Contrastingly, in some developed countries (e.g. Australia) education and interpretation is compulsory for tour operators to ensure they maintain their licences in the interests of a sustainable industry (Peakes, Innes & Dyer, 2009). The nature of restrictions is evident through whale watching codes of conduct around the world. However, Garrod and Fennell’s (2004) analysis of whale watching codes on a global scale showed evidence of wide variation, and posited this was negative when considering the ultimate need for sustainability in the industry. While different whale watching conduct codes around the world cannot necessarily enforce communication outlined on organisational websites, they may give organisations pause to think about their identity and purpose.

Method

The purpose of this study is to explore how small enterprises involved with cetacean tourism express their identity, including how they present and interpret elements of conservation. It is important to establish how businesses and local stakeholders communicate elements of conservation to potential visitors, given the importance and increased practise of cetacean based tourism. Websites act as tools to communicate the identity of an organisation or destination to consumers (Florek, Insch, & Gnoth, 2006). As such, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the online offerings of cetacean based tourism providers, using a content analysis of websites (see Moghavvemu, Ormond, Musa, Isa, Thirumoorthi, Mustapha, Kanapathy, & Chandy, 2017; Horng & Tsai, 2010). Honey’s (2008) notion of an eco-tourism scorecard was used as a basis for the development of a framework to assess each organisation. Additional context-specific constructs were included from both an initial review of websites, and the
literature: interaction and proximity to cetaceans (Orams, 2000; Ziegler, Dearden & Rollins, 2012; Bach & Burton, 2017); and crew commitment (Ziegler et al., 2012) (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Whale watching scorecard constructs.

Travel to Natural Destinations
Minimises Impact
Builds Environmental Awareness
Direct benefits for conservation
Financial benefits and empowerment for local people
Promotion of sustainable practices
Local culture, flora and fauna being the primary motivation for visit
Interaction
Crew

A google search was conducted to identify webpages for cetacean based tourism organisations, using terms related to ‘whale watching’, ‘dolphin watching’, and ‘porpoise watching’, with the inclusion of countries known for whale watching (O’Connor et al., 2009; e.g. ‘whale watching Australia’). Each webpage was saved and transferred to NVivo 11 using NCapture. Analysis was conducted using the scorecard framework developed from a review of the literature (see figure 1).

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This study represents a preliminary analysis of the data, in which 25 sites were reviewed in relation to the proposed scorecard. The purpose of a preliminary study was to explore the nature of the data before a larger scale analysis was considered. Approximately 230 websites have been identified to date. Given the findings of this initial study, further analysis will be conducted, and will be available for presentation by September of 2017. An example of a completed scorecard is outlined in figure 2.

Figure 2. Ecotourism/ cetacean scorecard example.

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</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Do they donate directly to conservation projects?</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Are they actively involved in their local community?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Culture, Flora and Fauna Being the Primary Motivation for Visit</strong></td>
<td>Is the company exclusively ecotourism? (Or crossover to other forms of tourism?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is the local culture, flora or fauna the main focus on their website?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Is there mention of seeing wildlife? ✓
Do they offer the chance to interact with local people / culture? x
Total 3/4

**Interaction with wildlife**

- Do tour operators promote the need for distance from the whales? ✓
- Do tour operators promote swimming? (reverse coded) x
- Do tour operators outline the appropriate methods to approach whales? ✓
Total 3/3*

**Crew**

- Do crew provide interpretations (regarding conservation education)? x
- Are crew scientifically qualified? x
- Are employees committed to conservation? x
Total 0/3

**Overall Total** 13/34

**Discussion**

Coding was conducted using Microsoft Excel, to allow the researchers to allocate scores to each of the attributes within the constructs. Scores were allocated utilising a dichotomous scale, with the attributes either rated as absent (0) or present (1) (Moghavvemi et al., 2017). This allowed evaluations to be made across various organisations and regions, but also allowed the proposed constructs to be considered further. To evaluate relationships between constructs, a correlation analysis was conducted, and presence of attributes across each construct were included as continuous variables. The correlation analysis identified four significant relationships between constructs: awareness and impact ($r=0.42; p=0.04$); awareness and sustainability ($r=0.50; p=0.01$); awareness and crew ($r=0.59; p=0.01$); and empowerment and flora & fauna ($r=0.53; p=0.01$). Thus, it can be proposed that when an organisation is building environmental awareness amongst visitors they are also interested in impact and sustainability. The relationship between awareness and crew is proposed to relate to the meaningful communication of conservation information (education). The relationship between the empowerment of local people and flora & fauna, emphasises the strong link between the two in relation to conservation. However, this finding also shows that if one of the components is missing from an organisation’s communication, the other is likely to be avoided as well.

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Overall, the purpose of this study is to better understand how conservation is presented at an organizational level. The analysis of cetacean based tourism organisations presents an interesting challenge given the different levels of growth in various areas around the world, and the fragmented nature of whale watching codes (Garrod & Fennell, 2004). Given the insights derived from this study, a larger scale study exploring more than 200 identified websites will be carried out. This will attain and strengthen insights into relationships between constructs presented in whale watching operator identities, how these organisations present themselves globally, and more importantly, how conservation is presented to potential tourists around the world.

References:


ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF MEDIA CONSTRUCTION OF DESTINATIONS: MUSIC VIDEOS AS INFLUENCERS OF DESTINATION PREFERENCES

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Abstract

Destination image formation before the actual travel is considered to be the most important phase in tourists’ destination selection process (Gartner, 1986; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). There are various external and internal factors that shape this process, and today, online media influencers are more important than ever. In accordance with the model of destination image formation proposed by Beerli and Martín (2004a), the perceived image of a destination is determined by two main group of factors: information sources, which include primary and secondary sources; and personal factors including motivations, vacation experience and socio-demographic characteristics (Figure 1).

Gunn (1997) and Khodadadi (2013) indicated that primary factors refer to first-hand experiences of the visitor from previous visit. Secondary information sources, on the other hand, can be divided into two groups. Organic sources include what a person already knows or perceives about a destination. These images are gathered over time from media sources and personal travelogues of friends, family and colleagues etc. Induced information sources are those specifically designed and projected by tourism businesses and agencies to attract travellers to certain target areas.

Focussing on secondary information sources, Gartner (1994) distinguished overt and covert variants of organic and induced agents (Figure 2). In addition, autonomous sources were identified as independently produced forms of news and popular culture, such as reports, documentaries and movies. As such independent resources, these may have the highest credibility as well as highest potential for market penetration among all agents and may be the only ones capable of changing an area’s image dramatically in a short period of time.

Considering this high potential for market influence, the present paper aims to explore the role of autonomous sources, and contrast them with organic and induced sources, in the destination image
formation process. In particular, the focus is on a specific form of autonomous resources, i.e., short music videos shared online on popular video-sharing websites such as Youtube. Today, the filming location of music videos is of vital importance for the success of the videoclips, therefore locations are strategically selected. The main objective is to explore the impact of music videos shot entirely in a specific destination on the destination image formation of the target population, i.e. the young adult group (15-34yrs). Specifically, the aim is to understand the impact of these sources as compared to the induced sources and explore how they affect the target group’s organic, already existing view of the destination.

While most studies focus on the understanding of the overall image process formation (Gartner, 1994; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004a) and the measurement of destination image (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Discrol, Lawson et al., 1994; Beerli and Martín 2004b), more recently, research on media effects have risen (Mercille, 2005; Stepchenkova and Eales, 2011), particularly with reference to film-induced tourism (Young and Young 2008; Hudson, Wang et al., 2011). However, there is a lack of studies addressing the potential of popular music videos as independent sources. In addition, juxtaposing music videos and promotional videos in the same study to explore their impact on destination image formation and destination preferences, is also a novel aspect of this research.

To this end, a focus group method was used, in which four groups of 10 students were formed. The research experiment was performed in two stages. First, two sessions were run at the same time, in which randomly assigned 10 students watched music videos in Session 1, and 10 students watched promotional videos in Session 2. Three music videos were played in Session 1 (Justin Bieber – I’ll show you; Luis Fonsi - Despacito ft. Daddy Yankee; 3. Clean Bandit - Extraordinary ft. Sharna Bass) and the latest three, official promotional videos of the corresponding destinations were played in Session 2 (Iceland, Cuba and Puerto Rico, respectively). The objective of these individual sessions was to explore how music videos and promotional videos influence the destination image of the target population. The screening sessions were then followed by a group discussion in each group led by one of the participating researcher and following a previously prepared discussion guide. At the second stage, Session groups 1 and 2 were merged into one single session (consisting of 20 students) in which the music videos and the promotional videos were all played one by one, first the music video then the corresponding promotional video, altogether 6 videos. This merged screening session was also followed by a group discussion, led by the two previous researchers in which students were asked about their overall impression of the destinations, as well as their willingness to do a follow-up research online for more information about, and eventually, travel opportunities to, the destination. This allows us to explore the importance of including the missing conative image in Beerli and Martín (2004a)’s model to complement the cognitive and affective imagine in overall image formation of destinations, based on the literature. The entire experiment was then repeated with the remaining 20 students.

All group discussions were recorded, transcribed and analysed by NVivo 11 qualitative data analysis software. Investigator triangulation (or inter-analyst reliability) was used to ensure consistency of the results by performing the analysis by multiple researchers. The results are expected to highlight patterns - differences and similarities - in the perception of destinations through independent and induced sources. Accordingly, the research will contribute to a deeper understanding of the process of destination image formation.
Figure 1. Model of Destination Image Formation (Beerli and Martín 2004a; Khodadadi 2013)

Figure 2. Image Formation Agents (Gartner, 1994, p. 472, cited in: Khodadadi, 2013)
References


ANALYZING DETERMINANTS OF TRAVELERS EXPENDITURE BEHAVIOR IN AIRPORTS

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Introduction

During the last few years, airports have been subject to many changes that significantly challenged the traditional marketing and management practices in this sector (e.g. Graham, 2009; Tovar & Martín-Cejas, 2009). First, they often shifted from being subject to public control to being subject to total private shareholders. Second, the sector has been facing a fierce competition due to the increase number of airports and carriers. Further, information and communication technologies offered travellers the possibility to access relevant amounts of information, thus contributing to reduce, and possibly to eliminate, the information asymmetries that traditionally have been inhibiting travellers from making effective choices about the tourism destination to be visited, and/or the airline to be used and/or the airport to where (Tovar & Martín-Cejas, 2009). Nowadays, the profitability of airports depends largely on non-aviation related activities (Graham, 2009; Rhoades, Waguespack, & Young, 2000), with airports more and more representing leisure, retail, and entertainment contexts (Appold & Kasarda, 2006; Lin & Chen, 2013). By the year 2017, it is estimated that the amount of airport passengers in the world may reach 7.3 billion, thus determining a potential increase in the consumption of F&B and retail services in airport (The Moodie Report, 2014). In this scenario, researchers and practitioners need to gain a greater and deeper understanding about the main determinants of passengers’ consumption and expenditure behaviour while being at the airport (Crawford & Melewar, 2003; Doong, Wang, & Law, 2012). This knowledge would provide useful information to be used to dynamically tailor the retail assortment to better reflect the characteristics of airports’ target consumers. Despite this, so far very little research has examined expenditure behaviour of travellers in airports. This study was therefore conducted at Olbia Costa Smeralda airport (Italy) on a sample of 2700 travellers to analyze, by applying econometrics analysis, the main socio-demographic (i.e. gender, age, level of education, income and place of residence), travel-related determinants (type of accommodation) and flight experience-based determinants (i.e. type of check-in, waiting time prior the embark).

Literature Review

Tourism expenditure can be considered a key determinant for economic growth at both regional (e.g. Paci & Marrocù, 2014) and national (e.g. Figini & Vici, 2010) level. Previous research analyses determinants of
economic tourism expenditure adopting both a macro (aggregated) and micro (individual-based) perspective (Marroccu, Paci & Zara, 2015). According to current research (e.g. Marroccu, Paci & Zara, 2015; Wang, Rompf, Severt, Peerapatdit, 2006, Brida & Scuderi, 2013), determinants of tourism expenditure can be grouped by three main categories: socio-economic characteristics (e.g. gender, level of education, income, etc), travel-related characteristics (e.g. type of accommodation, travel party, length of stay, etc) and psychographic characteristics (e.g. travel motivations). Expenditure behaviour has been investigated in many settings (e.g. events, museums, etc), but very few studies have been applied to airports. Given that these retail contexts are really peculiar in term of consumers emotional feeling, needs and behaviour, further research would be useful to deepen the scientific debate on this topic. Usually, when analyzing determinants affecting consumption and expenditure behaviour, airport-based studies tend to distinguish between subjective (individual-based) and objective variables (servicescape-based, flying frequency, etc). For example, Castillo-Manzano (2010) found that passengers’ consumption behavior is significantly influenced by age, country of origin, frequency of travelling, waiting time prior to boarding, etc. Hence, younger travellers were reported buying more than counterparts (Castillo-Manzano, 2010), doing this mostly for souvenirs and café stores (Perng, Chow and Liao, 2010); however no significant difference was reported to exist based on age in terms of expenditure. Geuens, Vantomme and Brengman (2004) reported that men were more likely to be apathetic or mood shoppers, while more women seemed to be shopping lovers. Perng, Chow and Liao (2010) showed that significant differences do exist based on gender in terms of preferred products and services bought at airports. Castillo-Manzano (2010) reported a significant difference in expenditure behaviour based on country of origin and occupation, with national travellers and students spending less when compared to their counterparts. Geuens, Vantomme and Brengman (2004) underlined the likelihood of buying and spending more increase when waiting time prior to boarding is increasing (Lin and Chen, 2013). Torres, Dominguez, Valdés, and Aza (2005) reported leisure tourists spending more than business travellers and showed that a clear relationship exists between shopping behaviour in commercial areas and their length of stay prior to boarding.

Methods and materials

In this study, to analyse the determinants of tourists’ expenditure behaviour at airport area, a theoretical framework is constructed based upon the study by Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006). As Brida and Scuderi, (2013) highlights, the determinants of tourism expenditure can be divided in socio-demographic (Sₖ), trip-related (Tᵢₖ) and psychographic (Pₖ) characteristics and economic constraints (Cₖ):

\[ ET = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j q_j |t = pq(C, S, TR, P |t) \]

From an empirical perspective, ordinary linear square (OLS) regression is extensively employed (Jang, Bai, Hong, and O’Leary, 2004; Kozak, 2001; Marcussen, 2011). In OLS models, expenditure as dependent variable is often transformed through logarithms in order to provide an elasticity measure. Very few authors employ standardised values (i.e. share of expenditure between category of tourism expenditure). Some studies use tobit models (Tobin, 1958) since expenditure cannot be lower than zero and that some samples show an high number of zeros for the expenditure. Another theoretical approach takes in consideration the decision to spending or not, and based upon this models the probability that a consumer purchases tourist
goods (Alegre and Pou, 2004). This model involves binary discrete choice random utility model following the McFadden's framework (1974).

Hence, based on the relevant literature on tourism expenditure, it is hypothesized that an individual $i$ allocates his or her income on a bundle of tradable goods and services in the airport, such as a souvenir. Hence, the relevant function used to predict airport expenditure is the following:

$$\text{Exp}_{Ai} = f(C, S, TR)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

Empirically, in a preliminary analysis the dependent variable is modelled as a dummy variable that takes the value one if the respondent has spent some money at the airport, zero otherwise. The logit model allows one to study the partial effects of determinants on the purchasing probability. Moreover, an OLS regression is run to confirm previous findings.

For the purposes of this study, data were collected at the Olbia-Costa Smeralda International Airport (Sardinia, Italy) in the period May-October 2016. The survey was administered face-to-face in the boarding area and 2723 complete questionnaires were obtained at the end of the data collection. We also used Preacher and Hayes’ procedure to test the mediating effect of decision strategies. The survey instrument included four sections. The first asked respondents to provide some socio-demographic (e.g. age, gender, occupation, time of arrival at the airport, etc) and travel-related information (length of stay, country of origin, etc.). The second asked respondents to report whether they bought something while at the airport (before or after the security check), and how much they spent for different product/services categories offered by the airport retailers (e.g. books, food and wine, handcraft, etc). The third asked respondents to report their expenditure at the destination during the stay. The last section asked interviewees to declare the main motivations for not buying at the airport.

**Results**

Descriptive results show that 37.34% of respondents made shopping at the airport (N=1.017), of which 90% spent less than 60 euro. Considering the sub-sample of shoppers, the average expenditure is 49.29 euro. The most frequent type of products bought while at the airport are Sardinian food and wine (20.31%), and the product category reporting the highest average expenditure is clothing (87.18 euro). Table 1 shows the socio-demographic characteristics and average expenditure of shoppers: individuals with a higher mean expenditure are men, middle-aged, owing a university degree, belonging to the highest income bracket, and international travellers. The higher mean expenditure occurs for travellers managing their check-in in a traditional way, with a waiting time prior to boarding of 31-45 or up to 60 minutes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean expenditure (euro)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48.78</td>
<td>44.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>49.70</td>
<td>55.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>35.78</td>
<td>11.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Mean expenditure (euro)</td>
<td>%</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check-in Modality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>52.37</td>
<td>46.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online</td>
<td>46.63</td>
<td>53.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting time prior the embark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 30 minutes</td>
<td>36.31</td>
<td>9.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45 minutes</td>
<td>57.99</td>
<td>10.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-60 minutes</td>
<td>56.24</td>
<td>27.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;1h</td>
<td>45.98</td>
<td>52.27%</td>
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<td>Type of accommodation</td>
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<td>B&amp;B</td>
<td>36.60</td>
<td>4.48%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Farmhouse</td>
<td>26.83</td>
<td>1.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home ownership</td>
<td>48.39</td>
<td>11.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rental Home</td>
<td>47.02</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest</td>
<td>26.04</td>
<td>8.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>57.55</td>
<td>54.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>47.07</td>
<td>4.48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Mean expenditure by socio-demographics

Table 2. Mean expenditure of travellers by flight experience-based and travel-based characteristics.
Table 3 shows the results for the logit model and for the OLS model. As far as the logit coefficients are concerned, results show that gender decreases the probability to buy. On the other hand, probability grows with income, number of travel party and waiting time in airport; overnight in hotel increase probability to buy. Education and check-in modality are not statistically significant. OLS regression confirms that significant differences in expenditure exist only based on gender, age, income, country of origin, check-in modality, type of accommodation. Specifically, male, younger travellers belonging to 18-24 age bracket and travelers being hosted by their friends and relatives tend to spend less than counterparts do. On the contrary, foreigners, and travelers experiencing a traditional check-in modality (offline) were reported spending more than others who experiencing an online check-in. Finally, expenditure growths with income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Logit Model</th>
<th>OLS Model</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>-0.22**</td>
<td>-0.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.09)</td>
<td>(-0.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24 years old</td>
<td>-0.41**</td>
<td>-0.34**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.2)</td>
<td>(-0.17)</td>
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<tr>
<td>25-34 years old</td>
<td>-0.44**</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.18)</td>
<td>(-0.14)</td>
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<tr>
<td>35-44 years old</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.17)</td>
<td>(-0.14)</td>
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<tr>
<td>45-54 years old</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.17)</td>
<td>(-0.13)</td>
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<td>55-64 years old</td>
<td>-0.39**</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(-0.18)</td>
<td>(-0.15)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(-0.15)</td>
<td>(-0.13)</td>
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<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(-0.15)</td>
<td>(-0.13)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Residence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foreigners</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.22***</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>(-0.08)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Check-in Modality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Traditional check-in</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.09)</td>
<td>(-0.08)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Farmhouse</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.43)</td>
<td>(-0.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>(-0.36)</td>
<td>(-0.4)</td>
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<td>Type of accommodation</td>
<td>Logit Model</td>
<td>OLS Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home ownership</td>
<td>-0.07 (-0.23)</td>
<td>-0.04 (-0.21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rental Home</td>
<td>0.14 (0.23)</td>
<td>0.01 (0.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family and friends</td>
<td>0.15 (-0.24)</td>
<td>-0.37* (-0.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>0.39* (0.25)</td>
<td>0.24 (-0.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.01 (-0.28)</td>
<td>0.23 (-0.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling Companions</td>
<td>0.11*** (-0.03)</td>
<td>0.03 (-0.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiting Time Before Embarking</td>
<td>0.11*** (-0.04)</td>
<td>-0.03 (-0.04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>0.08* (-0.05)</td>
<td>0.06* (-0.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.02*** (-0.34)</td>
<td>2.99*** (-0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R²</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.0874</td>
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Standard errors in parentheses; statistical significance * p < 0.10, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table 3. Logit model and OLS model on the expenditure level in logarithm

**Discussion and conclusions**

The aim of this study was to investigate determinants of travellers expenditure at airport. Results on a convenience sample of 2723 respondents show that 37.34% of individuals make some buying while at the airport with all the three categories of determinants significantly influence expenditure. Our results confirm some studies and refute others. For example, the fact that older travellers spend more is in line with Castillo-Manzano’s (2010) study, but contradicts Perng et al.’s (2010) who did not find any significant influence of age on expenditure behaviour of passengers. The fact that people with higher income spend significantly more appears to be quite evident confirming prior studies (e.g. Castillo-Manzano, 2010). A very interesting finding, that in our best knowledge has not received attention in current research, is the fact that the check-in modality exerts a significant influence on expenditure behaviour. Specifically, those travellers experiencing their check-in in a traditional modality resulted to spend more. These conclusions are significant for both researchers and airport managers. On the one hand they provide further insights into the still quite underdeveloped scientific debate on determinants of airport shoppers’ expenditure behaviour.
On the other hand, our findings suggest that airport managers and their retailers must recognise nuances in the way the travellers spending behaviour is based on their socio-demographics, travel-related characteristics, and flight experience-based characteristics, so that they can effectively develop retail marketing strategies where the mix of retail format and related assortment is designed to better reflect the characteristics of their target consumers. Further, they suggest that airport managers should keep their attention when deciding to incentivize their customers to experience a web check-in. In fact, favouring web check-in could contribute to reduce the queuing time both at the traditional check-in point and the security check (thus increasing the passengers’ satisfaction and contributing to keep lower the number of employee that would be needed to manage whether all check-ins are managed traditionally). Despite these advantages, our results suggest that favouring web check-in decrease the overall mean expenditure. That said, airport managers should make their decision comparing cost and benefits of each alternative (traditional and web check-in). Although this study helps to fill a gap in the existing knowledge in the literature and proposes some implications for airport managers, limitations still remain. Firstly, it utilised a convenience sample; hence, findings cannot be generalized. Further, our study is highly site-specific. Specifically, it introduced a concrete case study involving a specific airport in a specific tourism destination; the idiosyncratic characteristics of the airport and of tourist flows at the destination could affect airport shoppers’ behaviour. The replication of our study at other airports in other tourism destination would allow for wider generalizations to be made from the results obtained. Secondly, our study focused on the actual expenditure reported by travellers and did not consider the moderator effect that the economic budgets of passengers could exert on their spending behaviours. Future studies should consider the role of mental budgets when investigating airport shoppers spending behaviours.

References


SESSION 4

CULTURAL IMPACTS
THE IMPACT OF THE CULTURE DISTANCE ON TOURISM DEMAND--AN ECONOMETRIC METHOD FROM A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

International visitor arrivals have sustained growth over the past decades except some obstacles such as wars and financial crisis. As the increase of income and the development of science and technology, people travel more frequently and easier than ever before. Understanding the impact factors of tourism demand is essential for the marketing and branding strategies of destinations, and it also plays a fundamental role for tourism demand forecasting. Although a vast body of literature has focused on the impact of economic factors, little light has been shed on the influence of culture distance on tourism demand.

The aim of this study is to quantify the impact of culture distance on tourism demand using an econometric method from a global perspective. Culture affects human beings’ behavior and thinking in many ways, thus the investigation of the role that the culture distance plays in determining the tourism demand would be important and valuable for both the academia and industry.

Literature Review

Tourism demand

Tourism demand has become a popular research topic in tourism field for years. The findings of the review articles show that the visitors’ income, the relative price between destination and source markets and the substitute prices of competitive destinations are the most important influencing factors of tourism demand (Song & Li, 2008; Wu, Song & Shen, 2017). In spite of the economic factors, other determinants such as climate (Li, Song & Li, 2016; Zhang & Kulendran, 2017) and political factors (Pratt & Liu, 2016; Liu & Pratt, 2017) have emerged in recent studies.

Cultural distance

The distance between different cultures has been reported to affect tourists in various aspects, generally via an unconscious manner. According to different study objects, the cultural distance may be small and supplementary or large and incompatible (Reisinger & Turner, 2002a). In the tourism field, cultural distance
mostly refers to the extent to which the culture of the original region differs from the host region’s (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012). The cultural distance was also introduced to explain the psychological and behavioral differences among different tourist groups (Tsang & Ap, 2007; Reisinger & Turner, 2002a, 2002b).

**Relationship between cultural distance and tourism demand**

Regarding the cultural distance and travel demand, there has been a paradoxical debate in the academy. On one side, many scholars believe that cultural distance may negatively affect tourists’ willingness to travel to a certain region. Cohen (1979) argued that people seek for difference and change when traveling, however, just to the extent that change remains nonthreatening. Ng, Lee and Soutar (2007) found a negative correlation between culture distance and travel intention of Australian tourists. As stated by Goeldner and Ritchie (2012), in general, the greater the cultural distance, the greater the resistance.

On the other hand, some scholars have found that cultural distance, rather than cultural similarity can stimulate tourists’ travelling willingness to a destination. For example, McKercher and Cros (2003) found that a destination’s cultural attributes were associated with the destination selection. McKercher and Chow (2001) stated that the greater the cultural difference is, the more likely that tourists would participate in cultural tourism activities and the more important cultural reasons become in their travel decision making. A positive relationship between the culture distance and tourism demand of Hong Kong tourists to short-haul destinations was observed by Ahn & McKercher (2015). In some extreme cases, an allocentric person in Plog’s (1974) tourist psychographics may wish to travel to a destination with greater cultural difference.

From the above literature, it is found that no agreement has been achieved on the impact of culture distance on tourism demand. The limitations of the current studies are as follows. First, most literature only employs the culture distance as the independent variables. Without the control of other determinants of tourism demand, the measure of the impact of culture distance would not be accurate. Second, most studies only focus on one destination. To obtain a more generalized model, a global view to investigate the relationship between the culture distance and tourism demand is needed. Third, most studies used travel intention to estimate tourists’ actual behavior (Ng et al., 2007), however, the travel intention cannot completely transform to actual tourism demand. Last but not least, most existing studies view cultural distance as a collective concept. However, according to Cohen’s (1979) study, further exploration of the impacts in different layers of cultural distance is needed.

To fill in the research gaps, a tourism demand model is proposed in this study, collecting the tourism demand data from 70 countries/regions across the world. To show a comprehensive picture of the role that the culture distance plays, not only the culture distance but other determinants of tourism demand such as economic factors are also introduced into the model.

**Method and Data**

The econometric model is proposed as follows to investigate the impact of the culture distance on tourism demand.

\[
\ln Q_{ij,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln GDP_{i,t} + \beta_2 \ln CPI_{j,t} + \beta_3 \ln EX_{i,t} + \beta_4 \ln CD_{ij} + \beta_5 \ln TD_{ij} + \beta_6 Dummy_B + \beta_7 (\ln GDP_{i,t} \times \ln CD_{ij}) + \beta_8 (\ln CPI_{j,t} \times \ln CD_{ij}) + \beta_9 (\ln EX_{i,t} \times \ln CD_{ij}) + \beta_{10} (\ln TD_{ij,t} \times \ln CD_{ij}) + \beta_{11} (Dummy_B \times \ln CD_{ij}) + \epsilon_{ij,t}
\]
where $Q_{ij,t}$, $GDP_{it}$ are the visitor arrivals from source market $i$ to destination $j$ and the GDP of source market $i$. $CP_{j,t}$ and $EX_{it}$ indicate the price level of destination $j$ and the exchange rate of the country of origin towards US dollar, respectively. $CD_{ij}$ and $TD_{ij}$ are the culture distance and travel distance between the origin-destination pairs. Dummy$_B$ is a dummy variable to measure whether the source market borders the destination. The interaction terms of the culture difference with the other independent variables are also introduced to the model to capture the moderating effects.

The real GDP is employed to capture the income of the source market and the travel cost is represented by the price level of the destination and the exchange rate of the source market. Kogut and Singh (1988)’s and Jackson (2001)’s cultural diversity indices are introduced to represent the culture distance, respectively. Both the two indices are aggregated based on the National Culture Dimension (Hofstede, 2010), which is the most widely used measurement of culture distance in tourism studies. As argued by Ng et al. (2007), no agreement has been achieved regarding the strengths of the aggregated indices, thus the impact of the two indices will be examined, respectively. The straight distance between the capitals of the source market and the destination is used to measure the travel distance.

The data of the six dimensions of the National Culture Dimension (Hofstede, 2010) are available for 70 countries/regions, thus the arrivals from the top 30 source markets of the 70 countries/regions will be collected to cover both the short-haul and long-haul travels. The origin-destination pairs will be removed from the dataset if the source market is not included in the database of the National Culture Dimension (Hofstede, 2010). Any origin-source market pairs with missing data of GDP and RP will also be deleted.

The data of visitor arrivals will be collected from UNWTO, the National Culture Dimension (Hofstede, 2010) will be downloaded from their official website and the economic indicators will be obtained from the World Bank. Since the culture distance is not a time-varying variable, the year 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015 have been selected to investigate the impact of culture distance in different time periods. The median regression with robust standard deviation is used to obtain more robust estimation results.

**Expected Findings**

The elasticities of income, price, exchange rate and culture distance and travel distance will be obtained based on the estimation results. According to neoclassical economics, it is expected the income and exchange rate elasticities are positive whereas the price elasticity is negative. Since no agreement has been achieved on the impact of culture distance in literature, cluster analysis will be conducted to split the samples into different groups based on the destination and source market’s scales of Hofstede (2010), respectively to shed light on different market segments.

This is the first study to quantify the impact of culture distance on tourism demand from a global perspective. The model could draw a meaningful picture of the role that the culture distance plays in determining the tourism demand. Various elasticities reveal valuable information of the international visitors, which is essential for destinations to better understand their key source markets. The findings of this study could also benefit tourism industry regarding tourism planning and market strategies formation.
References


**Sharing Culture Through Tourism - Douro Valley Storytelling**

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Álvaro Teixeira Bonito, Polytechnic Institute of Viseu, Portugal, abonito@estgl.ipv.pt

**Introduction**

Nowadays one of the purposes of Portugal is identifying and exploring the art of living together. More and more sharing different cultures with storytelling is our main purpose. Culture and heritage are often the reason for travel associated to storytelling.

In the north of Portugal, there is a famous river - DOURO.

The Douro landscape reflects its ancient and deep connection with the culture of wine, creating a picture of Man and Nature working side by side in search of the perfect wine.

As this conference aims, the culture is the entangling web of symbols, sounds, rituals, rites and practices by which we become persons and by which we can grow. Lifestyle typically reflects: an individual's attitude, a way of life, values, stories or world view.

During the Roman period, particularly following the 1st century A.D., the wine culture advanced rapidly, leaving traces of stone tanks and wine cellars in various archaeological sites in the region.

The Douro wines have ancient roots and they have evolved over many years into this liquid delicacy that nowadays delights our taste buds. Drinking a glass of Port Wine is like drinking a glass of history itself, the history of this region governed by wine.

A Valley full of history…and stories!!

The first traces of vines found in the region date back to the Bronze Age around three thousand years ago. However, the fact that Vitis vinifera (a type of vine) carbonised grape pulp has been found does not necessarily mean that wine cultivation was common practice.

The Suevi, the Visigoths and the Muslims all recognised the importance of wine for the region.

During the Roman period, particularly following the 1st century A.D., the wine culture advanced rapidly, leaving traces of stone tanks and wine cellars in various archaeological sites in the region.

Following the birth of the Kingdom of Portugal (5th October, 1143), a great number of charter attributed to various settlements in the region around the 12th century provide evidence of great wine-producing activity in the area.
Since 10th September 1756 appear the Companhia Geral dos Vinhos do Alto Douro, established by Royal Charter. This new institution was directed at ensuring the quality of the product, avoiding fraud, balancing production and trade, and stabilising prices.

The Portuguese dictator, João Franco, upon assuming office on 10 May 1907, signed a decree that was to regulate the production, sale, export and control of Port Wine, based on the principles applied by the Marquis of Pombal 150 years earlier in defence of the name.

Enotourism involves a target made up of people sensitive not only to the up market brands bottles, of which they are connoisseurs and in some cases experts, but also to the territory, the local traditions and the artistic goods, which represent the new and defensive localism (Winter, 2003).

A key aspect is the respect for the people who call the location home, the culture and customs of the area, and the socio-economic system.

Tourism itself has become an increasingly complex phenomenon, with political, economic, social, cultural, educational, bio-physical, ecological and aesthetic dimensions. The achievement of a beneficial inter-action between the potentially conflicting expectations and aspirations of visitors and host or local communities, presents many challenges and opportunities (ICOMOS, 1999).

The beautifully unique landscape of the Douro was one of the reasons that made it a World Heritage site in 2001.

In the month of September, the Douro valley’s slopes come to life with workers collecting the grapes that make this world famous wine. After the harvest, the grapes are put in large stone tanks called “lagares” where the workers use their feet to squash them to release the liquid that will eventually produce wine. While some of the men tread the grapes, others sing along to the beat of the accordion and the guitar.

“That this land could make bread and wine seems impossible. But it does. Schist walls miraculously protrude from the banks of the river of gold, crucified by the heat of the sky that drinks it dry from above, and the thirsty riverbed that drains it from below. Grapes grow like basil on a window ledge on the steep slopes and terraces that no palace would envy. In September the Men leave their homes in their cold lands and in rogues they descend the steps to the schist stone tanks. They sing, they dance and they work. Then they rise. The Sun is soon bottled to be dunk in the four corners of the world.”

in Um Reino Maravilhoso, by Miguel Torga

Methods & materials – A sample of 30 wineyards producers from Douro Valley that could use enoturism as a sustainable solution was the base of this investigation. Most of this frams have a story to be told. This paper is divided into two parts: first a theoretical framework and second a characterization of legal documents about Douro Valley where we found the history and several important stories, that make a immemorial heritage. All this according to an exploratory research, structuring a strategic plan, through field research, and as final result, to present a proposal for funding and implementation of an innovative system to develop story telling as a cultural way. We don’t have a data base with this kind of information. Most of the wineries and the enotecas don’t have a legal process to develop enotourism and is a new area inside Tourism. We found on them several information about culture heritage, but we don’t have registrations. We found this important heritage connecting with several persons that told us about those places in Douro.
There aren’t enough winemakers that are enotourism enterprises, because they are using rural tourism or eco tourism to say that they do enotourism. So we decided to analyse all the information of IVV,IP (Instituto da Vinha e do Vinho, Instituto Público), that have the results of 2015, and we start with this.

**Research and Results**

Research is sometimes hard to identify because there are so many types of research (Baumeister, 1997).

There are some natural and cultural resources indexed which capture the principal reason to travel (WEF – TTC 2015). The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness index 2015 analyse T&T as a resilient contribution to national development. Natural resources results 3,70 and cultural results 3,71 (index TCCI results).

Our proposal in this research, is to analyse how many wineries or enotecas are able to develop wine tourism with a legal process and also have a story to tell, that is relevant to tourists (Hart,1998). The results of the study reflect the level of education of employees, the seasonal nature of tourism, the improvements in its promotion and the need for greater support from local government. Nowadays tourists and visitants want to know more about the stories of the farms. Who build it, when appears, the imaginaries stories and also songs and poems.

A further consideration regards the vine extension per region and the particular stories. According to INE (Instituto Nacional de Estatística), and IVV (Instituto da Vinha e o Vinho, IP) the National surface cultivated with grapes of wine amounts to 239 mil hectares. In vine extension Portugal is the mundial lider, comparing with the country’s area. 2,59% of the total extension of the portuguese surface cultivated to vineards. Italy has 2,55%, Spain has 2,01% and France 1,45%. Is a nice and important field.

As regards, the Wine Routes they are mainly characterized by wine, the wine routes in the strict sense, it can be noted that the principal actors are the wineries and the local stakeholders, who are responsible for the success of a route. But, of course, the principal role is played by the quality wine, since it is characterizing a route and the consumers’ demand (Mitchell, R. and Hall, C.M., 2006).

In 2001, the Alto Douro wine region is classified by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site for its “cultural evolutionary landscape and alive”.

Enotourism contributes to spread out what is innovated and to diffuse it as a positive externality effect into the local system (Harrington, 2005). This confers to the local community a strong territorial identity and WFR becomes the instrument that could emphasize the local identities by introducing territories and local resources to the tourist market.

It has been often promoted under the impulse of ‘neo-rural’ ethos, which means new rural entrepreneurship, new rural style of life, new tourist activities in the farm house, culture of hospitality and sustainability (Asero and Patti, 2009b).

**Discussion** - It was very hard to study those farms and immaterial heritage in Douro wine and vine but it is an open field to future researches (Tomás López-Guzmán, et al, 2011). The organisational model was altered in 2003, when the CIRDD was replaced by an Interprofessional Council which is a part of the Douro and Port Wine Institute. Only 20% of the farms we visit are concerned about the history and the past notices.
of the organisations they manage. 10% are interested to know how can create a structure and a plan to develop this theme. Only 30% are the original owners.

All travellers interested in visiting wineries are allowed to walk into those wineries with open doors whether you want to learn personally how these wines, which are highly recognized at international and national level, are made or to enjoy the dishes that some of them prepare, or even they can go with parties, friends or relatives. Nowadays they want more, they want all the stories about hose places.

The best way to get to know this Appellation of Origin is to explore it on foot and to enjoy its wines and meet the locals (O'Neill, M. and Palmer, A., 2004).

Williams (2001) remarks that there has been a shift ‘in wine country imagery from an emphasis on wine production processes and related facilities to more of an emphasis on aesthetic and experimental values associated with more leisure recreational and tourist pursuit’.

Enotourism is a sustainable tourism and very important in cultural aspects, at the same time create the storytelling of the farm. (Brás, J.M. et al, 2010).

Increasingly, stories are the way to develop and perpetuate intangible heritage.

The present study examines these issues from the perspective of a group of Portuguese winery operators and their life stories.

A way to celebration and sharing of culture through tourism.

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World Economic Forum - The travel & Tourism - Compettveness Report 2015
SESSION 5

E-MARKETING AND AUTHENTICITY
**USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA AS E-MARKETING TOOL. COMPARISON OF WEIBO POSTS OF BIG AND SMALL HOTELS IN CHINA.**

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**Introduction**

How can we change the effect of social media e-marketing? To make it more effective, there should be more attractive and appealing elements. One could think of adding more attractive elements to a single post by changing its composition (understood as the relative importance of attractive parts in the post), or of posting more with the same composition. The way how contents and features are distributed in a post counts to a greater extent than post length (Kwok and Yu, 2013). For instance, in order to be more assertive, it is better to change the style of e-marketing content than merely increasing content (Kwok and Yu, 2013; Song and Yoo, 2016).

This property becomes more important in the context of social media, which, because of sheer size, it is literally bombarding consumers with content. It is a myth that marketing effects depend on the amount of materials posted daily. Actually, marketing efficacy depends to a greater extent on the composition of the content, style and multimedia resources. Posts can be increased to infinity but they will risk overfeeding potential customers and turn out to be futile because in marketing sometimes less is more (Varkaris and Neuhöfer, 2017).

In China, one of the biggest tourism markets in the world, Weibo (the Chinese version of Facebook) is increasing its popularity as social media platform and it is wide spreading and becoming dominant. Currently, Weibo has a daily active user group of 93 million. The use of Weibo as marketing channel has great potential in the fledging development that has already turned into real profits in tourism industry. However, as far as we know, few studies have analyzed how and what for hospitality and tourism business should effectively use this social media platform, and what this industry should do to be more efficient in using it.

Much has been done in the study of motivation, better ways to prompt responses, user behaviors, and usage frequency in Facebook or other social media both for business and non-profit organizations. According to Waters et al. (2009), careful planning instead of a mere existence on Facebook with a profile is key to developing social-networking relationships with Facebook users. Frequent short updates with a question posed works best for prompting responses from fans (Neff, 2010). Vasalou et al. (2010) studied designer’s intentions, users’ reported practices, users’ culture and experience, and motivations for and ways of using Facebook. Pesonen (2011) found that there are many differences between small and large tourism companies, that smaller companies have fewer useful pages and activities than larger companies, and suggested carrying out more research into causal relationships between activities and success in Facebook-marketing in tourism. According to the Eye for Travel Community, in 2011 almost 60% of marketers were
sure of the conversions to booking rate via Facebook, and 60% of marketers were using Facebook and other social media to build their brands. It also suggested that travel marketers computed ROI based on social media, and that mobile social media would be the future. By contrast, Otieno (2014) reported that only 35% Kenyan tour operators are present on Facebook and that less than 10% are consistently active, and concluded that Kenyan tour operators are not sufficiently using Facebook as a marketing tool.

Since social media giants like Facebook or Twitter are blocked to enter the market in China, it is of great importance to perform research in this country, in order to know more about companies or organizations using social media like Weibo as marketing tools. This research paper is one of the few on the topic.

The aim of this paper is to compare the use of Weibo in hospitality e-marketing between small and medium accommodation establishments (private hostels, small hotels) and big and well-established business (such as international hotel chains or large hotels) in China. The idea is that, by comparing Weibo posts with different compositions in terms of content posted, we find the most effective ways of e-marketing via Weibo. We are focusing on big and small accommodation business practices, as well as on product differentiation.

**Methods & materials**

We content-analyze posts to observe which kind of information is posted. Data are collected via browsing and recording in-operating official Weibo e-marketing webpages and are recorded manually. In total, 30 small and 30 big international companies’ are included (mainly in Guangdong Hainan Provinces of China).

The 50 latest posts of the Weibo pages of hotels are analyzed and coded regarding the number of posts featuring facilities, food, events, and promotional content. Number of likes and replies are recorded accordingly.

As argued above, in web content analysis the interest of the researcher most often lies in the proportion of each relevant content. After all, long posts can have more of every content (Russell, 2014). For instance, a research question may be how much more often content about events appears in comparison with content about menu and gastronomy. Other examples are language style in posts (informal v.s. formal), or picture content. For example, one might describe the pattern of a full length-picture post as: 8-pictures post = 50% of pictures for facilities + 25% pictures for events + 25% pictures for special promotions.

Proportions belong to the so-called compositional data (CoDa) and lie in a constrained space. A composition of $D$ different contents measured on web $i x_{i1}, x_{i2},...,x_{iD}$ is constrained as follows: it is between 0 and 1, and the sum has to be 1 (or 100, in percentage) (Aitchison, 1986). Web content analysis data fit into this definition.

CoDa can be transformed by means of logratios, so that they can be subject to standard statistical techniques (e.g. in the tourism field, Ferrer-Rosell and Coenders, in press; Ferrer- Rosell et al., 2015; 2016). A meaningful log-ratio transformation takes ratios of the geometric means of two component subsets (Egozcue and Pawlowsky-Glahn, 2005; Pawlowsky-Glahn and Egozcue, 2011). D components require D-1 logratios, and in our case we have D=4, and 3 logratios. The first logratio compares the proportion of content about food and that about
facilities, the second compares the proportion of contents about promotion and the combined contents about food and about facilities, and the third compares the proportion of contents about events and all other components.

Research & results

Once log-ratios have been computed, standard two-sample t-tests are used to compare large and small hotels.

Small and large hotels differ regarding the average logratio between food and facilities. In other words, hotel size does make a difference regarding the relative importance of food and facility content compared to each other. Large hotels have a comparatively greater weight of food content and small hotels a comparatively larger weight of facility-related content.

We have also found differences between small and large hotels regarding the average balance between events and all other components. Large hotels have relatively more event content.

There is no significant difference between small and large hotels regarding the average balance between promotions and food and facilities.

Discussion

In this research, posting length and the number of postings is not as important as composition of content, and we are more interested in the relative importance of certain content, style or pattern with respect to others.

This is an exploratory work and further research is needed for seeking the most effective ways of e-marketing via Weibo. Since the exploratory results reveal differences between the two types of hotels, they should also be compared regarding the number of new postings, frequency of new postings, posting size, and balance between text and pictures in postings, among others. Previous evidence suggests that in social media marketing of tourism and hospitality, smaller companies are less well-organized, less well-planned, and more obviously immediate-profit-oriented (reflected by sudden surging/better content quality of postings in peak seasons and much lower number and quality of postings in off-peak seasons) than the overwhelmingly dominant companies.

More research is also needed on the topic of Weibo-marketing in hospitality while international social media giants like Facebook and Twitter are also bidding their best time to enter into this huge market to be the strongest rivals of Weibo in the future.

Acknowledgements

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THE QUEST FOR AUTHENTICITY AND P2P EXPERIENCES

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Introduction

The present research aims at analyzing the role of P2P experiences, conceptualized as a variety of activities (including leisure, gastronomy, discovering natural and cultural heritage etc.) performed by tourists at the destination and provided by peers (Kim 2014; Pizam, 2014), in the quest for authenticity in tourism. Specifically, it analyzes whether they are perceived to deliver more authenticity to the tourism experience. Likewise it pretends to unveil the influence of a set of variables on this perception.

The growing academic interest in the conceptualization of authenticity in tourism (Taylor, 2001; Chhabra et al., 2003; Wang, 1999; Cole, 2007; Zerva, 2015), has led to a consideration of the P2P experiences as a crucial piece in the authenticity puzzle (Dredge & Gyimothy, 2015; Wang et al., 2016).

In this quest, the role of non-commodified, non-mercantile and non-staged connection with locals becomes central to academic debate. In this respect Cole (2007) suggests that authenticity goes beyond identity and beyond the interest in the real life of the hosts. In order to gain authenticity, the social organization of the experience must be addressed and planned to attain a proper degree of actual performativity, a phenomenon within authenticity theory that emphasizes the active participation of tourists in the authentication of tourism experiences (Olsen, 2003; Mkono, 2011).

As for the literature review, it seems that a superiority of P2P experiences, at the time to provide authenticity to the tourism journey is suggested (Zerva, 2015, Wilson and Harris 2006). However there is an absence of empirical research on how consumers actually perceive it. Literature review also indicates that there is little specific research on consumer variables that may influence the perception of authenticity of P2P experiences.

In this framework, the present paper aims at addressing three main research questions:

(i) Are P2P tourism experiences perceived as more authentic than non-P2P?
(ii) Which are the underlying variables influencing this perception?
(iii) Which are the most influencing ones?

To respond to these questions, this research presents an empirical study conducted in Mallorca (Spain). Results capture the consumer’s perception of the authenticity provided by P2P experiences (as opposed to traditionally provided ones). They also unveil the influence, on this perception, of the various variables analyzed. Findings provide indications in order to help destination managers to enhance destination's competitiveness by means of new segmentation approaches, adapting their tourist product portfolio, and boost specific tourism policies.
Methods & materials

The empirical research of this work was conducted with 880 individuals from Mallorca (Spain), a leading mass tourism destination in the world with less than one million residents that hosts more than 10 million tourists in 2015 (CAIB 2016). The extremely high presence of tourism in this region provides its consumers with a qualified view of the phenomenon and coverts the place into an ideal laboratory to explore the perception of the authenticity of P2P experiences.

From the literature review a set of 9 variables were selected to have a potential influence on the consumer’s perception of the authenticity provided by P2P experiences (PsuP2P). Table 1 summarizes this variables and the sources from which the measurement scale has been adapted from.

Table 1. Variables and sources of measurement scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Measurement scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perecopro</td>
<td>Consumers perception of personal economic profits that P2P experience provision may offer</td>
<td>Adapted from: Hamari (2015) and Bock et al. (2005)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonecopro</td>
<td>Consumers perception of non-economic profits that P2P experience provision may offer (e.g meeting people, autorealization etc.)</td>
<td>Adapted from: Hamari (2015) and Bock et al. (2005)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persreput</td>
<td>Perception of reputational benefits linked to participating in P2P experiences</td>
<td>Adapted from Kankanhalli et al. (2005); Wasko &amp; Faraj (2005)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitou</td>
<td>Attitude towards tourism</td>
<td>Adapted from: Garau et al. (2014)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attishaeco</td>
<td>Attitude toward sharing economy</td>
<td>Adapted from: Hamari (2015)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecocen</td>
<td>Ecocentricity (e.g concern for the environment..)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maskil</td>
<td>Management skills. Self-perception of the individuals habilitity to organize things</td>
<td>Adapted from: Shyns (2010)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepren</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Adapted from: Sirico (2011) and Verheul et al. (2012)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idlecap</td>
<td>Idle capacity of the consumer with respect to the potential offering of P2P experiences</td>
<td>Specifically created</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psupp2p</td>
<td>Dependent variable. Consumers’ perception of the authenticity provided by P2P tourism experiences</td>
<td>Dependent Variables</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The measurement questionnaire included one statement aimed to extent the consumers’ perception of the authenticity provided by P2P tourism experiences and 26 statements designed to measure the potentially influential variables (see table 1). Respondents to the questionnaire were asked to grade their level of...
agreement with each statement on a three-point Likert scale, ranging from disagree (1) to agree (3). Information was gained through self-administered questionnaires in the place of residence of the 880 respondents.

In order to explore the reliability and validity of the constructs, a confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach Alpha calculations were piloted. Factor loadings were, in all cases, above 0, Cronbach’s Alpha were also above 0.

Afterward, ordered probit econometric estimations (OPE) were conducted. OPE were chosen due to the ordered categorical nature of the dependent variable. As categorical variables do not bear a continuous function, a log-likelihood model must be estimated. OPE seems to be the most appropriate method since it matches the discrete and ordered nature of the dependent variable (Long 1997). In this type of models, the statistical significance of the estimated coefficients indicate which of the variables may increase (or reduce) the probability of each outcome (in our case the variable $P_{supp2p}$). Finally, In order to unveil which variables have a greater influence, the marginal effects were calculated.

**Results**

As it can be seen on table 2, results indicate that a majority (66.14%) of the population perceives that P2P experiences provide more authenticity than traditional ones.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psupp2p</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>23.41</td>
<td>66.14</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to the influence of the analyzed set of variables, OPE indicate that all of them, except idle capacity, have a significant positive influence (see table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Ordered probit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marginal effect by outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1Nonekopro</td>
<td>0.365***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2Ecocen</td>
<td>0.231***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f3Maskil</td>
<td>0.187***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Finally, Table 3 shows the marginal effects indicating the influence of each variable, and Table 4 ranks the variables according to their level of the influence. The results indicate that the consumer’s perception that P2P experiences may generate non-economic profits and the attitude towards the sharing economy, have the highest influence, whereas the entrepreneurship attitude and the attitude towards tourism have the lowest.
Table 4. Ranking of variable influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marginal effects</th>
<th>Psupp2p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f1Nonecopro</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f5Attishaeco</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f8Perecopro</td>
<td>-0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2Ecocen</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f3Maskil</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f6Persreput</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f7Entrepren</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f4Attitou</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

This study intends to broaden the scope of the research on tourism authenticity by investigating the role of P2P provided experiences and the variables that influence consumer’s perception of its authenticity.

Overall, this survey contributes towards the understanding of the role that specific variables of the individuals play on the perception of the authenticity of P2P experiences. Identifying, validating and ordering them according to their influence.

To this respect, findings indicate the preeminent role of the consumer’s perception that P2P experiences can provide non-economic benefits and a positive attitude towards the sharing economy. These findings may suggest a passion and value-based perception of the authenticity. On the other hand, a general attitude towards tourism and entrepreneurship skills seems to have the lowest influence on assigning authenticity to P2P experiences.

As a result of the findings, a set of theoretical, communicational/marketing, and policy implications may emerge. Regarding theory, a model for a networked and value-based tourism society could be proposed. In this model, different co-creation, synergy and societal tools could be discussed to articulate the vision of destinations capable of organizing a critical mass of value-prompted P2P providers, aligned in terms of values to generate authenticity.

With respect to marketing and communication, results may support that in the quest of increasing destination competitiveness through authenticity, value-based consumer segmentation procedures may be of great help to identify and target segments appreciating the authenticity of P2P experiences,
Finally, the suggested model for a networked value-based tourism society calls for policy development in order to signal and incentive P2P provision for authenticity that can differentiate the destination in a sustainable way. Demand-based systems and open-platforms models appear to be a necessary step ahead in order to implement this type of structure, and public administrations have an important role to make it possible.

References


SESSION 6

CULTURAL EXPERIENCES
TRANSCENDENT TOURISM EXPERIENCES: SKIING IN IRAN.

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Introduction

Transcendent experience can be defined as “a moment of extreme happiness; a feeling of lightness and freedom; a sense of harmony with the whole world; moments which are totally absorbing and which feel important: these phrases characterise transcendent experience” (Williams & Harvey, 2001, p. 249). Transcendent customer experiences are often recognisable by notions of awakening, self-transformation and connection with phenomena outside of the self (Schouten, mcaixander, & Koenig, 2007). With regards to the applying transcendent theory, the level and type of research has increased significantly in last decade with studies highlighting transcendent features in experiential settings such as natural environments (Williams & Harvey, 2001), brand community (Schouten et al., 2007), mountaineering (Tsaur, Yen, & Hsiao, 2013), religious experience (Taheri, 2015) and self-service technologies (Wei, Torres, & Hua, 2016).

Furthermore, transcendent experiences can foster long-term change in consumers’ attitudes towards their environment, by provoking feelings of well-being, harmony and freedom (Williams & Harvey, 2001). Such experiences can also facilitate consumer relationships with particular places, nature, other consumers and service providers (Arnould & Price, 1993). Wei et al. (2016) suggest that consumer interactions with service providers and the specifics of the servicescape might be antecedents to transcendent customer experience. It has also been argued that total customer experience play important role on emotions, interaction and involvement in creating memorable transcendence during service encounters, and is therefore relatable to transcendent experience (Wei, et al., 2016). Consumers often seek to repeat those experiences that provoke feelings of transcendence (O’Sullivan, Richardson, & Collins, 2011), demonstrating the potential benefits of furthering the use of transcendent customer experience within tourism research and practice, as providing consumers with transcendent experiences could provide a competitive edge within contemporary tourism markets. With this in mind, this paper seeks to examine the links between consumer orientation, CSR, involvement and satisfaction, within under-researched tourism context, local visitors’ of ski resorts in Iran.

Successful Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives in tourism can not only improve company performance but also benefit society through both economic and non-economic activities (Nicolau, 2008). When consumers connect with socially responsible activities and consider them to be conscious of both consumers and the local community that consumers’ attachment to these activities is strengthened (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2006). Scheinbaum & Lacey (2015) argue that in a sporting event context, community involvement is the most important component of CSR activities, comprising an organisation’s commitment to charitable giving and beneficial causes within the community it operates in. Meanwhile, Pons, Mourali
and Nyeck (2006) argue that within the study of sporting events, both the motivation and value elements of consumer orientation towards sporting events (OSE) are demonstrated, motivation referring to the extent to which the needs of individual consumers are satisfied by the event in question and value being reflected in consumers’ choosing sporting events that best support their value system. They propose that an individual’s OSE is expressed through three dimensions: socialisation, sensation seeking and cognition seeking, constituting the modalities offered by sporting events. Here, in sporting event consumption context, we expect CSR congruence to have positive effect on consumers’ evaluations (motivations and values) of an event (Scheinbaum & Lacey, 2015; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) (H1).

The extent to which an individual devotes themselves to an activity, associated product or activity is reflective of their level of personal involvement (Gross & Brown, 2008). Indeed, individual’s involvement is often influenced by their specific needs and interests or encouraged by occasion-specific impulses (Wong, Wan, & Qi, 2015). Involvement in physical activities is often associated with feelings of transcendence (Tsaur et al., 2013). High levels of involvement and affective attachment may also be achieved through encouraging social interactions and consumer participation in on-site activities (Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013) (H2). Wong et al. (2015) find that consumers who deem being socially responsible as important to them are likely to participate in ‘green involvement’ at events, arguing that consumers are more likely to realise the value of such events when involved in socially responsible initiatives (H3). CSR is a driver of satisfaction, as consumers’ are likely to perceive the products and services of socially responsible companies as being of greater value, resulting in higher levels of satisfaction (Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006) (H4). A sporting event’s ability to satisfy the cognitive and social needs of individuals comprises the motivation element of OSE (Pons et al., 2006). Such motivations and values (OSE) improves the cognitive-affective state a consumer derives from a tourism experience and improves customer evaluations, therefore leading to an increased level of satisfaction (del Bosque & San Martín, 2008) (H5). Finally, Lu et al. (2015) suggest that tourists’ involvement is often measured by their participation in the activities available within a destination, finding that increased consumer involvement in local activities has a directly positive impact on tourist satisfaction (H6).

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1 presents graphical demonstrations of the hypotheses.**
Methods and results

There are twenty ski resorts in Iran. We have collected our data from visitors in Payam and Sahand ski resorts, which are located near city of Tabriz in East Azerbaijan province in Iran. There is normally enough amount of snow for skiing 6 month a year in these two resorts. There are also suitable for hiking and claiming as well as appropriate for picnic during the year (Skifed, 2017). To assure content validity, the items of the constructs were adapted from existing constructs in the literature (Bettencourt, 1997; Lu, Chi, & Liu, 2015; Pons, Mourali, & Nyecck, 2006; Scheinbaum & Lacey, 2015) measured with a 7-point Likert scales.

Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was used as the method of analysis for this study (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). For the PLS-SEM model, we used the non-parametric bootstrapping technique to test 710 samples with a resample of 5,000 (Hair et al., 2017). At the first stage of the measurement model, reliability and validity reflective constructs were assessed using composite reliability (CR), factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). The factor loadings and CR indicated values above the obligatory thresholds of 0.7. The AVE exceeded the recommended value of 0.5 for all constructs. The Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion was used to test discriminant validity. Hence, the findings were supported by reliability and validity of reflective constructs.

To confirm consumer orientation as a higher-order construct, we followed Becker, Klein, and Wetzel's (2012) recommendation. We used the repeated measures approach for estimation of the hierarchal component models (HCMs) in PLS-SEM in order to assess the validity of the second-order construct. The results showed that the relationship between the second-order construct and three underlying first-order constructs were significant and higher than suggested value of 0.5 (Figure 2), yielding consumer orientation construct as a second-order construct with three dimensions.

Prior to testing hypotheses, we assessed the predictive relevance (Q^2), the effect size (f^2), GoF index, and SRMR model fit. All support the suitability and acceptable predicative relevance of the PLS-SEM. Figure 2 represents the results of the PLS-SEM.
Discussion

This study has provided empirical evidence for further understanding of tourist perceptions of CSR, OSE, involvement and satisfaction, and the relationships between them in a sports tourism context, adding to the existing literature and providing important implications for both event and place marketers. This study also contributes to the transcendent experience literature. Findings indicate that CSR has a significant positive influence on OSE, implying that favourable perceptions of CSR initiatives appeal to the values and motivations held by consumers, helping satisfy the sensation seeking, cognition seeking and socialisation needs that encourage a consumers’ orientation towards a sporting event (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Pons et al., 2006). CSR and OSE are both found to positively impact levels of tourist involvement, suggesting that these constructs hold personal relevance to consumers by either meeting intrinsic needs or appealing to interests, therefore encouraging involvement (Wong et al., 2015).

Previous studies have directly linked CSR to customer satisfaction (Sen & Bhattacharya, Luo & Bhattacharya, 2006; Sun & Price, 2016). However, this study finds that in a sports tourism context CSR congruence does not directly influence consumer satisfaction. OSE is found to have a significantly positive influence on customer satisfaction, suggesting that orientation towards a sporting event positively impacts consumers’ cognitive-affective state (del Bosque & San Martin, 2008). This supports the argument that event attendees’ positive evaluations lead to increased overall consumer satisfaction (Petrick et al., 2013).

As satisfaction is recognised as an important determinant of the value attributed to firms by consumers, as well as a key driver of revisit and recommendation intentions and customer loyalty (Eisenbeiss et al., 2014; Prayag & Ryan, 2012), event and place marketers may wish to take steps to enhance business activities that encourage antecedents of customer satisfaction, shown in this study to include OSE, Involvement and indirectly, CSR congruence, in order to benefit from the favourable consequences of increased levels of satisfaction with their business. Thus, marketers should try to improve quality of tourism activities and the perceptions of visitors toward the skiing resorts. It also highlights the strong effect of community involvement in skiing sport and leisure places. Locals’ sense of ownership of tourism and sport infrastructure is another matter to consider. The majority of the sport tourism infrastructure is for the public consumption and leisure purposes, and its maintenance requires local cooperation. Moreover, service providers, such as hotels and restaurants operators, should also involve locals’ participation in their activities, which in turn it would provide opportunities for locals to find jobs (i.e., beneficial to local economies). In addition, Iranian local authorities and government should look to improve and facilitate the involvement of locals in tourism CSR and sustainability decision making processes in order to increase the level of consumer satisfaction with the sport tourism places.

Potential limitations of this study include the restrictions of the quantitative approach taken, which focused solely on a consumer perspective. Future research may wish to take a qualitative approach and consider conducting interviews not only with consumers but also with other stakeholders, for example local authorities and tourism providers, the results of which might highlight variations in the construct relationships demonstrated within this study. Additionally, the data from this study was collected from skiing reports within two different provinces in Iran, potentially limiting the generalizability of the findings due to the geographic specificity of the data collection.
References


HOSTS BEING GUESTS: SERVICE EXPERIENCE AND SUPPORT FOR CASINO.

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Introduction

Although perceptions and attitudes of host communities regarding tourism development have been dealt with in the literature according to different theories and many different models, social exchange theory (SET) remains the principal theoretical framework involved in this field of tourism research (Nunkoo, Smith, & Ramkissoon, 2013). The base for SET application is to consider that host communities provide hospitality and tolerate tourist presence or even disturbance in exchange for the improvement of their well-being. Ap’s (1992) SET model majorly deals with hosts’ evaluation from the exchange relation with visitors, proposing that positive (rewards) and negative (costs) appraisals independently affect support for tourism. Whether alone in simple models or integrated as exogenous or endogenous predictors in more complex models, perceived benefits and costs have proved to be associated with attitude towards casinos or support for the casino industry in a variety of empirical applications (Chhabra, 2008; Chhabra & Gursoy, 2007; Lee & Back, 2003, 2006; Lee, Kang, Long, & Reisinger, 2010).

The perceived tourism and casino impacts reported in the literature are cognitive appraisals. Surprisingly, the affect theory of social exchange (ATSE) (Lawler, 2001) didn’t receive much attention in this field. According to this theory, the affective elements play a major role on social exchange, since they are the outcomes valued and strived or avoided by actors. The process of attributing the source of affect to social units is very important not only to maintain or withdraw relations and networks, but also to the resulting affective attachment to or detachment from a group. In line with ATSE propositions, the question guiding this research is how affective outcomes from the exchange contribute to hosts’ support for the casino.

Song, Xing, and Chathoth (2014) invoke ATSE to explore the effects of the affective impact, in conjunction with cognitive appraisals, of festivals on residents’ support for future events. According to their model, residents’ support depends indirectly on cognitive and affective impacts, through the mediation of attitude (performance assessment) and satisfaction, variables related to residents’ festival experience. The mediation between perceived impacts and support for events has been previously modelled in studies such as Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, and Alders (2013), where the mediator role is played by overall attitude towards the event. Regarding support for casino development, Vong, Lai, and Li (2016) propose an affective mediation between cognitive impacts and support.

Our approach builds on Prayag et al. (2013) by considering the overall attitude regarding casino impacts as the proximal antecedent of support for casino; on Vong et al. (2016) by including an affective mediator between beliefs and support; and on Song et al. (2014) in the following ways: (i) by including both cognitive and affective appraisals; (ii) by considering mediators resulting from residents’ service experience. However, it departs from these cited studies notably by conceptualizing that the relationship between cognitive beliefs about casino impacts and the overall attitude is mediated by the affective response to the
casino experience. Noting that participation in casino activities decreases the perception of negative impacts (Mohsin & Lockyer, 2008) and increases support for the casino industry (Chhabra & Gursoy, 2009), we consider the service experience with the casino as the exchange relation that produces the affective response. Under this proposition, the overall attitude and the intentions regarding the casino will be measured only in citizens who had some kind of experience visiting the casino.

The objectives of this paper are thus to: (1) assess the perceived impacts of casino; (2) assess the perceived affective reaction to casino experience; (3) in the context of SET, verify if, besides the perceived impacts, the affective reaction contributes to explain the overall attitude towards having a casino located in the community.

Methods and materials

A model linking beliefs → affect → attitude → support was assessed after collecting measures from these latent variables in a quota sample of 300 residents in Chaves, Portugal, where a casino was installed six years before the study. Quotas were defined proportionally according to the distribution of the population in three demographic characteristics censused in 2011: sex, age, and education. The model is tested on a usable subsample of 224 residents who experienced the casino and answered all the 20 items relevant to this study. Measures’ reliability and validity are evaluated by means of confirmatory factor analysis and the relations between variables are estimated in a structural equations model resorting to bootstrap in order to estimate the significance of both direct and indirect effects.

Research and Results

Residents show a mildly positive attitude toward the casino, devaluing the negative impacts, expressing more positive than negative reactions to the experience with the casino, expressing favourable attitudes and supporting casino activities. As shown in Table 1, positive beliefs and emotions are better rated than the negative ones. On the other hand, overall attitude and support are rated above the average.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables and items</th>
<th>Descriptive statistics</th>
<th>Convergent validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>3.226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefited the commerce</td>
<td>3.362</td>
<td>1.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased consumption</td>
<td>3.549</td>
<td>1.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased investment</td>
<td>2.768</td>
<td>1.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>2.345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased crime</td>
<td>2.125</td>
<td>1.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol or drug abuse</td>
<td>2.290</td>
<td>1.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead to bankruptcy</td>
<td>2.621</td>
<td>1.300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first structural model to test posits that support for casino results from attitude, which in turn depends on beliefs about impacts, i.e. benefits and costs. It may be seen in Table 2 that the goodness of fit is acceptable. About 40% of the variance of attitude and 52% of support are explained by the respective predictors. Perceived benefits have a large positive effect and perceived costs a relatively modest negative effect. Compared to this baseline model, the introduction of the affective response to the experience with the casino in model 2, increases $R^2$ of attitude from 40% to 60%. This may be assumed as strong evidence to the usefulness of considering the affective response to casino experience in addition to the cognitive response to its impacts on the community, as predictors of attitude. Notably, positive affect not only is a major contributor to form attitude, but it also directly influences support for casino – its inclusion decreases the importance of attitude as a predictor of support.

Table 1. Measurement model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative affect</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Standardized regression coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Displeasure</td>
<td>1.491</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>0.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regret</td>
<td>1.509</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unhappiness</td>
<td>1.438</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>1.415</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive affect</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joy</td>
<td>3.362</td>
<td>1.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amazement</td>
<td>3.219</td>
<td>0.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascination</td>
<td>2.955</td>
<td>1.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Astonishment</td>
<td>2.808</td>
<td>1.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impact assessment</td>
<td>3.955</td>
<td>0.707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction assessment</td>
<td>3.804</td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compared to expectation</td>
<td>3.357</td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pride living in casino town</td>
<td>3.768</td>
<td>1.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing guests</td>
<td>3.540</td>
<td>0.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing activity</td>
<td>3.754</td>
<td>0.912</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Measurement model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>$p$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standardized regression coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits $\rightarrow$ Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs $\rightarrow$ Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits $\rightarrow$ Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs $\rightarrow$ Support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 2. Structural models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude → Support</td>
<td>0.711</td>
<td>0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits → Positive Affect</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs → Negative Affect</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Affect → Attitude</td>
<td>0.473</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Affect → Attitude</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Affect → Support</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Affect → Support</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness of fit</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>χ²/d.f.</td>
<td>2.018</td>
<td>1.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.952</td>
<td>0.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p(RMSEA≤.05)</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CFI: comparative fit index; RMSEA: root mean square error of approximation; p values are bootstrap estimates.

### Discussion

We consider that the three research objectives were fully met, as it may be concluded that: (1) residents more strongly believe in the benefits than in the costs of locating the casino in the town of Chaves; (2) the experience with the casino produced more positive than negative emotions; (3) the affective response to the experience contributes to explain the overall attitude regarding the impacts of the casino on the community and the support for its operation and development. The third conclusion is of upmost importance, as the main purpose of this article was to verify if, along with beliefs about impacts, residents’ affective response to casino experience also contributes to explain attitude and support. This research question may be viewed as an attempt to follow Lawler (2001) assumptions of ATSE.

Inspired by previous studies that found that having visited a casino facility influences residents’ support for it (Chhabra & Gursoy, 2009; Mohsin & Lockyer, 2008), we defined the visiting experience as the social exchange context that produces the emotions or feelings evoked in Lawler’s first assumption. Nevertheless, it could be suggested, for further studies, that the affective response could be assessed in the more general exchange relation between community and casino, regardless of the experience. It may also be worth to suggest that concepts with some affective facets, such as place or community attachment, which have been used in the casino context or more generally in the tourism development context, may be represented, according to Lawler’s theory, as resulting from affective responses attributed to social units. This is a promising way of conceptualizing the role of stakeholders and networks in the formation of attitudes towards tourism (and casino) development.

Chaves’ citizens are moderately optimistic in relation to the impacts of the casino. Our research suggests that experience with the casino doesn’t provoke negative feelings and tends to improve favourable attitudes.
According to the ATSE, promotion of services provided by the casino, particularly if not centred in gambling, directed to residents, could increase attachment to the casino and to the city as well, thus improving attitude and support. Enhancement of affective attachment would be maximized if this promotion involves co-operation between the casino and local government agencies.

**Acknowledgement**

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Wine as a Driver in Fostering Heritage Based Tourist Product.

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Portorož, Slovenia.

Introduction

Gastronomy can be considered as an essential component in tourism because it affects tourists’ destination choices, travel decision-making process and the majority of activities in tourist destinations (Hall et al., 2003). It is one of the most distinctive marketing components for a tourist destination (Kim et. al., 2009) because it may promote the identity and culture of that particular tourist destination (van Westering, 1999). Wine, as an element of gastronomy offer, is an important component of tourist destination’s gastronomy because it is strongly associated to a particular region (Moran, 1993; Bell and Valentine, 1997; Ravenscroft and van Westering, 2001). Thus, the authenticity of the wine presents a crucial element for consumers (Bell and Valentine, 1997) as well as tourists. Wine is linked to consumers’ special interests; therefore wine tourism may be a good strategy for destination development as well as a marketing opportunity for wine producers to educate and to sell their products directly to consumers (Getz and Brown, 2006).

When travelling tourists usually engage in different activities often bundled to construct a tourist product, which was a starting point in Williams and Kelly’s (2001) research on cultural wine tourists. Williams and Kelly (2001) examined the differences between wine tourists and other visitors and have established a link between interest in wine tasting in wineries and getting to know the heritage of a tourist destination. Wine tourism can offer a multiplicity of activity in a wine tourism destination and the Champagne region of France is an excellent example of how a wide “bundle of benefits” can combine wine with heritage buildings and historically significant sites, appealing old towns and villages and attractive landscapes (Charters and Ali-Knight, 2002).

Wine as a part of gastronomy in a particular tourist destination represents a vital part of destination heritage and this research tries to explore this relationship. This research focuses on examining wine as an integral part of a heritage based tourist product in order to achieve contribution to overall conference theme. The main focus is on a relationship between wine consumption motives and perceived wine knowledge on interest for heritage based tourist product, so this paper tries to explore how tourists can be engaged in exploring and learning about tourist destination heritage by incorporating local wines. The first goal of this paper is to determine the relationship between wine consumption motives and interest for heritage based tourist product, while the second goal is to determine if perceived wine knowledge predicts interest in heritage based tourist product above and beyond the effect of the wine consumption motives. Examination of these relationships is based on assumptions that tourists’ motives influence their selection of activities.
in a tourist destination (Moscardo et al., 1996) which also includes interest in learning new thing (Williams and Kelly, 2001).

Methods & materials

A study focused on winery visitors visiting wineries in Istria peninsula, in both Croatian and Slovenian part, was a part of a project “Malvasia TourIstra” financed by EU IPA/EFRR Operational Programme Slovenia-Croatia 2007-2013. The research study was conducted from July through December in 2014. The target population included winery visitors visiting wineries in Istria that were 18 years of age or older. For the purpose of sampling, a list of wineries offering quality wines was compiled from three wine associations that were project partners. Based on this data, wineries with tasting facilities were identified and asked to participate in this research. Through telephone conversation with winery owners, it was determined that winery visitors in Istria are usually individual visitors that come to wineries infrequently so winery owners were asked to administrate the questionnaires. They were instructed regarding the research procedure i.e. they explained the purpose of the survey to their visitors and said that it was anonymous. The survey was carried out in 40 wineries. In the process of on-site data collection a convenient sample was used.

For the purpose of gathering data the questionnaire was constructed. It consisted of 28 questions which were divided into four sections: 1) consumption motives, wine knowledge and wine purchase, 2) Istrian Malvasia wine, 3) aspects regarding wineries and 4) respondents’ characteristics. Questionnaire was originally designed in Croatian and then back translated into English, German, Italian and Slovenian.

For measuring the wine consumption motives, wine knowledge and interest for heritage based tourist product a five-point Likert scale was used. A total of 33 items were used to measure dimensions of wine consumption motives (Brunner and Siegrist, 2011; Charters and Pettigrew, 2008), wine knowledge was measured through six items (Brunner and Siegrist, 2011), while interest for heritage based tourist product was based on four items related to different activities in tourist destination, namely tasting wine, gastronomy, natural and cultural heritage of tourist destination. Hierarchical regression analysis was used for testing the relationship between wine consumption motives and wine knowledge (explanatory variables), and interest for heritage based tourist product (dependant variables). Prior to the hierarchical regression analysis, factor analysis (maximum likelihood factor analysis and promax rotation with an eigenvalue of 1.00 or more), internal reliability computation (Cronbach's alpha) and appropriate regression diagnostics were done.

Research and Results

A total of 204 responders were taken into analysis. The proportion of male responders (59%) was slightly higher than that of male (41%) The majority of responders were between 35 and 54 years of age (53%). Most of the responders obtained higher education (66%). Generally the responders were employees (35%), 28% were self-employed and about 17% were managers. Most of them were from Croatia (18%) and Italy (13%). The most frequent monthly net income was between €1,000 and €3,000 (56%). 70% of responders visited wineries in Croatian part of Istria, while 30% those wineries in Slovenian part of Istria.
To examine multidimensionality and internal reliability of the wine consumption motives, wine knowledge and interest for heritage based tourist product factor analyses were done. Six factors representing wine consumption motives formed clear factors structures. They jointly accounted for 57.15% of accumulated variance and were labelled as style, gastronomy experiences, health enhancement, added value, family togetherness, and recreation (Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were 0.79, 0.83, 0.79, 0.76 and 0.77 respectively). Items measuring wine knowledge formed one clear factor structure (accounted for 56.18% of accumulated variance, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.89) and the same situation also occurred in the case of interest for heritage based tourist product (accounted for 57.11% of accumulated variance, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.85). Composite variables were calculated as a mean value for each respondent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Style</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Gastronomy experience</td>
<td>0.099</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Health enhancement</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Added value</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Family togetherness</td>
<td>0.204*</td>
<td>0.197*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive - Recreation</td>
<td>-0.123</td>
<td>-0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wine knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.453***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R² Change</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Change</td>
<td>3.781**</td>
<td>25.071***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *significant at α = 0.05. **significant at α = 0.01. ***significant at α = 0.001

Source: Data processed by authors

Table 1. Results of regression analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the research hypotheses (Table 1). Moscardo et al. (1996) have linked motivation with activities in a tourist destination. Therefore, wine consumption motives were included as the first block in hierarchical multiple regression. When wine consumption motives were entered into the regression analysis in the first step they explained 14% of interest for heritage based tourist product. In the second step, perceived wine knowledge was included. The decision to enter this variable was based on Williams and Kelly (2001) analysis of cultural wine tourists. By entering this variable R² increased to 27.6% indicating a change of 13.4% and increasing the significance of the model.

In the second and final model, wine knowledge is highly significant and positively linked to interest for heritage based tourist product, while only one of six wine consumption motives i.e. family togetherness was somewhat significant in this relationship and also positively linked to the interest in heritage based tourist product.
Discussion and conclusions

The results suggest that wine consumption motives have a certain influence in fostering interest for heritage based tourist product. However, perceived wine knowledge is a variable that may be very important in creation of heritage based tourist product because it explains almost as much as variances as all wine consumption motives do together.

Wine may be considered as a way of connecting different generations of one family through adoption of wine culture and tradition. Thus, family togetherness as a wine consumption motive is an excellent start in fostering interest for heritage based tourist product. In the process of bundling of activities, special attention should be placed on emphasizing the moment of generation connection and spending quality time with family because this may boost wine tourist engagement in exploring and learning about heritage of tourist destination.

Another useful element in engaging wine tourists in exploring and learning about heritage of tourist destination may be different sources they use to obtain knowledge about wine like journals, books or websites containing wine ratings and reviews. By including ratings and reviews of tourist destination authentic wines in various tourist destination promotion related materials (e.g. DMOs’ websites, brochures), a wine tourist may get additional information related to tourist destination heritage. This may increase a possibility that wine tourists visit different heritage sites in a tourist destination during their stay.

References


**Introduction**

Due to economic pressures, museums have shifted their focus from collecting objects to serving audiences (Kotler et al., 2008). As a result, they are increasingly using marketing tools and techniques to develop a broader audience, to enlarge their offerings, and to raise income (Gilmore and Rentschler, 2002; Kotler et al., 2008). Consequently, they need to understand their visitors including cultural tourists. “Cultural tourism exists because tourists want either to experience living places and cultures other than their own, or gain access to the cultures of others, different in time and space, through artefacts housed away from their original location, often in museums.” Accordingly, “cultural tourism may be defined as tourism constructed, proffered and consumed explicitly or implicitly as cultural appreciation, either as experiences or schematic knowledge gaining” (Prentice, 2001, p. 8, 12). Framed within the field of cultural tourism, the current research therefore focus on museums and aims to explore visitors’ perceptions of museums.

**Research question and the aim of the research**

Why do people visit museums? In the area of museum marketing, a substantial amount of research focuses on audience research to help managers profile their visiting publics with the help of socio-demographics (Harrison and Shaw, 2004). Despite their common use, socio-demographical data tells little about the nature of the museum visits. Therefore, Hood (1983) suggests museum professionals to focus on the psychographic characteristics of visitors and understand their values, interests, perceptions and experiences. Addressing this gap in literature, by examining visitors’ definition of a museum, this research aims to understand what museums mean, what meanings visitors take away from their museum experiences and how they derive value and benefits from museum visiting museums, in the hope that the findings will help in the development and marketing of museums and other cultural heritage-based tourism products and as a result can contribute to the conservation of the tangible and intangible heritage.

**Methods and materials**

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 and five main museums in Ankara, Turkey. As part of this research study, participants were asked to define a museum. In total, 805 (400 in Italy; 405 in Turkey) museum visitors who agreed to participate in the research were interviewed.
In the Italian case, among the 394 usable questionnaires collected, 372 available definitions were analyzed in this study, whereas in the Turkish case, 346 available definitions were analyzed.

**Research and results**

In the Italian sample, the majority of respondents were from Italy (41.9%), followed by France (33.2%) and other European countries (18.5%). Of the 165 Italian respondents, only 13.2% were from Genoa. The major demographic profiles of respondents indicate that museums in Genoa are mostly visited by women (i.e. 229 females and 149 males) and people between 31 and 60 years old (63.2%). The majority of respondents had a university degree (41.9%), followed by those possessing a graduate and/or post-graduate degree (34.5%). The most common motivation for visiting museums was to learn (72.3%).

In the Turkish sample, the majority of respondents were locals from Ankara (60.0%), followed by respondents from Istanbul (12.3%) and other cities (27.6%). Like in Italy, most of the respondents were females (57.2%) and people between 21 and 40 years old (53.9%) and those with high educational attainment (77.3% with a university or higher education). Like in Italy, the most common motivation for visiting museums was to learn (78.5%). The characteristics of the sample in both countries are in line with the characteristics of the museum visitors in other countries reported in large scale research studies (e.g. HLF 2012). They are highly educated, mostly female, and mostly made up of adults, though in Turkey the age groups seem to reflect a younger populational structure of Turkey.

Grounded theory approach was used to explore the visitors’ perceptions of museums by referring to their definitions of a museum. Tung and Ritchie (2011) stated that as an inductive, qualitative research method, grounded theory focuses on data depth and quality for the construction of theory through the analysis of data. For this purpose, we reviewed the definitions collected from the respondents and ran a word frequency query to help us find key themes by using qualitative research software named NVivo 11. Results of this analysis are provided on Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most frequent words / times</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Turkey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture/cultural</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History/historical</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art/artist/artistic/artwork</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/educational</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn/learning</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative words *</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Negative words including boring, death, sad, dark, cold and other similar words.

Table 1. Words Frequently Used in Defining Museums
Based on these findings, we may claim that there is strong positive attachment to museums in both countries. Visitors mostly associate them with culture, history, art and learning. Nevertheless, visitors in Turkey perceive museums as places of history and the past the most, whereas visitors in Italy seem to perceive museums as places of culture.

The following may be provided as examples to the definitions made by the respondents in the Italian sample;

- 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.
- 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.
- 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.
- 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.

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

- A place where historical materials are collected and exhibited.
- Places where help us carry our past to future, that bring us to other worlds; have strong spiritual power.
- Places where enrich and support the knowledge gained through books and other published sources in history.
- Places where one can see and learn about the old artifacts and reinforce curiosity.
- Learning by entertaining.
- Places where one can go when in need of doing something different. Better than going to a football match!
- A place where one should be careful not to crash anything.
• Places where enrich life.
• Expensive places.
• Cultural places where one can gain knowledge in a short period of time.
• Most native and valuable places that bring past to present.
• Museums reflect the past as it is. They represent the truth without any false information, they, therefore, exhibit physical objects. That is why I find them more trustable to understand the past.

Discussion

Challenging economic times require museums to explore ways and means to increase attendance and revenues while continuing to meet their heritage preservation and education mandates. Doing so requires them to look carefully at their current visiting publics. Therefore, the aim of this research was to explore the visitors’ perceptions towards museums. Understanding current visitors is essential for the development of increased visits and creating value not only for the museum visitors but for the museums and the community.

Museums have a clear role in education. They offer positive experiences to encourage improved learning environments to the visiting publics. Although this cross-cultural study pointed out some similarities between the museums and their visitors in Italy and Turkey, there is one important difference in the perceptions of the visitors. While visitors in Italy associate museums with culture more, this is not the case in the Turkish sample. The emphasis of history and the past in the definitions of visitors in Turkey may be due to the fact that in Turkey most of the museums contain archeological artefacts. These results provide important implications to museum professionals and policy makers. Particularly in Turkey, museum professionals and policy makers should pay more attention to the ways in which visitors’ experiences of museums into a more detailed understanding and appreciation of local culture or history. As museums and other heritage venues have a certain amount of social responsibility in the context of communicating information to their visiting publics, they should be telling their stories of the past with a sense of identity to a nation (Trinh and Ryan, 2015). Compared to the museums in Italy, museums which have culture as their core experience seem to be less successful in their communication of culture and heritage to their visiting publics in Turkey. As the manner of presentation and interpretation of their objects, spaces or history can have a significant impact on the perceptions of visitors, museum professionals and policy makers should consider how they can better communicate the core values of museums in Turkey. With the increased awareness and appreciation of culture, they can therefore contribute to the conservation of culture and heritage.

This study only focused on visitors of two museums in Genoa Italy, and five museums in Ankara Turkey, therefore the application scope of the findings is limited. The analysis is also based on a non-random sampling technique. Thus, in order to verify whether the results are valid for other museums, a future study may be conducted in other museums and places.
Acknowledgements

The author wish to acknowledge the valuable help in data collection and support for this research provided by Dr Piero Boccardo, Dr Adelmo Taddei, Dr Elizabetta Papone, Ms Tina Russo, Ms Paola Barbara Villa, Mr Axel Nielsen and the museum community of Genoa in Italy and by Koç University Vehbi Koç Ankara Studies Research Center (VEKAM) and Ankara Çengelhan Rahmi M. Koç Museum in Turkey.

References


SESSION 7

TOURISTS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
CROSS-BORDER MARKETING IN TOURISM: COUNTRY ANIMOSITY AND THE ROLE OF MEDIA.

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Sara Campo, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Spain, sara.campo@uam.es

Introduction

Tourism is facing difficult times since both man-made and natural threats are raising safety concerns and affecting the tourism industry at the destinations where they occur. The tourism literature has studied these events under the crises stream of research, confirming that these negative occurrences affect visitation and create a negative image of the destination (Heslop, et al., 2008). In particular, this undesirable image of the place is often formed from the information that is disseminated by the media through their coverage of a particular event (Gartner and Shen, 1992; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996). Thus, the media has the potential to shape destination images and risk perceptions, decreasing the attractiveness of the destination by broadcasting negative incidents (Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996; Morakabati, et al., 2012; Sönmez, 1998).

In addition, wars, conflicts and other incidents between countries may create feelings of animosity towards a given country, also reducing the likelihood that an individual will purchase products from the place (Klein, et al., 1998; Nes, et al., 2012). Although these hostile emotions have mainly been investigated in relation to the consumption of products manufactured in the offending countries, an emerging literature on this topic within the context of tourism also verifies the impact of animosity on country destination evaluations and visitation intentions (Campo and Alvarez, 2017; Guo, et al., 2016). Furthermore, several authors have called for studies that examine in more detail the causes leading to consumer animosity and the dislike of particular countries (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007; Nes, et al., 2012).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyse country animosity as an important barrier to tourism and a source of negative country evaluations. The research examines the root causes for these negative feelings, as well as the magnifying role of the media in the formation of these emotions. In particular, we try to answer the following questions: How is animosity generated? What is the influence of non-controllable information, such as that generated by the press, on animosity?

Methods and Materials

The study was carried out on a sample of Spanish individuals who were solicited between March and May 2015 using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling. The respondents were asked to identify through an online questionnaire the 3 countries that they liked the least and to specify the reasons for this dislike. Therefore, 229 respondents mentioned 649 countries that they dislike and 799 reasons to support these feelings of animosity. In total, 96 countries were mentioned by at least one respondent. This data was analysed using NVivo software programme (version 10) in order to determine frequencies, categorize the information and uncover word associations.
In addition to the data collected in this fashion, a content analysis of the news published in Spain in the mainstream media on the four most disliked countries, namely North Korea, Venezuela, Iraq and China, was carried out. The purpose of this analysis was to ascertain the role of non-controllable sources of information, such as news, on the animosity towards a country. An archival analysis of the news published from January to May 2015 in El País and TVE1 - the newspaper and television news programme that are among those with the largest audience in Spain - was carried out. In the period analysed, there were 1,202 news items related to foreign countries, 850 in El País and 352 in TVE1. Of these, 39% were on China, 30% on Iraq, 25% on Venezuela and 6% on North Korea. Regarding North Korea, while the low percentage of news related to the country stands out, it is necessary to determine that two months before the data collection a documentary entitled “In Hostile Land” was broadcasted in one of the most watched television channels. This program achieved a screen share of 20.9% (an audience of 3.6 million) and was a trending topic in social networks within hours of its emission. This documentary showed an image of North Korea as a country with no freedom and subject to a military regime following a conflict between South and North Korea.

The news thus obtained were classified according to their tone, in negative, positive or neutral, and according to their theme, using the same categorization used for the content analysis of the country animosity motives. The classification of the content of the news was made by 7 independent judges, each of whom was randomly assigned to two news bases (country and medium). The reliability of this categorization was confirmed by looking at the inter-rater agreement level of the independent judges (Kolbe and Burnett, 1991).

Research and Results

The findings obtained from a sample of Spanish individuals determine that the least liked ten countries in order of dislike are North Korea (with 9.6% of references concerning this country), Venezuela (7.2%), Iraq (6.3%), China (6.0%), Saudi Arabia (5.4%), Syria (5.4%), Russia (5.2%), Iran (4.2%), United States (3.9%) and Afghanistan (3.7%).

The reasons identified by the respondents are classified into different groups and subgroups (see Table 1): 1) Economic motives; 2) International politics and relations; 3) Culture, society and technology; 4) Military motives; 5) Environment; 6) People; 7) Criminality; 8) Historical events; 9) Religion. The main reason for animosity has to do with the political situation of the countries and their international relations (35%), followed by crime, terrorism or war situation (25.5%), and economic and trade aspects (11.1%). Within the political situation and international relations, dictatorship and oppression are the most cited motives for dislike of the mentioned countries. Other concrete reasons usually mentioned are the level of development and poverty, or the absence of human rights and the treatment of women.

Table 1. Classification of motives leading to animosity towards a country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economy and Trade</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. Economy of the Country (E1)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. Economy of companies in the country (E2)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. International trade (E3)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>. Level of development of the country (E4)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 http://cadenaser.com/ser/2015/02/11/television/1423646106_121938.html
Politics and Foreign Relations
- Politics of the country (P1) 338 42.3%
  - International relations (P2) 40 5.0%
  - Political corruption (P3) 23 2.9%
  - Communism/Imperialism/Dictatorship/Leaders (P4) 110 13.8%
  - Human rights/Treatment of women/censorship/oppression (P5) 134 16.8%
Culture, Society and Technology (C)
- Military confrontations (M1) 18 2.2%
  - Military strength and risk for other countries (M2) 4 0.5%
Environment, Climate and Geography (EN)
- Environment 38 4.8%
People (PE)
- People 61 7.6%
Criminiality
- Crime/Terrorism/State of War (CR1) 179 22.4%
  - Corruption (CR2) 177 22.2%
  - Corruption (CR2) 2 0.2%
Historical (H)
- Historical 1 0.1%
Religion (R)
- Religion 44 5.5%
TOTAL 799 100%

An analysis of the reasons cited by the respondents in relation to the 10 most disliked countries shows which negative aspects are highlighted for each country (see Figure 1). While Iraq, Syria and Iran are seen as countries with high crime rates, war and terrorism, Saudi Arabia, North Korea and Afghanistan stand out for political reasons - namely the absence of human rights, the treatment of women and the oppression they exercise towards their citizens. North Korea, Venezuela and Russia are also negatively viewed because of their leaders or because they are considered to be states with dictatorial political regimes. China is disliked for political reasons, but also because of its economy and its environmental policies.

Figure 1. Main reasons of animosity by country
When looking at the data collected from the news items, it can be noted that 51% of the news are classified by the judges as negative, while only 22% are positive. The differences between countries are remarkable; while 43% of the news about China are classified as positive, 73% of those concerning Venezuela, 62% of the news on Iraq and 57% of those pertaining to North Korea are classified as negative.

Table 2. Classification of the news items according to countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>China</th>
<th>North Korea</th>
<th>Iraq</th>
<th>Venezuela</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy and Trade</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics and International Relations</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture, Society and Technology</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment, Climate and Geography</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminality</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>472</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td><strong>363</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An analysis of the news items highlights that most of the news concerning China deal with political and international relations aspects, or with economic and trade-related questions. Environmental issues are also often mentioned in the analysed media, representing 10% of all news about China. Politics and international relations are also the most important news items for North Korea (47% of the news are on these issues) and Venezuela (65%). In contrast, news concerning Iraq include mainly military concerns, followed by criminality (mostly related to issues of terrorism and the country’s state of war).

Discussion

The research provides information concerning the most important reasons why individuals may dislike a particular country, with important consequences for tourism. In particular, the vision of a dangerous country with a high degree of criminality or terrorism is the most frequently cited motive for dislike. Other often mentioned causes of animosity include the perceived violation of human rights in the country, the political system prevalent and the negative image of the country’s leader. In this sense this work is pioneer because it highlights the importance of political issues and the external image of the leaders of the countries in creating animosity, which has important repercussions on the attraction of foreign tourists. These results open interesting lines of research.

This study also finds that the reasons for animosity vary from country to country, although the most cited motives are shared by the countries that are most disliked. The exception is China, whose source of animosity derives mainly from economic and environmental reasons.
It is important to note that those countries that are most disliked by the respondents are also those that are most mentioned in the media, especially in a damaging manner. This research establishes the influence that news and non-controllable information have on the generation of animosity towards a country. It also confirms that the main source of animosity identified by the respondents coincides with the content of the largest percentage of news concerning the country.

References


THE MALDIVES AS ISLAMIC DESTINATION IMAGE

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Introduction

The current study contributes to the stream of literature that investigates the influence of destination image on tourist decision making (Lee et al. 2014; Martín-Santana et al. 2017). While cultural factors do influence image perception (Beerli and Martin 2004; Sun et al. 2015), there is a distinct lack of attention on Islamic cultures, or more specifically Islamic destinations in tourism studies (Chen et al. 2013).

Researchers have addressed the relationship between religion and tourism within two separate streams: the pilgrim perspective (Cohen 1979; Vukonic 2002; Ron 2009) and the leisure tourist perspective (Weidenfeld 2006; Henderson 2008). Fleischer (2000) suggests that leisure tourists may seek spiritual experiences. Nolan and Nolan (1992) and Timothy and Olsen (2006) also suggest both the tourist and the pilgrim may be attracted to the same sacred or spiritual space. However, Weidenfeld (2006) departs completely from the pilgrim perspective and suggests to explore the influence of religious affiliation of the leisure tourist. Much of existing literature investigates the relationship between religion, tourist and destination preference in non-Muslim contexts (Rinschede 1992; Fleischer 2000; Poria et al. 2003; Cohen 2003) and the literature has been criticized for lack of attention on Islamic cultures (Jafari and Scott 2014). Furthermore, Maldives as the context of this study represents leisure tourist destination with no popular religious heritage or sacred sites.

For the Muslim tourist, religion is more prevalent in decision-making and everyday life events are guided by Shariah law (Jafari and Scott 2014; Din 1989; Stephenson 2014). Consequently religion influences choice of destination for Muslim tourist (example Jafari and Scott 2014). Stephenson et al. (2010, p.10) suggests “hospitality is a social and cultural institution, the ‘hospitality’ should closely represent the ethnic and religious dimensions of the host culture”. Stephenson et al. (2010) further suggests that destination image should represent its true cultural identity, failure of which gives a false image to tourists. Although there is conflicting opinions as to whether destinations should project an Islamic image (Jafari and Scott 2014), a basic assumption is given the rise of terrorism and negative stereotyping of Muslims in mass media, Muslim tourists would find Islamic destinations more attractive for leisure holidays (Timothy and Iverson 2006).

Hence, relationships between antecedents, tourist experience and resulting consequences in an Islamic destination requires further investigation (Taheri 2015). The current study aims to examine the role of Islamic destination image of Maldives in tourist decision-making for Muslim tourists only. Selecting a scale
to measure **Islamic destination image** is problematic. Although Battour, Battor, et al. (2014) suggest Islamic attributes important for Muslim tourists, there are issues of reliability and validity of the scale. Beerli and Martin (2004) suggest selecting a scale that represents the unique attractions of the specific destination. Following this Chen et al. (2013) measured destination image of Brunei in the context of an Islamic country. Similarly, the current study used the scale proposed by Prayag and Hosany (2014) which is designed for destinations positioned as luxury tourist destinations like the Maldives but also accounts for religious attributes. Antecedents and behavioural outcomes in the conceptual model are discussed next.

**Prior knowledge** has as an important influence on consumer decision making process (Gursoy and McCleary 2004). Recent studies in tourism, conceptualise prior knowledge as three dimensions: *familiarity* (awareness), *past experience* (visit experience) and *expertise* (knowledge and expertise) (Kerstetter and Cho 2004; Taheri et al. 2014). Research suggests prior knowledge influences destination image (Beerli and Martin 2004) (H1).

**Cosmopolitanism** is generally described as world-minded consumers with an interest to engage in different cultural experiences (Skrbis et al. 2004). Torelli (2013, p.47) suggests that consumers following globalization may seek “commonalities rather than dissimilarities among people around the world”. Cosmopolitans may adopt various cultural traits while retaining their religious identity (Pandey et al. 2015). In so doing, cosmopolitan tourists seek cultural experiences from a cultural vantage point (Johnson 2014). Empirical evidence also suggests destinations positing a ‘cosmopolitan image’ are attractive for tourists (Hankinson 2005). Research documents countries such as Malaysia (Battour, Ismail, et al. 2014), advancing an Islamic destination image for Muslim tourists seeking divergent cultural experiences (H3) (H4).

Personal **involvement** can be defined as “the degree to which a person devotes himself or herself to an activity, associated product or experience” (Prayag and Ryan 2012, p.344). Empirical evidence in tourism studies suggest a relationship between involvement and prior knowledge (Gursoy and Gavcar 2003; Huang et al. 2014) (H2); and involvement and destination image (Prayag and Ryan 2012; Lu et al. 2015) (H5) and involvement and satisfaction (Lu et al. 2015) (H7). Finally, research also documents a positive relationship between destination image **satisfaction** (H6) and satisfaction is an antecedent of **loyalty** (H8) (Prayag and Ryan 2012; Lee et al. 2005). Refer to

*Figure 1* for conceptual framework.

**Figure 1. Conceptual model**

**Methods and findings**
A positivist approach was deemed appropriate as it is a quantitative study involved in testing existing theoretical concepts to examine cause and effect of individual tourist behavior (Creswell 2014). The inability to reach or identify every Muslim tourist visiting Maldives caused limitations in sampling techniques. Therefore using convenience sampling technique and survey questionnaire, data was collected from 961 tourists who identified themselves as Muslims, at Velanaa International Airport. For data entry and analysis, the researcher used SPSS 22. The items for the six constructs were selected from existing literature to ensure content validity (Cleveland et al. 2013; Lu et al. 2015; Lee et al. 2014; Prayag and Hosany 2014; Bosque et al. 2008; Kerstetter and Cho 2004; Taheri et al. 2014).

Partial least squares (PLS-SEM) was used to test conceptual framework as it is ideal for estimating predictive relationships, testing non-parametric data and accommodates reflective and formative measures (Hair et al. 2017). Refer to Figure 2 for results of current study. First reflective measurement model was analysed for reliability and validity. There was internal consistency: Cronbach’s alpha above 0.6 and composite reliability above 0.7. Validity was confirmed with factor loadings above 0.7 and average variance extracted (AVE) above threshold of 0.5 for all constructs. Further, Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion supported discriminant validity.

Following Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001), prior knowledge was analysed as a formative construct. Variance inflation factor (VIF) was below cut off of 5 (Chin 2010). Using repeated indicator approach, the validity of destination image and loyalty was tested as higher order constructs with results showing sufficient relationship with its dimensions. EFA (exploratory factor analysis) indicate all item loadings are above the minimum threshold (0.50) (Hair et al. 2017).

Structural model was assessed using significance of path coefficients, the level of the $R^2$ values, the $f^2$ effect size, the predictive relevance $Q^2$ and the $q^2$ effect size. All tests confirm model’s predictive relevance and stability of model estimates.

Figure 2. Results of PLS-SEM
Discussion

This study investigated the relationships between antecedents (prior knowledge, cosmopolitanism and involvement) of Islamic destination image and behavioural outcomes (satisfaction and loyalty) in a model illustrating tourist decision making. The study addresses the lack of scholarship exploring destination image, in Islamic destination from Muslim tourist only, by investigating the interplay between prior knowledge, cosmopolitanism, involvement, satisfaction and loyalty. The findings are consistent with previous studies (Taheri et al., 2014; Beerli and Martin 2004; Battour, Ismail, et al. 2014; Gursoy and Gavcar 2003; Prayag and Ryan 2012; Lu et al. 2015).

Methodologically speaking, current study empirically supports recent literature (example Taheri et al. 2014), where prior knowledge is treated as a formative index and destination image as higher-order construct. The study also contributes to existing literature supporting cosmopolitanism as a viable motivational trait, yet cosmopolitan Muslim tourists seek destinations with similar cultural values in terms of religion. Results show both prior knowledge and cosmopolitanism, has a positive and significant impact on destination image.

Existing literature provide empirical evidence of a positive relationship between tourist involvement levels and destination experiences (Prayag and Ryan 2012; Gross and Brown 2006). Current study supports the relationships are true in the context of Islamic destinations for Muslim tourists, where high levels of involvement have a positive relationship with destination image and tourist satisfaction. Further, this study identifies prior knowledge and cosmopolitanism contributing to level of involvement of tourists in Islamic destinations. There is a positive relationship between destination image and satisfaction, and satisfaction and loyalty. Finally, the study also provides empirical support for destination image and loyalty as higher order constructs.

The current study shows empirical support that Muslim tourists may have a strong preference to visit Islamic destinations. In considering the generalizability of these results, despite an estimated 1.6 billion Muslims around the world, one must consider the commonalities and differences within the Muslim market segment (Alserhan and Alserhan 2012). However, Islam encourages travel as an opportunity to achieve spiritual, physical and social goals (Eid 2015; Zamani-Farahani and Henderson 2010) and destination managers in Islamic countries should expedite on this. If tourists feel welcome and involved, they are more likely to revisit and recommend the destination to others. Managers and tour operators can gain this by offering training frontline staff to be aware of the cultural idiosyncrasies of tourists, and respond accordingly.

The study can be improved with in-depth qualitative inquiry of the expectations and concerns of Muslim tourists when visiting Maldives. Future research can make inquiries from managers and employees in tourist resorts in the Maldives, to add fresh knowledge from a different perspective, which is service providers. Despite Maldives being a Muslim country, such an inquiry can identify the challenges that exist in serving Muslim tourists in a destination targeting predominantly non-Muslim tourists.

References


CONCEPTUALIZING AND TESTING THE ROLE OF RESIDENTS' APATHY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON SERVICE QUALITY AND TOURISTS’ BEHAVIORS

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Abstract
Apathy has been considered as barrier in community integration and participation. It seems essential to understanding what effectively drive residents to be apathetic toward tourism phenomenon in their area so that a deeper knowledge about how to reduce/eliminate it can be achieved. This study intends to propose a conceptual model that analyses how residents’ apathy in two different tourist destinations (Portugal and Iran), as perceived by tourists, influence perceived service quality and visitors behavioral intentions (i.e. intention to recommend). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is run to reveal the underlying factors in the data and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for further confirming the structure of the factors. Then Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to test and validate the model. Further, a multi-group analysis was adopted to identifying the differences between Portugal and Iran. From a theoretical point of view, the paper proposes a conceptual model and tests it by SEM to be used to analysing, adopting a demand-side perspective, how residents’ apathy affect the host-guest interaction and, specifically, the perceived quality and behavioral intentions of visitors. Managerial implications are discussed as well as the main limitations, then suggestions for further research are given.

Key words: Resident’s apathy, host-guest interaction, perceived quality, intention to recommend.

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; Del Chiappa, Atzeni & Ghasemi, 2016). Further, it is also a necessary condition to obtain residents’ support for tourism development (Ap, 1992), higher sense of belonging to the place (Del Chiappa & Atzeni, 2015), and to reach community empowerment, high level of individual participation (Mitchell & Reid, 2001) and brand ambassadorship behavior (e.g. Simpson & Siguaw, 2008).

That said, it could be argued that in order to achieve 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 constraints and barriers should exist preventing residents to exert an active role in tourism development.

According to 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 development 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. More specifically, apathy can be considered as a multidimensional construct with roots mainly in psychology (e.g. Esposito et al, 2014), socio-politics (e.g. Rosener, 1982), and environmental-based literature (e.g. Heath & Gifford, 2006).

Quite surprisingly, research aimed at analyzing 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 happens, for example, when the concept of “residents’ apathy” is considered. Based on an extensive literature review from different disciplines, this study attempts to use the concept of residents’ apathy toward tourism phenomenon and its dimensions, Furthermore it aims at investigating the effects that this apathy exert on perceived service quality, brand ambassadorship behavior, behavioral intentions and residents’ support. To achieve this aim the research site chosen for the purposes of the study are Lisbon, a sparkling and popular tourism destination in Portugal and Isfahan, one of the beautiful and famous destination in Iran. The reasons for including these two research setting in the empirical study are twofold. First, applying and testing the proposed conceptual model in two different realities helps to enhance its inclusiveness. Second, given that current literature uses to argue that residents’ perception and attitude to tourism change alongside the different stage of the destination life cycle, it is interesting to carry out research in a cross-cultural context by applying the same survey instrument in two tourism destinations that are in different stage of their life cycle development. To better understand and investigate these potential differences, this research also aimed to apply a multi-group analysis for structural equation modelling.

More specifically, for the purposes of this study, it is assumed that residents can be considered as “frontline employees” able to significantly shape tourists perceived quality and their WOM and eWOM behavior. Then, it is hypothesized that higher degree of residents’ apathy, as perceived by visitors, cause lower perceived service quality, lower perceived residents’ support, and less significant WOM and eWOM behavior.

**Literature review**

Apathy has been approached in some disciplines; among these psychology, socio-politics and environment appear to be those in where the concept has been conceptualized and considered the most.

In psychology apathy has been defined as lack of motivation affecting cognitive, emotional, and behavioral domains and it has been usually assessed by standardized scales, such as the Apathy Evaluation Scale (AES)
Apathy is usually analysed referring to two main variables in psychology: namely lack of interest, lack of initiative. Lack of interest refers to diminished goal-directed cognition, lack of initiative to diminished goal-directed behavior (Marin, 1990; Landes et al., 2001).

In socio-politics, political apathy has a long history and it has been defined and employed in number of ways. Di Palma (1970) considered apathy as a type of behavior indicating the lack of participation and lack of action in political affairs. Likewise, Bennett (1986) explained an individual’s interest or apathy through his/her potential for political activity and psychologically engagement.

In environmental-based literature, Rankin (1969) gives an overview to environmental apathy: “Apathy has investigated to show the level of public awareness and concern, with some attention to the perception of causes and effects toward environmental issues” (p. 566). In the similar way, environmental apathy reflects a lack of interest in environmental issues and the belief that environmental issues have been exaggerated (Thompson, & Barton, 1994). This means that apathy is considered important because of its effect on attitude.

According with existing studies (e.g. Fornell, 1996) perceived service quality is one of the most important determinant of overall customer satisfaction (p. 9) and recognize the relevant role that front-line employees exert on guests service quality assessment (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996) and guests experience (e.g Baker et al., 2002). Both attitudinal and emotional responses of service employees can either positively or negatively impact customers’ perception of service quality (Bitner, 1990). According to this literature, this study frame that apathy is affecting the quality of the host-guest interactions thus affecting the guests experience and the guests behavioral intention (WOM and eWOM).

**Conceptual model**

The whole conceptual model that we aim at testing consider the influence that residents’ apathy, as perceived by tourists, exert on perceived service quality and visitors behavioral intentions (offline and online word-of-mouth), and on the way visitors perceive the extent to which residents support tourism development in their community (Figure 1).
Figure 1. The proposed conceptual model

H1: Residents’ apathy explains lack of interest.
H2: Residents’ apathy explains lack of initiative.
H3: Residents’ apathy explains alienation.
H4: Residents’ apathy explains environmental-based apathy.
H5: Residents’ apathy influences negatively service quality in tourism.
H6: Residents’ apathy influences negatively residents’ support perceived by tourists.
H7: Residents’ apathy perceived by tourists influences positively tourists’ offline WOM.
H8: Residents’ apathy perceived by tourists influences positively tourists’ online WOM.
H9: Service quality influences positively tourists’ behavioral intention.
H10: Tourists’ behavioral intention influences their offline WOM.
H11: Tourists’ behavioral intention influences their online WOM.

Methodology

For the purposes of this study a survey instrument has been developed based on existing literature devoted to analyze the concept of residents apathy and support to tourism and by adapting the one used to measure perceived service quality, behavioral intentions. Specifically, it includes four sections. The first section asks respondents to assess their level of agreement with a list of 37 items specifically selected and adapted to measure residents’ level of apathy and support to tourism development as perceived by tourists. 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 visited destination (offline and online). The third section asks tourists to assess the service quality that they perceived while interacting with residents and their intention to recommend the destination (both offline and online) to others (Cronin et al, 2000). A 7-point Likert scale was used to obtain their answer (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neither disagree nor agree, and 7 = strongly agree). The forth section invites respondents to provide their general socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., gender, age, education, length of stay and the like).

Data was collected face-to-face through self-administered questionnaire from tourists aged 18 or above and visiting Lisbon (Portugal) and Isfahan (Iran). Respondents were approached onsite while at the destination. Overall, 647 complete questionnaire were obtained, of which 309 were collected in Lisbon and 338 Isfahan. For the purposes of the statistical analysis, a three stepwise model Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to test the correlations between constructs and dimensions of the proposed conceptual model. The data analysis was developed in two phases. The first phase consisted of an EFA followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using SPSS (23) and AMOS (15). This allows for the identification of latent variables concerning apathy and service quality. At the second phase, a structural model is estimated to evaluate the dimensions.
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).

Results

Structural equation modelling was applied and the relationships between the constructs of the model was analyzed using the Generalized Least Squares. The results of the model’s overall fit indices ($\chi^2 = 1507.896$, $df = 801$, $\chi^2 / df = 1.883$, $p = 0.000$, $GFI = 0.889$, $CFI = 0.679$, $TLI = 0.655$, $RMSEA = 0.037$) resulted to be coherent with what is suggested by the existing literature (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. The estimated model and the values of standardized structural coefficients are shown in Figure 2 and Table 1. As can be seen all of hypotheses were supported by the data.

![Figure 2. Structural Equation Modelling](image)

| Service quality | Apathy | -0.811*** |
| Behavioral Intention | Service quality | 0.587*** |
| Lack of interest | Apathy | -0.853*** |
| Lack of initiative | Apathy | 0.508*** |
| Alienation | Apathy | 0.179** |
| Environmental | Apathy | -0.406*** |
| Resident perceived Support | Apathy | -0.737*** |
| Offline WOM | Behavioral Intention | 0.496*** |
| Online WOM | Behavioral Intention | -0.2*** |
| Off WOM | Apathy | -0.26*** |
| Online WOM | Apathy | -0.403*** |

Notes: *** p-value < 0.01; ** p-value < 0.05;

Table 1. SEM results
Finally, variables correlations were tested for invariance among two different groups of residents. Multi-group analysis, as displayed in Table 2, highlights how residents’ apathy in Iran and Portugal differ from tourists’ perspective. Table 2 includes just those paths that were proved to be different within the countries.

According to analysis, apathy in Lisbon residents influence negatively service quality perceived by tourists (-0.800, p=0.00), this is especially true for tourists looking for authentic experiences where interaction with locals are welcome (Correia, Kozak & Ferradeira, 2011), but for residents in Iran to less extent (-0.764, p=0.000). Furthermore, results suggest that alienation is more evident in Iran than in Portugal (Portugal=0.283 p=0.000, Iran=0.622, p=0.000), reflecting the close and controlled situation Iran is still living, whereas environmental apathy are more evident in Portugal (0.354, p=0.000) than in Iran (0.158, p=0.147). It is probably because tourism is more developed and contributing to the economic recover of the country, which could be explained a relative relax on environmental issues. However, results show that even resident in Lisbon are not contributing to tourism development, they are promoting the destination by their online word of mouth. It could be argued that Portuguese are aware of the significant value of tourism development to their country, even if they show apathetic attitude. Tourists visiting Portugal are more likely to share comments, recommend and return than Iran’s tourists (Portugal= -0.304, p=0.000; Iran: -0.079, p=0.465). Furthermore, residents’ perceived apathy are negatively influence online shares of tourists, not being significant in tourists visiting Iran. Further considering the differences within both countries in what concerns the formation of latent constructs, it could be suggested that tourists are perceiving their interaction with Iran population more favourable, being this population keener to support tourism development, whereas residents in Portugal are keener to share and posts comments in social networks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PORTUGAL Estimate</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>IRAN Estimate</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>z-score</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Service quality</td>
<td>&lt;--- Apathy</td>
<td>-0.800</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.764</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alienation</td>
<td>&lt;--- Apathy</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>&lt;--- Apathy</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online WOM</td>
<td>&lt;--- Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>-0.304</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>-0.079</td>
<td>0.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online WOM</td>
<td>&lt;--- Apathy</td>
<td>-0.198</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>-0.218</td>
<td>0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In social situations, I speak favourably about this place as a tourism destination.</td>
<td>&lt;--- Off WOM</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.644</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have provided online reviews about this place as a tourism destination on my social networking sites.</td>
<td>&lt;--- Online WOM</td>
<td>0.398</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.067</td>
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</table>
Generally, the residents listen to me and speak in a language that I can understand. Residents are always willing to help tourists. I think residents are always ready to learn new things and increase their knowledge about tourists. I find, for residents, it is hard to get too concerned about tourism environmental issues. I would recommend this destination to other people through my social network account.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Service quality</th>
<th>Lack of interest</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
<th>Behavioral Intention</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.739 0.000 0.644 0.000</td>
<td>0.440 0.000 0.652 0.000</td>
<td>0.463 0.000 0.679 0.000</td>
<td>0.420 0.000 0.588 0.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service quality</td>
<td>0.630 0.000 0.754 0.000</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.652 0.000 0.679 0.000</td>
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<td>0.440 0.000 0.652 0.000</td>
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<td>0.463 0.000 0.679 0.000</td>
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<td>2.812***</td>
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Notes: *** p-value < 0.01; ** p-value < 0.05; * p-value < 0.10

Table 2. Multi group analysis

Conclusion

Based on psychology, socio-politics and environmental-related literature, this study contributed to deepening the academic knowledge about the main dimensions shaping residents apathy. Specifically, the study identified four dimensions, namely: lack of interest, lack of initiative, alienation and environmental-based apathy. Further, our study contributes to the current body of knowledge highlighting how the residents’ apathy (as perceived by tourists) is able to shape visitors perceived service quality, residents’ support to tourism (as perceived by visitors), visitors intentions to recommend the destination (both offline and online). Specifically, our findings confirm the significant role that the residents’ attitudes toward tourism and guests has in shaping the visitors’ perceived quality and future behavioral intentions: apathy directly and negatively influences perceived service quality and intention to recommend the destination (offline and online), thus underlining the need to run internal marketing operations aimed at incentivizing residents to feel much more engaged and conscious of relevant role that they could exert favoring the host-guest interaction thus contributing significantly to shape a fulfilling and memorable tourist experience. Further, policy makers and destination marketers may be able to more effectively and efficiently target
appropriate policies to eliminate residents’ apathy and to elicit positive destination-related WOM. To achieve this goal, tourism officials should also consider the opportunity to focus considerable efforts on the local market to encourage that WOM behaviour.

Further research and limitations

In spite of the theoretical and managerial contributions, this study does have its limitations. First, it is highly site-specific and based on a convenience sample. It would be useful to repeat the study in other countries and destinations in order to cross validate the findings.

References


SESSION 8

LOCAL COMMUNITIES AND STAKEHOLDERS
**Hotel Management based on Corporate Philosophy: The Case of Ryokan Japanese Traditional Inn.**

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**Introduction**

In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of foreign tourists visiting Japan (Japan Tourism Agency, 2017). The government intends to promote its tourism industry considering the Tokyo Olympics to be held in the year 2020. Researchers have frequently examined the features of the Japanese tourism services of *Omotenashi*, which translates to the Japanese hospitality style in English, and have also analyzed the differences between the Japanese and western hospitality styles (Al-alsheikh & Sato, 2015). Belal et al (2013) emphasize that *Omotenashi* is effective in creating relationships with customers, and enhancing customer satisfaction. Although the definition of *Omotenashi* has not been defined clearly in academic studies, it could be assumed that the Japanese hospitality style is one of the most effective methods to differentiate itself in the global tourism market, not only considering Japanese tourists but also international ones.

This paper particularly references the case study of Sato & Al-alsheikh (2014). The researchers present an actual example of *Omotenashi*, by undertaking a survey at Hoshino Resorts, a Japanese hotel management company, and examining the distinctive features in the relationship between this hospitality company and its guests. The results of this survey reveal that the western style of hospitality is based on vertical relationships of “master and servant.” In contrast, the Japanese hospitality style basically consists of “equal” relationships between the hotel staff and its guests (Figure 1). The relationships are derived from Japanese traditional tea ceremony of Sen-no-rikyu (Al-alsheikh, 2014), and this feature is particularly applicable to the services of Ryokan, the Japanese traditional inn.

![Diagram of Western and Japanese Style Hospitality](image-url)
The theory in Sato & Al-alsheikh’s study (2014) states that the requests of hotel guests are an absolute standard for hotels adopting the western style of hotel management because of its vertical relationships. However, this standard is not applicable to all the hotels adopting the Japanese management style. Considering the case of Japanese traditional inns, the researchers selected one of the Japanese hotel companies, Hoshino Resorts. The corporate philosophy of the management of this hotel is the most important element for creating relationships with its guests. For example, in Hoshinoya Karuizawa, which is one of the Ryokan operated by Hoshino Resorts, there are no televisions in its guest rooms, considering that these “information devices” provide hotel guests a lot of information on a daily basis (Homepage, 2017). The staff recommended that hotel guests should overlook their daily life, and just relax in the Ryokan. In addition, this Ryokan has not installed lights unnecessarily, in order to provide calm surroundings, and to enable hotel guests to enjoy natural lighting, from the moon and stars, at night. Certainly, it seems that these hotel services are not based on guest requests and their convenience, but rather on the hotel’s corporate philosophy. According to Kotler (1999), marketing is defined as “a societal process by which individuals and groups obtain “what they need and want” through creating, offering, and exchanging products and services of value freely with others.” The Japanese style of hospitality, Omotenashi, which is adopted by Hoshino Resorts, could be regarded as one of the marketing methods focusing on the potential and latent customer requests for differentiation in the market. Although Sato & Al-alsheikh’s study suggests this feature of the Japanese hospitality style by investigating its corporate strategy, their analysis is not based on actual customer opinions. Therefore, our study attempted to collect and analyze hotel guest opinions collected from the Internet. Following the result, this paper evaluates the benefits of the Japanese style of hospitality.

Methods and materials

Our survey was based on data collected from the Internet, and examines customer opinions on the traditional Japanese inn, Hoshino Resorts, which is based on the Japanese style of hospitality. In order to exclude opinions affected by corporate advertisements, we selected the Trip Advisor website, as this website primarily relied on tourist opinions. Among several hotels managed by Hoshino Resorts, our research object was Hoshinoya Karuizawa. This hotel is located where the company was founded. Thus, the hotel would have collected a large number of guest opinions in the long-run.

We viewed the Trip Advisor website on February 2017, while seeking guest opinions for Hoshinoya Karuizawa, and collected 287 valid tourist opinions (Trip Advisor, 2017).

Research and results

Figure 2 shows the five levels of evaluation undertaken by hotel guests who visited Hoshinoya Karuizawa. Among the 287 guest opinions, the hotel received 151 “excellent” and 80 “good” evaluations from their customers, which account to approximately 80% of the total valid tourist opinions. The visitors seem to understand the staff recommendation of hotel guests to overlook their daily life in the hotel. For example, one of the guest opinions was as follows: “The hotel room had no television. I could relax on the sofa listening to the murmur of a stream.” Another guest described their stay as follows: “I could leave my daily
life, and rest in the hotel.” On the other hand, 29 visitors evaluated their stay as “bad” and “failure.” In addition, some guests who provided high evaluations not only appreciated their stay, but also indicated a recommendation to potential customers who considered staying in the hotel, by stating that:

“I stayed in Hoshinoya Karuizawa with my family. The large hotel ground had very beautiful autumn trees. The way to the room was through the garden, and though it was comfortable, the experience was a little scary in the night as there were minimum lights. However, I thought it was safe. Also, this hotel was constructed within the existing natural environment for the purpose of preserving the landscape, which has led to the presence of a number of steep staircases, and I thought it was not comfortable for senior persons to use them. The room neither had a television nor a clock. This enables me to overlook my busy daily life, and I came to understand that this was a recommendation by the hotel staff. However, my family was a little surprised by the inconveniences. You will regret the stay, if your purpose of visit is different. However, if your purpose of visit is based on your request of overlooking your daily life, then I recommend you to visit this hotel.” This answer suggests that Hoshinoya Karuizawa manages its hotels based on its corporate philosophy, rather than the requests of convenience from their hotel guests.

![Figure 2. Five Levels of Evaluation](image)

**Discussion**

The first impressions of the study reveal that Hoshino Resort’s hotel management could be regarded as a company-oriented hotel operation that excludes customer requests. However, approximately 80% of the guests understood its corporate philosophy and evaluated their stay. Considering marketing theories, it may be assumed that the hotel management does not possess a selfish attitude, and instead takes decisions on the basis of the principles of marketing. Kotler (1986; 1999) presented a process called marketing management. This process comprises (i) the confirmation of marketing objectives, (ii) the establishment of a target, (iii) the formulation of a marketing mix, and (iv) the management and improvement of marketing activities. In this process, we selected the second: the establishment of a target. In Hoshino Resort’s case, it is assumed that the hotel completely focuses on the target customers who are able to understand the hotel’s corporate philosophy. Sinek (2009) stated that companies should start their respective businesses from their corporate philosophy, and gain the sympathy of customers from their beliefs. Considering this
claim, it is expected that hotel managers should reconsider why their organization operates hotels, why their organization exists, and what would they prefer to appeal to their customers, based on the corporate philosophy of the modern marketing era.

The relationship with customers, based on philosophy, is not only an important element for the hotel management but also the tourism industry. In the recent years, tourism-oriented businesses are required to confront the problem of commoditization in the market. Commoditization refers to the situation in which companies cannot differentiate between their products and services and those of their competitors’ (Christensen, 1999). In Christensen’s theory, companies compete using four features of products and services: functionality, reliability, convenience, and price. Although consumers evaluate the former three characteristics at the beginning of their purchase decision making process, they purchase products only using a price advantage after the market matures. In addition, Moon (2005) stated that companies tend to select a similar position in a mature market, and this could be considered as one of the factors of commoditization. These studies are mainly based on the manufacturing industry, and it is likely that the tourism industry experienced the same problem.

Our survey suggested that Hoshino Resort could be an example of a company which differentiated its hotel services by emphasizing on its corporate philosophy, rather than consumer requests. Services based on customer requests can be considered as essential elements for the development of a tourism business. However, if the tourism-oriented companies focus only on these elements, they could face commoditization problems in the market, as stated by Moon (2005). If the services provided in the tourism businesses are similar, then the market would be unappealing for tourists, and the businesses and industry would eventually decline. At least, living things have remained alive owing to biodiversity (National Wildlife Federation, 2017). Considered to be one of the living things in the tourism industry, the philosophy of tourism companies should be considered in regard to their relationship with tourists.

As a research problem of this study, statistical analysis is not sufficient. Furthermore, customer opinions collected on the Internet may include a bias, such as an information gap. Our future study is expected to ensure the appropriateness of the theory of Japanese style of hospitality in statistics.

References


RESIDENTS’ SUPPORT FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN A PORTUGUESE HISTORIC TOWN: THE ROLE OF RESIDENTS’ TRUST IN GOVERNMENT ACTORS, TOURISM IMPACTS, COMMUNITY ATTACHMENT AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT OF TOURISM

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Introduction

It is extensively accepted that tourism requires that residents are involved in the planning process of and actively support the sector. That is, how residents react to tourism development is connected to residents’ support for tourism development (STD). However, studies on community support should consider trust in explaining residents’ STD. Trust is usually conceptualized as residents’ trust in government institutions involved in tourism development and it is considered to be a strong predictor of residents’ STD. In this paper, we intend to understand some antecedents of residents’ STD, and propose a conceptual model that relates, based on the residents’ perceptions, community attachment, local government management of tourism, positive and negative impacts of tourism, trust in government actors and STD. In particular, this study has two specific aims: 1) to know the residents perceptions on the concepts under consideration, determining their degree/level; and 2) to empirically test the hypotheses of the proposed conceptual model. We applied this study to a historical town (town of Lamego), in northern Portugal.

Literature review and proposed hypothesis

Residents’ support for tourism development

The availability and cooperation of the local community is central to the success and sustainability of a tourism development project, so understanding residents’ perceptions and obtaining their support is of vital importance to local government, policy makers and business (Dyer et al., 2007; Lee, 2013; Stylidis et al., 2014).

This study depicts some antecedents of residents’ STD underling the importance of residents’ trust in government actors involved in tourism planning and development in the context of historic towns. To this end, the study proposes a conceptual model (Figure 1) that explores the relationships between community
attachment, local government management of tourism, perceived tourism impacts, trust in government actors and STD. Figure 1 shows the theoretical framework of this study and the hypotheses proposed.

Figure 1. Proposed model

In what follows next, each independent variable (antecedents of STD) of the conceptual model is discussed.

Impacts of tourism, trust in government actors and residents’ support for tourism development

Many authors in the last two decades, have conducted studies that relate the perceptions of residents, the impacts of tourism and support of residents to tourism development (Nicholas et al., 2009; Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2010; Rodrigues et al., 2014; Stylidis et al., 2014; Vieira et al., 2016). These studies, based on the social exchange model, suggest that the way residents perceive the elements of exchange influence the way they react to tourism (Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003). These perceptions become apparent in the support or opposition of residents to the development of tourism (Nunkoo, 2012). The perception of the residents about the positive and negative impacts of tourism will influence tourism development support (Gursoy et al., 2010; Nunkoo, 2012; Stylidis et al., 2014) on the economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions. In this context, several studies have proposed that stronger perceptions of the benefits of tourism are more likely to lead to higher STD, whereas weaker perceptions of the benefits of tourism are more likely to lead to lower STD (Nunkoo, 2012).

Only recently the concept of trust (in government actors) has been considered in models that analyse tourism impacts and residents STD. In the context of tourism development it remains an under-researched area (Nunkoo, 2015). Both in general terms and in its application to tourism, building trust in government institutions among citizens is extremely important in view of the so-called "trust crisis" that has been present in several democracies (Nunkoo, 2012). In the present study, trust is conceptualized as the trust of residents in government actors (or the trust of citizens in institutions) associated with the development of tourism (Nunkoo and Smith, 2013) and we consider that for tourism development to be successful, there must be trust among individual citizens and trust in the government institutions responsible for tourism development initiatives.

Some studies have explored the association between trust in government actors and residents’ STD. For example, Nunkoo (2012), Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2011, 2012), and Nunkoo et al. (2012) consider that trust in government actors is likely to be an important determinant of residents’ STD. The arguments of these researchers suggest that the lack of public trust in government institutions could be an obstacle to the
sustainable and democratic development of tourism development. It is therefore vital that policy makers seek to engage communities in tourism development to ensure that residents trust in local governments involved in tourism planning and development (Nunkoo, 2012).

Method and materials

A quantitative research design was adopted. Due to financial and time constraints, it was applied a convenience sampling method. Data collection was carried out by personal survey (questionnaire) applied to residents of the small historic town of Lamego, located within the Portuguese Douro Valley World Heritage Site. Despite being one of the most ancient towns in Portugal, with a variety of historic heritage that chronicles several historic stages, the development of the tourism industry in Lamego is a recent phenomenon, boosted by the nomination by UNESCO of the Douro Valley region as World Heritage Site, in December 2001. This small historic town has a rich historic heritage and culture worth, but it is still in a touristic developmental stage, and the negative impacts of tourism go almost unnoticed by all of those involved (Vieira et al., 2016).

A structured questionnaire was developed consisting of several questions related to the resident’s perceptions regarding the concepts of the model. The questionnaire was applied in the residents’ homes and work locations. A total of 150 usable responses was obtained. Likert scales (1–5) ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ were used for all the construct items. Upon review of the literature, the following scales were chosen to measure the constructs: Lee’s (2013) scale with 11 items was used to measure the resident’s community attachment. The local government management of tourism variable was measured according to the scale proposed in the study of Assante et al. (2012a, 2012b), with three items. Chen and Chen’s (2010) scale for perceptions of the (positive and negative) impacts of tourism with 27 items was used. The authors included the economic impact (9 items), the social/cultural impact (10 items) and the environmental impact (8 items) in this scale. Trust in government actors was measured with Nunkoo’s (2012) scale with four items. The scale measures residents’ level of trust in local government actors involved in tourism planning and development. The STD scale, with four items was designed by Nunkoo et al. (2012) to assess the extent of a resident’s intention to STD.

We used the structural equation modelling methods. Firstly, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to provide a confirmatory test of the measurement theory. The quality of the measurement model was assessed through an analysis of the convergent and discriminant validity of each construct. Secondly, a structural model with the hypothesised relationships was estimated. Both measurement and structural models were estimated with the maximum likelihood method. To assess the goodness-of-fit of the estimated models, we analysed the chi-square value ($\chi^2$), the degrees of freedom (df) and the ratio $\chi^2$/df; the comparative fit index (CFI); the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The descriptive analysis was performed using SPSS – version 22 for Windows, and the structural equation models were carried out using Amos – version 22 for Windows.

Results

Respondents profile

The sample included 150 residents aged from 18 to 81 years old ($M = 38.1; SD = 14.6$), 52.7% were male and 47.3% were female. The majority were married (55.3%). The most frequent level of education was the
high school (57.3.8%), followed by university degree (33.3%). About two thirds (66.7%) were employed
and/or had monthly income between 501 Euros and 1500 Euros.

**Descriptive analysis**

The residents’ community attachment resulted in a mean value of 3.45. The respondents’ perceptions of
their community attachment are not very high. Regarding the local government management of tourism
variable, the residents’ perceptions of the local government’s ability to manage tourism efficiently resulted
in a low mean value (overall mean value=2.83). Most of the respondents believe the local government
doesn’t take their concerns about tourism into account, that the quality of the public services didn’t improve
and that the local government doesn’t do a good job at balancing both the residents’ and the tourists’ needs.

The overall mean of the positive impacts of tourism is 3.45 (3.52 for positive economic impacts of tourism;
3.396 for positive social-cultural impacts of tourism; and 3.4175 for positive environmental impacts of
tourism). The respondents recognized the economic, sociocultural and environmental benefits of tourism
and agreed with all the positive impacts of tourism’s statements. Economic impacts are most favourably
perceived by local residents - they felt that tourism is useful for promoting local products (mean value=4.07). The most valued sociocultural positive impacts of tourism are related to the increase in local
cultural identity (mean value=3.71) and an increase in the knowledge on local heritage (mean value=3.65).
Regarding the environmental benefits, the respondents felt that tourism has raised awareness on heritage
resources’ protection (mean value=3.57).

The respondents tend to disagreed with nearly all the statements regarding the negative impacts of tourism
(mean value=2.52), particularly with those related to the sociocultural impacts of tourism (increased
disagreements between visitors and residents, increased crime rates and prostitution). The results revealed
that residents tend to disagree more with the negative impacts. Locals that responded to the survey
perceived the negative impacts far less than they did the positive.

The mean (3.08±0.96) of the trust in government actor’s scale were close to the middle point of the scale,
indicating moderate levels of public trust in the sample.

The residents’ support to STD scale obtained a mean value of 3.79, indicating a moderate support for
tourism development. The highest mean value, 4.30, was for the fourth item (“I am proud that tourists are
coming in my community”). The first item had the lowest mean value (3.32) (“Tourism is the most
important industry for my community”).

**Measurement model (confirmatory factor analysis)**

The instruments’ quality was assessed using CFA through the estimation of a measurement model with the
maximum likelihood method. The Chi-square test of the resulting measurement model ($\chi^2 = 1813.13; df =
1005; p < 0.001$) was significant, but the Chi-square/df ratio ($\chi^2/df = 1.804$) was lower than the threshold
suggested by some authors (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2005). The comparative fit index (CFI = 0.918) and
the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.073) were also within the recommended values
(Marôco, 2010).

To assess convergent validity, we analysed the standardised factor loadings, the average variance extracted
(AVE) and the construct reliability (CR) (Table 1). The standardised factor loadings were all statistically
significant \((p < 0.001)\) and ranged from 0.502 to 0.919, above the cut-off point of 0.50 suggested by Hair et al (2010). In this study, the AVE ranged from 0.540 and 0.788, over the cut-off point. The CR estimates, over 0.829, suggest high construct reliability, which indicates that internal consistency exists. These results constitute evidence of the constructs’ convergent validity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community attachment</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The settings and facilities provided by this community are the best.</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I prefer living in this community over other communities.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy living in this community more than other communities.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I identify the living in this community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I feel that this community is a part of me.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Living in this community says a lot about who I am.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Living in this community means a lot to me.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I am very attached to this community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I feel a strong sense of belonging to this community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Many of my friends/family prefer this community over other communities.</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Local government management of tourism</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td>0.617</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The local government does a good job balancing residents’ and tourists’ needs</td>
<td>0.795</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The local government listens to residents about their concerns with tourism</td>
<td>0.801</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The quality of public services has improved in Lamego due to tourism</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived positive tourism impacts</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased job opportunities for your community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has created more tax revenue for the local government</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised the level of life for residents</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to local people</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to small businesses</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has encouraged residents’ participation in cultural activities</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has enriched local nightlife</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to a balanced local community development</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to more understanding of local heritage</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local cultural identity</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has made intercity transport more accessible</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased infrastructure and facilities</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised more awareness of protection for heritage resources</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local recreational facilities and resources</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived negative tourism impacts</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised local product price</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased the inequality of economic gain among residents</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased residents’ living costs</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has destroyed the level of residence quality</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased crime rates and prostitution</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has reduced local safety and security</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased conflicts between visitors and residents</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has overused the resources of local heritage</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused more traffic congestion and parking problems</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused more litter and pollution</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has destroyed the local way of life</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has caused more inconvenience for local residents</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support for tourism development</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td>0.599</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is the most important industry for my community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism help my community grow in the right directions.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism continue to play an important economic role.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud that tourists are coming in my community.</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Trust in government actors</strong> (^{(1)})</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.937</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much do you trust local elected officials to make the right decisions in tourism development?</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How much do you trust local government to do what is right in tourism development without you having constantly to check on them? 0.864
How much do you trust local government to look after the interests of the community in relation to tourism development? 0.884
How much do you trust tourism decisions made by local government? 0.889

Source: Elaborated by the author

Table 1. Standardized factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) of the measurement model.

The discriminant validity was verified by comparing the square root of the AVE values of any two constructs with the correlation estimate between these constructs (Table 2). According to Hair et al. (2010), the square root of the AVE estimates should be higher than the correlation estimate. The results show that all the constructs met this criterion, providing evidence of discriminant validity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Community attachment</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Local government management of tourism</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived positive tourism impacts</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Perceived negative tourism impacts</td>
<td>-0.089</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Support for tourism development</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>-0.295</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Trust in government actors</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>0.380</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>0.774</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagonal values indicated the square root of average variance extracted of each construct.

Source: Elaborated by the author

Table 2. Correlations between the constructs and the square root of average variance extracted.

Overall, these results showed that the measurement model had adequate psychometric requirements with convergent and discriminant validity.

Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

The structural model was estimated to test the hypothesised relationships between the latent constructs. The chi-square test of the structural model ($\chi^2 = 1836.11; df = 1011; p < 0.001$) was significant, but the chi-square/df ratio ($\chi^2/df = 1.816$) was under the threshold of three suggested by some authors (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2005). The CFI of 0.914 and RMSEA of 0.074 were also within the recommended values (Marôco, 2010). Given the sample size and the number of items, the model fit indices indicate an adequate goodness-of-fit (Hair et al., 2010). The structural model supported seven out of the nine proposed hypotheses (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Standardized (β)</th>
<th>Non-Standardized (B)</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Critical Ratio</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Support the hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a. Community Attachment -&gt; Perceived positive tourism impacts</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.133</td>
<td>2.664</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b. Community Attachment -&gt; Trust in government actors</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>3.368</td>
<td>&lt; 0.001</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H1c. Community Attachment -> Perceived negative tourism impacts
-0.155 -0.159 0.103 -1.552 0.121 N

H2a. Local government management of tourism -> Perceived positive tourism impacts
0.479 0.394 0.088 4.458 < 0.001 Y

H2b. Local government management of tourism -> Trust in government actors
0.536 0.557 0.091 6.127 < 0.001 Y

H2c. Local government management of tourism -> Perceived negative tourism impacts
0.164 0.094 0.060 1.565 0.117 N

H3. Perceived positive tourism impacts -> Support for tourism development
0.431 0.509 0.110 4.626 < 0.001 Y

H4. Trust in government actors -> Support for tourism development
0.268 0.250 0.075 3.325 < 0.001 Y

H5. Perceived negative tourism impacts -> Support for tourism development
-0.328 -0.551 0.149 -3.706 < 0.001 Y

Table 3. Estimates of the Structural model

Conclusions

Results suggest that residents’ trust in government actors had a significant effect on the STD. As expected, residents’ perceptions of the tourism benefits positively influenced their STD, and residents’ perceptions of the tourism costs negatively affected their STD. The results offered support for the relationship between community attachment and trust in government actors. Also, community attachment significantly and positively influenced tourism benefits. Perceived effective local government management of tourism had a strong significant effect on the residents’ trust in government actors. Moreover, residents’ perceived effective local government management of tourism was a significant determinant of perceived tourism benefits, but did not significantly predict perceived tourism costs.

Some important policy and planning implications can be derived from the empirical findings of this study. The following practical recommendations can be made that allow to support good governance practices and succeed in tourism development initiatives. Consistent with the results of Nunkoo (2012), Nunkoo et al. (2012), and Nunkoo (2015), the findings of this study highlight the importance for tourism institutions to gain public trust. Trust in government actors contributes to residents’ willingness to STD. Given this result, it is important to understand how the institutions involved in the development of tourism can enhance the residents’ trust levels. The results of our study indicate that this can be done through efficient local government management of tourism, through the perception of the positive impacts of tourism and by increasing the community attachment. With regard to this last aspect, it should be noted, in the light of the few investigations on the subject, that residents’ trust in government actors can be increased by providing them opportunities to develop social participation and integration into community life that can help community members to interact. So it is important for tourism institutions to develop policies and initiatives that help in increasing emotional ties among community members as this is likely to promote their trust in government actors. Community attachment directly influences perceived positive tourism impacts. That is, increased levels of community attachment will cause increases in the perceived benefits and, indirectly, STD among residents. Therefore, tourism planners should develop special programs to foster community attachment among residents. The findings suggest that STD is influenced by residents’ perceived benefits of tourism and perceived costs of tourism. If residents derive benefits from tourism, they are likely to STD and if they perceive tourism as resulting in costs, this causes will not STD. Thus, more benefits for local
communities should be assured by local government institutions. In addition, there should be, on the part of the local institutions, an effort to minimize the negative effects of tourism.

Despite its contributions, the study and its findings are not free from limitations. Due to time and cost restraints, the study sample was selected by the convenient sampling technique. In total, 150 usable questionnaires were collected. That represents a limitation of this study as this may limit the extent to which the results can be generalized to the wider population and, to confirm our results, future research ought to examine the model with a larger sample size. Also, it would be desirable that further studies examine other stakeholders, not only residents, since a deeper knowledge could be gained from their opinions and perceptions. Moreover, other geographical regions and towns could be studied.

References


STAKEHOLDER’S ROLE IN PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF A PORTUGUESE SMALL HISTORIC TOWN

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Introduction

The several processes for recovering, preserving and marketing tangible and intangible heritage within tourism development of historic towns have led to new planning approaches and strategies, which involve applying sustainable management models (van der Borg, Costa & Gotti, 1996). Sustainability and sustainable development is an important topic and is increasingly a pressing need (Du Cros, 2001). The transposition of the sustainable development concept into tourism studies resulted in the use of terms such as sustainable tourism and sustainable tourism development (STD) in the late 80s.

One of the key factors for the success of STD is the support of stakeholders (Gunn, 1994). When tourism arises and/or is developed in a certain place, all interested parties will inevitably feel its impact (economic, social and environmental) in a positive and/or negative way, which shall affect its development on a short, medium and long-term (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). The answer to these problems is related with STD and is a result of the active and responsible participation of stakeholders (World Tourism Organisation [WTO], 2004). A strategy based on the approach of the stakeholders may contribute towards tourism development plans that enjoy greater possibilities and sustainability, since they directly involve the main interested parties in the tourism development of historic towns (McKercher & du Cros, 2002).

The problem to be investigated in this study relates to the understanding of stakeholder opinions about the STD in a historic town setting. The main purpose is to examine the opinions/views of different stakeholders groups about (sustainable) tourism development and to understand their role in the STD process. Three stakeholder groups were chosen - visitors, residents, and local agents (heritage managers, tour operators and local authorities) – and specifically the following objectives were established for each group. In the case of the study of the visitors of the town of Lamego, we intent to know the opinion of visitors on different aspects of historic heritage products and their evaluation regarding tourism, heritage, management and experience. In the case of the residents study, the specific objective of this study is to know the views of residents on their support for STD and some factors that can influence this support (community attachment, community involvement, government management of tourism and perceived impacts of tourism - benefits
and costs). Finally, with regard to the study of the local agents group, we intent to know their opinions regarding the STD concept and try to understand their interest and their future prospects for STD. This study analysis a small historic town in northern Portugal (Lamego town) located within the Douro World Heritage Site.

Methods & materials

As already mentioned, this work falls within the context of small historical towns in a perspective of stakeholder analysis and their views on STD. The object of study is the tourist-heritage destination of Lamego, situated in the north of Portugal, namely in the Douro Valley region (classified by UNESCO as World Heritage). This choice is related to the patrimonial value that this town holds, and its resources can represent an opportunity for the tourist growth of this small historical town.

A mixed methodological (quantitative and qualitative) approach was used in order to analyse the perceptions and opinions of five stakeholders groups (tourists, residents, heritage managers, tour operator, and local authorities) regarding STD in the historic town of Lamego.

The opinions of visitors and residents were analysed using a quantitative methodology. The sample was selected by convenience sampling methods. The selection of the sampling method used is justified by the temporal and financial constraints for this study, as well as the specific characteristics of the populations under analysis (visitors and local community) and the difficulty of knowing, in the case of visitors, the population dimension. In the two studies, the most suitable methodological technique for collecting data was the questionnaire survey, which was implemented in a personal way, with the participation of students (five for the visitors survey and 20 for the inquiry of residents), of the Lamego Higher School of Technology, of the Course of Tourism, Cultural and Heritage Management, which were trained to fulfil the objectives and procedures of the research.

In the questionnaire addressed to visitors, respondents were asked to answer a set of questions that, in addition to sociodemographic data, collected information about the visitor's profile about the product consumed, the evaluation of the heritage, the management and tourist experience and the type of trip. The preparation of the questionnaire and the choice of these variables of analysis were preceded by the consultation of other questionnaires carried out in the same context, which served as support for the elaboration of some questions, always trying to adapt them to the specific case to be analysed. In Lamego’s visitors study, 320 completed questionnaires were collected.

The survey of Lamego’s local community intended to analyse resident’s perceptions about their support for STD. Thus, this was a critical variable in this study. However, it was important to understand what variables could influence this support. Therefore, the study included variables that may have some predictive capacity when investigating the residents support for (sustainable) tourism development (community attachment, community involvement, government management of tourism, benefits and costs of tourism). The questionnaire included scales that were used previously in tourism impact and STD studies were adopted to measure the variables proposed in the residents study: community attachment (11 items; Lee, 2013), community involvement (five items; Lee, 2013), perceived benefits and costs of tourism (15 and 12 items; Chen & Chen, 2010), government management of tourism (three items; Assante et al., 2012), and support for STD (six items; Lee, 2013). Key background information from the respondents was also included. A total of 300 completed questionnaires were collected.
In order to analyse the collected data from visitors and residents studies we used the SPSS version 22 for Windows. The data were treated through the use of simple and univariate statistical procedures, such as the frequency distribution tables (absolute and relative) and the calculation of means and standard deviations. In order to verify the existence of dependency relations, bivariate analysis was used. On the visitor survey for the identification of the segments an exploratory technique of multivariate analysis was used - the two-step cluster analysis.

We present below a summary of the main aspects of the two studies carried out for visitors and residents (Table 1).

**Table 1: Summary table of the main aspects of the two studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario of interest</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Residents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism sector</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universe / Population</td>
<td>Visitors to the historic town of Lamego</td>
<td>Residents to the historic town of Lamego</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical scope</td>
<td>Regional (northern region)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling method</td>
<td>Non-probabilistic sampling method (convenience sample)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection method</td>
<td>Questionnaire survey (personal interview)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
<td>Valid answers 320</td>
<td>Valid answers 300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techniques of data analysis</td>
<td>uni-, bi- and multivariate statistical procedures (cluster analysis)</td>
<td>Univariate and bivariate statistical procedures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Self elaboration

In the study of the remaining stakeholder group (local agents) a qualitative research method (individual interviews) was used for data collection. Elements considered "key" were interviewed, ie, in-depth personal interviews were conducted with different stakeholders, characterized as key informants in organizations. Three local agents, with a different profile, were considered: the heritage managers, which included the members who perform the management function of the Lamego heritage (four heritage managers); the tour operators, which in this case was restricted to the only one in the town of Lamego; and local government representatives (three), covering the various competencies attributable to local authorities. The identification of these local agents was made taking into account the intention of being able to represent the essential about the (sustainable) tourism development of the historical town of Lamego, aiming to capture their perceptions and opinions regarding the context in which they are inserted.

We use a semi-structured interview guide as to analyse theirs perceptions and opinions about STD. Interview questions were developed based on key themes and were divided into three main dimensions (categories): 1) Tourism planning; 2) STD; and 3) Accessibility and means of interpretation. We carried out a qualitative analysis of the interviews considering the previously established categories/dimensions, which enabled homogeneity and a guideline for the answers of the groups of stakeholders under analysis. The categories under analysis were chosen from the literature review related to STD and management approach based on stakeholder theory. These dimensions / categories are a focus of research, linking to the conceptual approach adopted, as well as to the issues arising from the problem to be studied and the reality under investigation. The dimensions (and their indicators) were based on previous studies related to the perceptions and attitudes of the stakeholders in the STD process and in the tourist planning of historical cities (Garrod et al., 2012).
THE DIFFERENT VIEWS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS

Main results from the study carried out with visitors

Knowledge about the characterization of tourism demand is critical to match supply to demand, in a sustainable development vision and is useful for the various stakeholders in this tourist-heritage destination. The result from the study carried out with visitors has provided better knowledge regarding the latter on many levels. Taking into account the methodological approach developed in the scope of this empirical study, we intend, at this point, to carry out an analysis of the answers to know the profile of the visitor of the town of Lamego in terms of the product consumed and the evaluation that it makes of the heritage, the management and the tourist experience, as well as socio-demographic characterization and the type of trip. The results are presented below.

- Social and demographic profile/type of trip: We have observed that visitors are between the ages of 25 and 65, 71.1% are Portuguese, mostly from the two major Portuguese towns, and have arrived in Lamego driving their own vehicle. The remaining visitors (28.9%) are from 15 nationalities, out of which most are French, English, Spanish, German and Brazilian, and have reached the north by air and then made their way to town by rented car or bus. Whatever their nationality, most visitors have completed a higher education and work in intellectual and scientific businesses with an income over 1500 Euros.

- Consumed product (Table 2): Most of respondents had already visited the town before, their main source of information has been a recommendation from friends/family, their main motivation is the visit to Douro World Heritage Site; they chose Lamego because the preservation of heritage elements prevails for them. Unlike what you would expect, not many found religion/pilgrimage to be important. They decided to visit the town before leaving their place of residence.

Table 2: Main motivations and information sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Familiarity with destiny</th>
<th>Had already visited the town (Repeat visit) (54.7%); First visit (45.3%).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information source used in planning the visit</th>
<th>Recommendation from friends and family (36.1%); Previous visit (13.8%); Internet (12.2%); Guides and Tourist Scripts (11.6%); Tour Operator / Tourist office / Hotel (10%); Radio / TV / Press (2.2%); Other sources (7.5%); No source (6.6%).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons to visit the Douro region</th>
<th>To know the Douro Heritage of Humanity (29.1%); Other reasons: Holidays, family visits, Tour (21.7%); Cultural Tourism (20.0%); Take a cruise in the Douro / circuits (15.9%).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision-making visit occasion</th>
<th>Before leaving the country / residence (69.1%); (69.1%); When he was in the Douro region (25.9%).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Source: Self elaboration

- Heritage, management and tourist experience assessment (Table 3): This assessment has overall good results, since most of respondents were satisfied with the visited monuments and believe that their visit to the town has contributed to their trip to the Douro region; they want to return and will recommend this visit; their assessment of the town highlighted the gastronomy and recovery of architectural heritage; in terms of the duration of their stay, most visitors (62.1%) wanted to stay for six hours, 15.9% wanted to stay for a day, and 22% wanted to stay for longer than a day.

Table 3: Evaluation of the tourist experience (main factors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction with the visit to the monument</th>
<th>Santuário (90.5%), Sé (89.6%), Castelo (66%) e Museu (53%).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
- Type of visit: Regarding the assessment of different factors related with this visit, we can assume that gastronomy, hospitality and safety were those with the highest averages; on the other hand, the lowest averages concerned the preservation of accommodations, entertainment and promotion/broadcast. When questioned about the town's hosting and information, visitors mostly valued the existence of means for people with reduced mobility, signs on attractions and information panels.

In order to identify the groups of visitors arriving in Lamego, we have used a multivariate data analysis, particularly the two-step cluster analysis. The variables used for defining groups were the duration of their stay (up to three hours; 4-8 hours; overnight) and their country of residence (Portugal; Abroad). Considering the variables used, it was possible to identify three groups with different dimensions: 1) Portuguese visitors staying for 4-8 hours – 44.2% (138); 2) Tourists – 21.8% (68); and 3) Foreign visitors staying up to three hours – 34% (106).

After a group analysis, we have carried out an assessment on the important variables for classifying each group in order to check whether there are statistically significant differences between the three identified segments (Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUP 1</th>
<th>GROUP 2</th>
<th>GROUP 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Day Tripper That remain 4-8 hours</td>
<td>Tourists</td>
<td>Foreigners Day Tripper Which remain until 3 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n =138</td>
<td>n=68</td>
<td>n=106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age groups</td>
<td>The intracluster distribution is similar to the level of the age groups “25-44” e “45-64”</td>
<td>There is a greater tendency to belong to the age group “45-64”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>País de residência</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>United Kingdom Germany Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income ranges</td>
<td>Higher trend to earn income less than 1500 euros</td>
<td>The intra-cluster distance is very similar for the income groups “&lt; 1500 euros” and “1501-3000 euros”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity with destiny</td>
<td>Greater tendency to know the destination</td>
<td>The intra clusters distance is very similar, although there is a greater tendency to know the destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Sources</td>
<td>Greater tendency to use “other sources”</td>
<td>Greater tendency to use “recommendation from family and friends”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons to Visit</td>
<td>Greater tendency to choose “other reasons: Holidays, visiting family and tour”</td>
<td>Greater tendency to choose the reason ”to visit the Douro world heritage”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Self elaboration
Who travel with | Greater tendency to travel alone | Greater tendency to travel with “Companion” and “family” | Greater tendency to travel with “relatives”
---|---|---|
Means of transport used to get to the region | Greater tendency to use “car (own)” | Greater tendency to use “airplane” | Greater tendency to use “airplane”
Intention to return | Higher tendency to return | Higher tendency to return | Greater tendency to hesitate (maybe return)
Visit recommendation | Greater tendency to recommend the destination | Greater tendency to recommend the destination | Greater tendency to hesitate on recommendation

Source: Self elaboration

We will now analyse each segment in brief:

1) Portuguese visitors staying for 4-8 hours: People in this group belong to the age groups of 25-44 and 45-64; they live in Portugal (in Oporto/northern Portugal); they earn less than 1500 Euros; most had already visited this town before; their source of information for planning this visit was ‘other sources (curiosity, roots)’; the main reasons for their visit are related with ‘other reasons: holidays, trips, visiting family’; they tend to travel alone; their means of transportation is their own vehicle; they want to return and they recommend visiting this town;

2) Tourists: This group is made up of residents in Portugal (mostly in the North) and abroad (United Kingdom; Germany); they are aged between 25 and 44; they had already been in this town twice or three times before; they earn less than 1500 Euros; they used ‘recommendation from family and friends’ as their main source of information for planning this visit; their main reason for visiting is ‘to visit the Douro World Heritage Site’; they tend to travel with a partner; they tend to arrive by aeroplane; they want to return; and they recommend visiting this town;

3) Foreign visitors staying up to three hours: This group belongs to the age group between 45 and 64; most live in France and Spain; they earn more than 3000 Euros; most had never been in Lamego before; their main sources of information for planning this visit were ‘tour itineraries’; their main reason for visiting was ‘cultural tourism’; they tend to travel with family; they usually arrive in the northern area by aeroplane; they hesitate about recommending this visit and wanting to return.

**Main results from the study carried out with residents**

Residents are the second stakeholders group analysed. In this study, we seek to analyse residents’ perceptions about some factors that can influence their support for STD. The results are presented below.

The main characteristics of the residents sample are as follows: most of respondents (51.9%) are female; their age average is 38; 35.6% have completed high school and 26.0% have completed compulsory education; most (68.6%) have lived in Lamego for over 20 years, and, finally, 67.6% earn less than 1500 Euros per month. Table 5 shows the variables’ descriptive analysis.

**Table 5: Descriptive analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community attachment(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I prefer living in this community over other communities</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>1.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy living in this community more than other communities</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I identify the living in this community</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I feel that this community is a part of me 4.58 1.754
Living in this community says a lot about who I am 4.28 1.798
Living in this community means a lot to me 4.5 1.758
I am very attached to this community 4.63 1.741
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this community 4.53 1.763
Many of my friends/family prefer this community over other communities 4.57 1.701
The settings and facilities provided by this community are the best 3.94 1.209
My friends/family would be disappointed if I were to live in another community 4.02 1.881

**Community involvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I support research for the sustainability of this community</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>2.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I participate in sustainable tourism-related activities</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am involved in the planning and management of sustainable tourism in this community</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am involved in the decision-making for the sustainable tourism of this community</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>1.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I encourage the residents of this community to invest in the development of sustainable tourism</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.915</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perceive benefits of tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefit</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased job opportunities for your community</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>1.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has created more tax revenue for the local government</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.426</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised the level of life for residents</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>1.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has encouraged residents’ participation in cultural activities</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>1.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has enriched local nightlife</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to a balanced local community development</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to more understanding of local heritage</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local cultural identity</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>1.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has made intercity transport more accessible</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised more awareness of protection for heritage resources</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local recreational facilities and resources</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased infrastructure and facilities</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to local people</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to small businesses</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is useful for promoting local products</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>1.439</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tourism has raised local product price 3.86 1.562
Tourism has caused more traffic congestion and parking problems 3.56 1.985
Tourism has increased residents’ living costs 3.38 1.468
Tourism has increased the inequality of economic gain among residents 3.28 1.399
Tourism has caused more litter and pollution 3.27 1.895
Tourism has overused the resources of local heritage 3.09 1.604
Tourism has caused more inconvenience for local residents 2.80 1.624
Tourism has destroyed the level of residence quality 2.77 1.395
Tourism has destroyed the local way of life 2.66 1.565
Tourism has reduced local safety and security 2.32 1.379
Tourism has increased conflicts between visitors and residents 2.29 1.397
Tourism has increased crime rates and prostitution 2.25 1.414

Local Government Management of Tourism (1)
The local government does a good job balancing residents’ and tourists’ needs 3.32 1.694
The local government listens to residents about their concerns with tourism 2.98 1.664
The quality of public services has improved in Lamego due to tourism 3.26 1.669

Support for Sustainable Tourism Development (1)
I participate in sustainable tourism-related plans and development 2.85 1.6
I participate in cultural exchanges between local residents and visitors 2.65 1.57
I cooperate with tourism planning and development initiatives 2.94 1.73
I participate in the promotion of environmental education and conservation 3.1 1.742
I support the development of community-based sustainable tourism initiatives 4.37 1.816
I obey regulatory environmental standards to reduce the negative effects of tourism 4.81 1.725

(1) Measured on a 7-point scale from 1 = “Strongly disagree” to 7 = “Strongly agree”;

With regard to community attachment, with the exception of the item related to "Infrastructures and resources", all the others had a positive evaluation, presenting higher values than the midpoint of the scale (4). Thus, we found that the residents were in agreement with the affirmations that evaluate this concept, which leads us to conclude that there is a moderate degree of community attachment.

Of the five items proposed in the scale of community involvement, in two (“I support research for the sustainability of this community” and “I encourage the residents of this community to invest in the development of sustainable tourism”), the respondents showed not to have a clear position (since the answers are close to the midpoint of the scale - "I do not agree or disagree"). In the remaining items, which are very important from the point of view of STD (involvement in decision making, involvement in the planning and management of sustainable tourism and participation in sustainable tourism activities), the answers present low average values. Thus, the results seem to indicate that, in general, the involvement of the community in the management of the destination in question is weak.

In regard to residents' perception about local government management of tourism, the respondents considered that the municipality tends not to listen to residents about their concerns about the tourist
activity. The average values for the item "The local government does a good job balancing residents' and tourists' needs" leads us to conclude that the relation of the local authorities with its residents, with respect to their needs, is not positive. The same can be said for the second item, in which there is perceived the existence of some disagreement of the respondents to the statement "The quality of public services has improved in Lamego due to tourism".

In the case of the perceived benefits of tourism, the residents who answered the questionnaire have a good image about the added value that tourist development may entail. Of the 15 items that measure this concept, only two obtained averages below the value 4 (average position of the scale), related to the enrichment of the local nightlife and the impact on the accessibility of intermunicipal transportation. Concerning perceived costs of tourism, the manifested disagreement for all factors leads us to conclude that residents do not perceive any negative impacts (economic, sociocultural and environmental) caused by tourism activity in their communities.

Finally, in terms of support (from residents) to STD, on average, the results indicate a relatively low degree of agreement for almost all the statements considered (most values below the midpoint). The overall level of resident support for STD is low.

**Main results of the study carried out with heritage managers, tour operators and local authorities**

In the third study, the last key stakeholder group (local agents) were interviewed in order to analyse their views regarding the STD concept and try to understand their interest and their future prospects for STD. In this group, three local agents were considered: heritage managers (which included four members that manage the heritage of Lamego); tour operators (which, in this case, are restricted to a sole operator in the town); and three representatives of local government. Interview questions were divided into three main dimensions (categories): 1) Tourism planning; 2) STD; and 3) Accessibility and means of interpretation.

With regard to tourism planning dimension, we want to know: What the difficulties and the actors involved in the tourism development process?; What objectives and strategies can be established ?; and How do the stakeholders picture the future of tourism development ?. With regard to the DTS category, this study sought to answer the following questions: What is the level of knowledge/familiarity with the concepts of STD and its principles?; and What are the strategies to improve the involvement/participation of stakeholders in tourism development process?. Finally, in the category of accessibility and interpretation means, the questions were: What is your evaluation of accessibility/interpretation means available?; and How does the heritage management can be improved? Table 6 presents a brief summary of the perceptions and opinions of the chosen group taking into account the three considered dimensions.

Table 6: Summary of the interviews made to heritage managers, tour operators and local authorities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local agents group</th>
<th>Summary of Interviews (perceptions and opinions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage managers</td>
<td>The respondents argue that there is no defined management strategy. Actions connecting heritage to tourism have been very low. There are difficulties in obtaining financing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The economic crisis may have a negative impact on tourism management. The respondents believe that tourism may be an added value. The respondents considerers that the population's involvement in management has been very weak. The respondents believe that the locals value the town heritage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tour operator</th>
<th>There is no management strategy acknowledging the importance of this town as a tourist product. The respondent propose the creation of a STD programme led by a private entity.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local authorities</td>
<td>They identified all negative aspects of tourism management. There are no short-term STD solutions. The respondents believe that Lamego will consolidate its position in the market. The respondents consider that the involvement of stakeholders is very important, but they think that, in the case of Lamego, these links are almost non-existent. According to the local authorities, the lack of urban renewal, coupled with the crisis facing the country and the pressure of competing destinations, may jeopardize the tourist development of this town.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The mayor is the only one familiar with STD concept and its principles. Regarding the involvement of the local population, all the respondents agree that it has been very difficult to mobilize the population. In the initial phase, the local population was present and wanted to be involved, but hoped compensations that did not occur. This fact caused a setback in institutional relationships. The respondents believe that the locals have a very strong connection with the town heritage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can briefly say that the analysed stakeholders agree with each other regarding tourism planning, since they all believe that this has not been properly managed. Most of the respondents were not familiar with the STD concept. Finally, they all agree that there is still a long way to go regarding personal and non-personal means of interpretation, since these are scarce. The local authorities were the only group to report accessibility weaknesses, particularly regarding internal accessibility.

**Conclusion and implications**

This study analyses the views of several stakeholders groups about STD using a historic town in northern Portugal (in the Douro Valley region) as a case study. Through the analysis carried out on the different stakeholders, we concluded that there is a somewhat conflicting relationship between the several participants. STD is still far from being a reality in Lamego. In this town, there is no integrating plan based on sustainability principles involving the several stakeholders groups. Many efforts have been focused on short-term plans developed by the local authorities, which, in many cases, will only meet the needs related with remediation or conversion, and only those of the local authorities, as observed by Prats (2003). We would like to highlight as something positive the fact that heritage managers and local authorities are aware of existing tourism management weaknesses. When we crossed all the information obtained, it is concluded that,
again, the lack of involvement and openness with the various stakeholders is a problem that local authorities, as well as some heritage managers, considered to have failed.

We think that this study contributes to the literature on the importance of the link among the various stakeholders and highlights the communication problems that often exist. Moreover, the present investigation also allows us to have some indication of the position of the stakeholders regarding the STD of this historic town. The interviews provide important clues about the inadequate consultation by local authorities, to local organizations. These organizations feel that were not called up for the discussion of the plan, being removed from the process. The results of this study can serve as a starting point and an incentive for local authorities to use planning/management tools in the STD processes of tourist and heritage destinations.

This study may contribute to the literature on STD in small historic towns, since it emphasises this problem within an urban context by highlighting sustainability issues related with the economy and social aspects rather than focusing on environmental sustainability, as is the case with most studies on this matter (Chen & Chen, 2010; Garrod et al., 2012). This research also broadens literature on STD, by approaching this concept through an analysis of the different stakeholder views in light of the management of this historic heritage destination. As observed by different authors (Garrod et al. 2012; Jimura, 2011) there have not been many studies focusing on STD in these locations. On the other hand, most studies on stakeholder perceptions analyse a reduced number of groups, such as: residents and entrepreneurs; residents and tourists; entrepreneurs, residents and tourists (Byrd et al., 2009).

Managers, entrepreneurs and public entities may incorporate these conclusions into their (sustainable) development planning and management for historic heritage products for different stakeholders. The obtained results can help managers in the decision-making process regarding the recovery, management and tourism development of small historic towns based on an integrating and proactive management, as suggested by several authors (Garrod et al., 2012; WTO, 2004).

References


**STORYTELLING TOURIST EXPERIENCE PROMOTED BY THE OFFICIAL SITES OF WORLD HERITAGE HISTORIC CENTERS**

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**Abstract**

The tourism industry is the business of selling experiences (Kim, 2010), and stories are important elements of tourists’ experiences (Moscardo, 2009).

Tourism is a process that encourages people to learn (Maitland, 2010), especially through the awakening and experiencing of the senses achieved by a Storytelling tourist experience.

Tourist experiences must be distinctive from those met in everyday situations, involving the tourists in an active construction of meaning to the information available to them (Moscardo, 2008).

Storytelling has the power to familiarize people with what is being told (Lee & Shin, 2014), and strengthens the connection of the tourists to the places.

This paper pretends to analyze the pre-tourist experiences in World Heritage Historical Centers in mainland Portugal, such as Guimarães and Porto (northern Portugal) and Évora (southern Portugal), through content analysis of the information promoted in their official sites.

The methodology used was based on content analysis, a qualitative research technique that allows for the systematic and replicable examination of symbols of communication (Riffe et al., 1998), using a pre-design code sheet listing specific symbols of tourists’ experiences based on literature review of tourism experiences, cultural tourism and storytelling.

Local histories often aim to record local memories before they are lost (Kerr, 2006). And real, imaginary or a mix between reality and fiction, everything will surely depend on the storyteller. But it is certain that “the more the story can communicate a metaphoric, symbolic story, the more power the story will have to engage others” (Pera, Viglia, & Furlan, 2016, p. 52).

For the tourist destination management it is important to be able to communicate with tourists in meaningful ways not only during their visits but also before their experiences take place by identifying the characteristics of place and people, facts, activities and events in a narrative way, creating and dramatizing potential experiences as a real storytelling tourist experience.

Some limitations are presented. First of all the study concentrated only in Portuguese official historical sites, which could be limiting for generalizing the results. Second, the study analysed only part of the
whole tourist experience, focusing on the pre-tourist experience stage. And finally, the study might omit and therefore not consider other relevant existing dimensions of storytelling information.

Storytelling adds value to the destinations, promoting historical and cultural heritages.

Tourists experiences should sell as unique, memorable and personal (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In creating them as so, it is important to understand what motivates people, in what ways they give meaning to their lifes and identifying when meaningfull experiences actually touch them and change them (Bosangit, Hibbert & McCabe, 2015).

Based on the Moscardo’s (2010) concept, Storytelling is mainly a post consumption activity. Consumers tell stories to others to relay memories of the experience as well as their significance in terms of identity. In this sense, it could be interesting for future research, the analysis of stories reported by tourists in the social media platforms such as travel blogs, and cross that information with the results of this study.

Acknowledgments: FCT and CI&DETS (PEst-OE/CED/UI4016/2011)

References


SESSION 9

TOURISTS AND MARKETING
Pictorial Analysis of the Projected Destination Image: Portugal on Instagram.

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Introduction
Considering the intangibility of tourism (Fyall & Garrod, 2005; Jamal & Robinson, 2009; Pender & Sharpley, 2005; Yilmaz & Bititei, 2006) that are “amalgam of all goods, activities and services” (Mok, Sparks, & Kadampully, 2013: 8), it could be argued that perceived risk and uncertainty toward the outcomes of purchasing tourism products are common among tourists (Wong & Yeh, 2009). In the other words, tourism products are perceived as “high-risk purchases” (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008, p. 458). In order to decreasing risk and attract prospective tourists, destinations need to create a distinctive image in the minds of potential tourists. This process, is called destination positioning (Gallarza, Saura, & Garcia, 2002; Steven Pike, 2012). The main aim of positioning is to develop a unique image that help travelers differentiate a certain destination from the competitors and other destinations (Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011).

Due to the intangibility of tourism products, destination positioning is widely acknowledged as a complex process (Chacko, 1996; Fyall & Garrod, 2005; Schwaighofer, 2013). To conducting a successful positioning, destination marketers have been adopted "tangibilizing the intangible" (Reddy, Buskirk, & Kaicker, 1993, p. 13) as a key strategy. According this strategy, destination need to be marketed with tangible evidences. In order to do this strategy and successfully implementing it, destination visualization by using image is commonly suggested technique by scholars (Chon, 1990; K. J. MacKay & Fesenmaier, 2000; Kelly J. MacKay & Couldwell, 2004; Tasci, 2008; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Accordingly and based on this old idiom, “A picture is worth a thousand words” (Aramberri & Butler, 2005, p. 44), photograph has been broadly applied in destination advertising (Li, Huang, & Christianson, 2016). Considering the increasing role of social media and Internet as a primary source of information (Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015), destination management organizations (DMOs) are widely accepting social media to promote their unique attractions. Among social media, visual media such as Instagram, flicker, Pinterest that enables their users to take pictures-videos, and share them, are increasingly attract the attentions of DMOs.

Destination image (DI) has been attracted attentions since the early 1970s (Hunt, 1975). However, bibliometric analysis of the DI related studies (Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014) have shown some gaps that this study can cover them. For instance, they have showed that cognitive, affective, and conative were the main preferences of tourism scholars. Moreover, Steve Pike (2002) indicated that self-administered questionnaire was the main data collection tool in the DI related studies. Based on these, it can be concluded that there is a lack of attention on the exploring projected image by data mining on visual media. This study by focusing on Instagram data mining can shed a light on destination projected image literature.
Another factor that can show the importance of this study is that, while exploring the projected image on web is rising (S. Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007), but still studies that have been addressed projected image based on Instagram are rare. For instance, previous study on projected image have been focused on destination official website (S. Choi et al., 2007), Flickr (Stepchenkova & Zhan, 2013), Pinterest (Song & Kim, 2016) and travel magazines (Hsu & Song, 2013) and Instagram as the fastest growing social network has overlooked (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016). Build upon what is said, the purpose of this research was to contribute to the projected image literature thorough exploring pictorial materials produced by DMOs on Instagram. For achieving this aim, following questions were developed:

What is the dominant attributes of the projected destination image of Portugal as presented through DMO on Instagram?

Which geographical regions of Portugal are mostly represented in the DMO images?

What are the most engaging images?

What are the most frequently used words and/or phrases for promoting Portugal?

**Literature review**

The word image normally refers to a “compilation of beliefs, and impressions based on information processing from a variety of sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct” (Kelly J MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997, p. 538). Base on this, a commonly accepted definition of destination image is “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination”(Crompton, 1979, p. 18). Due to the importance role of DI in the destination development (Martín-Santana, Beerli-Palacio, & Nazzareno, 2017), it has been one of the most investigated concept in the tourism literature (Xu & Ye, 2016). Some of these studies have been conducted to better understanding the destination image and DI model development (Baloglu & Brinberg, 2016; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Gallarza et al., 2002; Jenkins, 1999; Sirgy & Su, 2000). On other side, there are studies which have been examined the relationship between DI and variables such as satisfaction and loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Hernández-Lobato, Solis-Radilla, Moliner-Tena, & Sánchez-García, 2006), and behavioral intentions (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Measuring the image of a certain destination (S. Choi et al., 2007; W. M. Choi, Chan, & Wu, 1999; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008) and meta-analysis researches are the most common conducted studies in the field of destination image. Complexity, multi-dimensionality and availability of different types of DI are the common point of view.

While there are several conceptual models and approaches in conceptualizing destination image, but they can be summarized into two groups, DI formation and DI component approaches. In the formation approach, based on involved stockholders or agents in the process of creation and delivering image, DI classified as “induced (supply-side), autonomous (independent) or organic (demand-side)” (Saraniemi, 2011, p. 250). Induced is a trying from DMOs to attract the attention of potential tourists through marketing materials such as brochures, videos, and most recently the Internet and social media (Xu & Ye, 2016). Autonomous is referred independent information sources which provide general insight (e.g., documentaries, movies) about a destination (Bricker & Donohoe, 2015). Organic sources, induced noncommercial information which have been developed by actual experiences or word-of-mouth (Mimi Li, 2013). While traditionally organic sources were limited. However, recently by development of ICTs and social Media travelers are more powerful. They are able to create and share information among large number of people. Accordingly, it can be said that traveler are co-creator of destination image (Burns,
Lester, & Bibbings, 2010). In relation to this three information sources, more recently studies have preferred using “projected and perceived image” (Kim & Lehto, 2013; Scarles, 2016). The projected image is created by the DMO’s marketing activities, while the perceived image is shaped by traveler’s actual experiences and sharing (Song & Kim, 2016).

On the other side, component approach as a widely accepted theoretical perspective in image studies indicated that destination image is composed of three components; namely, “cognitive, affective, and conative” (Agapito, Oom do Valle, & da Costa Mendes, 2013). The cognitive image refers to the attitude of a traveler about the destination attributes. The affective image is emotional responses toward a place. The conative image is represented by traveler’s behavior (Zhang et al., 2014). Additionally, Stylidis, Shani, & Belhassen (2017) suggested that the interaction of cognitive and affective forms the overall destination image. In generally, it involves overall positive or negative assessment of a destination.

Methodology

The aim of this research was to identify the representative characteristics of the projected image of Portugal on Instagram. Accordingly, qualitative approach and content analysis were selected for this study. To conducting this research, firstly the official page of Portugal on Instagram was identified (@visitportugal). By identifying the official page, initial search was conducted in April 23, 2017. In this stage, 1,306 photos were selected as sample. It was involved all photos which shared by Portugal DMO on Instagram. Following by these steps, needed data was extracted by popsters.us which is helpful online tools for social media content analysis. By extracting photos and data, in order to make a big picture of all photos, initially all photos were skimmed and based on previous studies (Song & Kim, 2016) photos were categorized into 11 groups, including: 1. Modern Architecture, 2. Art Object/Statue, 3. Festival/Ritual 4. Food/Restaurant, 5. Leisure Activity/Facility, 6. Nature/Nature Landscape, 7. Other, 8. Religious Building/Object, 9. Creative photography, 10. Traditional or Historic Building, and 11. Transport/Infrastructure.

Results

The pictorial analysis of 1306 pictures of @visitportugal as an official page of Portugal DMO on Instagram with 145k followers, was resulted in the following outcomes:

What is the dominant attributes of destination image of Portugal as presented through DMO on Instagram?

Scanning of all photos, categorizing and category frequency showed that among DMO’s photos, nature related photos with 545 photos ranked first. It can be interpreted that DMOs use photos of nature as a primary promotional image for promoting Portugal as a destination for nature related tourism activates. Following by nature, there were photos related to historical attraction and leisure activities (table 1).
Which geographical regions of Portugal are most often represented in the DMO images?

The second research question centered on the geographical distribution of the DMO photos. By scanning photos it was found out that the location of all photos have been shared in caption by hashtag (e.g., #porto). Based on this, all hashtags with more than 10 frequencies were extracted by popsters.us and exported to Microsoft excel. In the next step, all locations were identified and visualized by Microsoft power BI (figure 1).

![Figure 1. The geographical distribution of the DMO photos](image)

As figure 1 shows, 880 photos (%67) of all 1306 DMO photos were associated with nine destinations; Lisbon (250), Algarve (184), Azores (140), Madeira (130), Porto (100), Sintra (36), Aveiro (16), Braga (14), and Alvor (10).

**What are the most engaging images?**

In order to answer this question, engaging image was described as an image that has attracted the highest number of Like and Comment. Accordingly, number of like and comment were adopted as a metric for engagement measurement. However, it must be said that each social media offers different metric for measuring. For Instagram, number of like and comment are the main measurement metric for engagement (Dunham, 2014). Engagement analysis helps DMOs to optimization their photo sharing activates, by identifying the most favorable photos for followers (figure 2).

**Table 1. Frequency of Categories**

<table>
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<th>Frequency</th>
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<tr>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>64</td>
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<td>154</td>
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<td>215</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>129</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**
- Frequency represents the number of hashtags used for each geographical region.
- The hashtags with more than 10 frequencies were extracted.
- The geographical distribution was visualized using Microsoft Power BI.
What are the most frequently used words and/or phrases to describing Portugal?

In order to identify the most frequently words, captions of all 1306 photos were extracted by popsters.us. The result of the exported captions indicate that 5759 keywords were used by DMO to promote Portugal. In the next step, general keywords (#travel, #Portugal, #visitportugal, and city names) were deleted and other keywords visualized by wordart (figure 3).

As figure 3 shows, the most common applied keywords for describing Portugal as a tourism destination were related to nature based activities (e.g., nature, river, beach, ocean, sea).

Conclusion

The destination image is influenced by the type of information tourists receive. By the development of ICTs, more and more destination using the internet and social media to promote themselves. Along with this trend, this paper has dealt with an analysis of the projected image of Portugal. To investigate concept,
this study has adopted content analysis of photos which DMO of Portugal shared on its official page on Instagram. The findings can be used by Portugal DMO to optimization their destination marketing activities.

Results showed that among DMOs’ photos, nature related photos with 545 photos ranked first. It can be interpreted that DMOs use photos of nature as a primary promotional image for promoting Portugal. It seems that according the traditional image of Portugal which has been mostly recognized sun and the beach as well as other type of tourism such as cultural, city breaks, gastronomy; Portugal’s DMOs try to keep the dominated image by leveraging on broad view of nature-based tourism in the country which is very well known for the pleasant weather conditions with beautiful beaches, river views and forests. The findings of question four also can support above statement; the most common applied keywords for describing Portugal as a tourism destination were related to nature based activities (e.g., nature, river, beach, ocean, and sea). While the most favorable photos for followers were photos related to food/restaurant category but among all DMOs’ photos only 64 photos (%04) were dedicated to this category.

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays tourists do not just seek for rural life activities in rural destinations, they search for all the activities that are possible to do in destinations in nature assets. Furthermore in the last few years many rural destinations emerged in Europe, leading to an increasing competition, which made those places to develop niche products to attract different markets and create a different image from the competitors. One of those activities that has been emerging and growing is astro-tourism or celestial ecotourism (Weaver, 2011). The latter can be defined as “an activity of travelers wishing to use the natural resource of well-kept nightscapes, for astronomy related leisure and knowledge. This practice has increased in popularity during the past few years, adding value to offbeat tourism destinations offering high quality night skies and astronomical or archaeoastronomical heritage.” (Fayos-Solà et al, 2014: 663). The promotion of a destination is done in most cases through images (Morgan & Pritchard, 2003) in tourism brochures, sites and other media resources, and in this niche tourism it is used night time pictures in opposite to the traditional day light photographs.

According to Albers and James (1988: 134) “photographs are vital to successfully creating and communicating images of a destination. They have been used to gain understanding of the tourist (through photographs taken) and the process by which tourist destinations are represented.” The analysis of photo imagery has been all done based on day time images, not photographs taken by night, but because photography forms a space of mediation to create a sense of place and captivates the interest of the consumer (Kim & Stepchenkova, 2015; Lester & Scarles, 2013; Scarles, 1999) it is relevant to study the perceptions of tourists about dark night pictures to understand how can they be used by DMO’s and advertising agencies to promote the nightscape of the destination. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore the perceptions of tourists about dark night pictures in order to understand how they can be used by tourism promotion and branding.

METHODS & MATERIALS

In this exploratory study, was used in-person focus groups to analyze the preferences of A group of 8 respondents, aged 19 to 54 years old (none of them did any activity related to astrotourism or had any hobby activity related to astronomy or night photography) on to night time pictures. This methodology was also used by an international group of researchers to analyze aesthetics and Astronomy by the Chandra X-ray Observatory.
ray Center, Operated for NASA by the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory (Chandra.si.edu). The focus group had the duration of 2 hours. The pictures were presented for 5 minutes and each respondent had to answer to a set of questions related to the theoretical principles used on the selection of the photographs. Focus group is “a way of collecting qualitative data, which—essentially—involves engaging a small number of people in an informal group discussion (or discussions), ‘focused’ around a particular topic or set of issues” (Wilkinson, 2004: 177 cited by Onwuegbuzie et al, 2009).

According to Krueger & Casey (2000) it is a methodology used by social researchers to collect data from multiple individuals simultaneously. Focus groups are less threatening to many research participants, and this environment is helpful for participants to discuss perceptions, ideas, opinions, and thoughts.

The photographs chosen for the focus groups were from Alqueva in the region of Alentejo and from Azores, both destinations located in Portugal and from the Atacama Desert in Chile. All pictures were taken by the same professional astro-photographer. The pictures were chosen based on whether they had the elements that compose landscape, which according to Burton’s (1995) principles, are as follows:

- Relief and geology. The relief determines the presence of many of the resources that can form the basis for some of the activities in nature.
- The natural vegetation and the animals that depend on it. The vegetation varies according to the climate of the region where it is inserted.
- The presence of man as a part of the natural vegetation has been altered by man through agriculture and afforestation.

The principles of Litton (1968, 1972) were also considered as a criteria to select the pictures, and relate to the organization of the components that constitute the landscape which determine the direction of our attention:

- Focus, the degree to which a scene provides its framing, allowing the viewer to quickly focus on key points.
- Convergence, the point at which two or more lines of a scene meet, dominating it, because it draws attention to a point on the horizon.
- Contrast is associated with different shapes, textures and colors that appear in the landscape.

Furthermore, this research is based on the “System of preferences” (Kaplan and Kaplan,1970) which is a model that divides the environmental perception into four dimensions, two of which refer to the components that are being observed (coherence and complexity), and the other two reflecting sensations experienced in the future (readability and mystery). Lastly, this exploratory study includes the model developed by Russell and Lanius (1984) to evaluate the emotional impact of a certain environment.

**Research and Results**

Main findings show that most of the respondents had a more positive global vision of the pictures with some sources of light or where the landscape elements were more visible. The words pleasant (7), intense (7), interesting (7), serene (6), peaceful (6), stimulating (5) and tranquil (5) are the most mentioned to describe the photos. The pictures where the viewer could not identify clearly the elements in the photo or could not orient him/herself in that environment did get opposite opinions, such as unstimulating (6), uncomfortable (5) and dull (5). Considering the mysterious effect of the photos, from scary to positively
mysterious, the photos were mostly considered to evoke some mysterious however the emotion was positive as they wish to explore the places showed. This result demonstrates that some elements which are widely appreciated in day time pictures, such as the presence of water, vegetation, elements of humanization could have other meanings when presented in a nightscape photograph.

Discussion

Recently, the interpretation of photos has been recognized as an important research method and applied in a variety of settings (Bohnsack, 2008). Due to the abundance in photo imagery of many destinations (both professional and amateur), there are problems deciding which images should be used in marketing and promotional materials (Page et al, 2006). This exploratory study evidences the need to deepen this theme. The pictorial element is very relevant when a tourist is seeking for information about a destination and when it is used non-conventional photographs such as nightscape images. There is the risk that the perception of the destination is different from the one that the tourism developers have. The visual nightscape is dominated by shining points like stars on a generally darker background, very different from pictures of day-time. When it is used as a tool for science dissemination that has a certain meaning and which is more relevant than the aesthetics of the picture itself (Burriss & Burriss, 2008). When the same picture is used as an element of tourism promotion the goal is different, being the landscape perception and preferences the most relevant aspect.

The main limitation of this study was the small sample. Future studies need to gather information about respondents with different nationalities and different cultural backgrounds.

References


AESTHETICS AND DESTINATIONS: REVIEW OF FINDINGS

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Antónia Correia, CEFAGE, Universidade do Algarve & Universidade Europeia, Portugal, ahcorreia@gmail.com

Introduction

This study is based on the premise that destination image (DI) and aesthetic are becoming more and more intertwined constructs. Literature review has demonstrated (e.g. Gallarza et al., 2002) that DI as a construct is associated not only with objective or more factual information (the cognitive image), but also (or even more) with an individual’s beliefs, feelings, opinions about the characteristics of a destination (affective image). In this sense, an explosion of a more emotional and aesthetic experience (subjective) sprout from this concept, which lead us to the conclusion that DI construct is aesthetics in its essence. For that, grounded on a theoretical pre-schema extracted from an extensive literature review about aesthetic construct (Rodrigues & Correia, 2017), an analysis of the dimensions of perceived visual aesthetics of destinations was undertaken.

Framed by this rational, this paper aims to explore the aesthetic construct in order to improve the image, promotion and positioning of destinations in a more competitive market. In order to develop the construct of aesthetic applied to destinations, a meta-synthesis literature review were used to depict the meaning of aesthetics. This method was applied as much of the research related with aesthetics is qualitative. The focus of this literature review is to identity the core elements and themes in order to transform individual findings into new conceptualizations and interpretations (Polit and Beck, 2006). The final goal of this study is to develop and propose a categorization of aesthetics in order to develop a measurement scale, able to materialize the aesthetic construct applied to destinations.

Literature review

A meta-synthesis literature review about destination image construct (Rodrigues, Correia and Kozak, 2012) has shown that when defining image about a not only the objective or more factual information (the cognitive image) is depicted, but also (or even more) with an individual’s beliefs, feelings, opinions about the characteristics of a destination (affective image). In this sense, an explosion of a more emotional, subjective and aesthetic experience sprout from this concept, which lead us to the conclusion that DI
construct is aesthetics in its essence. Regarding the aesthetic construct and value, it “can be found in both verbal and visual forms and can be represented both as real and imaginary.” (Vogt & Fesenmaier 1998:561). Moreover, as stated by Lavie et al. (2004:271), the “aesthetic approach seeks to enrich knowledge about the ‘sensible’ aspects of a destination experience.”

Based on the previous line of thoughts and considering that destination image and aesthetic constructs are eminently ‘iconographical’ and for that ‘representational’ and symbolic, the use of a meta-synthetizis analysis is the most appropriated method to depict the content of aesthetics.

**Methods**

Qualitative meta-synthesis aims to enact theory development. The focus is to derive from content analysis the categories and general issues that are in most of the qualitative research assessed. As the general aim is to go beyond the concept of aesthetics to derive a measurement scale, a more deep literature review will be conducted as a deductive analytical procedure where step by step the findings of the papers analyzed are organized to ensure theory development. This method aims to synthesis findings to provide a meaning for contents and descriptions.

**Research and Results**

To fulfil the main goal of this preliminary study, i.e. to have a deeper understanding about the aesthetic construct in order to materialize it in the future, a preliminary literature review was done. This study proposes a set of definitions and ideas related to aesthetic as a first step to apprehend this construct. For instance, Bamossy (1982, cited on Hirschman, 1983:3) states that “aesthetic responses are primary emotional or feeling responses and thus are very personal” or Griffiths & Mack (2007: 268) for whom “aesthetic approach seeks to enrich knowledge about the ‘sensible’ aspects of a destination experience”. Figure 1 illustrates part of the 42 definitions and ideas extracted from this preliminary literature review stage before undertake the qualitative meta-synthesis.
After this, 1700 papers in and out of tourism research were assessed. The criteria to select the papers was to comprise at least a keyword related with aesthetics. The papers extracted in scopus were first analysed by to frame the coverage of research in this topic. The first paper appears in 1894 relating aesthetics with the movements. This topic was randomly approach in literature till 2000. The year with more production was 2015, where the aesthetics construct appears related with archaeology and landscapes. The author with more publications in this construct was Jacobsen et al. that posits that aesthetics is related with experience and activated by music, arts and scenic views.

In tourism this construct was applied for the first time by Gallarza and Gil in 2008 with a strong linkages within aesthetics and experience. Kirillova et al. (2014) were one of the first authors to link aesthetics with destination image in 2014. Overall tourism research contributes with 189 papers relating aesthetics with destination, experiences, landscape, heritage and even architecture as the word cloud illustrates. This is an exploratory data analysis consisted of using the word cloud, particularly the frequency type, where cloud size represents the number of times that a keyword has been applied in the 189 tourism papers related to aesthetics.
The limited scope of this construct while it stands on tourism lends to the call for research on this area to that this paper contributes to.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

This study intends to develop a literature review able to materializing the aesthetic construct in future research, in order to fully understand its importance and role when designing and promoting tourism destinations. This objective is based on the premise that this construct is multidimensional and crucial to understand tourist’s inner experience and perceptions. This study advocates that this construct follows the path of other constructs (e.g. destination image), which are considered to be an elusive, a catch-all, an ‘umbrella construct’ (Rodrigues, Correia and Kozak, 2012).

The image and aesthetic dimension of a destination is dynamic and constantly changing; therefore, this preliminary review of findings from tourism research related to aesthetic suggests a very limited approach to aesthetics construct in literature that needs to be further developed. Depict the dimensions of this construct in the future are critical to **strengthen destination image.**
References


SESSION 10

TOURISTS ROLES
WHY TOURISTS PREFER STAYING WITH AIRBNB COMPARED WITH HOTELS.

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Introduction
In the tourism industry, formal businesses (hotel, motel etc.) while meeting the tourists accommodation needs, lately this situation has showed a change and informal tourism accommodation like Airbnb began to rise to prominence.

Airbnb launched in 2008 and has grown rapidly although it is the new phenomenon in the accommodation sector. Airbnb is an online platform put tourists and homeowners together to meet tourists’ accommodation needs. According to Airbnb, it connects people to unique travel experiences, at any price point, in more than 34,000 cities and 191 countries.

The purpose of this study examines the reasons why tourists choose to stay with Airbnb compared with the hotels. Following to literature review, the primary data of the study has been collected through questionnaire.

Literature review
Airbnb which established in 2008 refers Airbed & Breakfast, has provide home and apartment owners to rent their properties for travelers. Airbnb users benefit from services such as availability, communication, commitment, C-in, Accuracy, Cleanliness, overall experience(Airbnb, 2017). Airbnb creates a market of short-term rentals with a clearly defined price. A host is free to name any price they want or take rate recommendations from Airbnb (Lampinen and Cheshire; 2016)

The academic literature on Airbnb cases remains limited, and the phenomenon of Airbnb in general is being examined within the context of "sharing economy" (Zervas et al, 2013; Jefferson-Jones, 2014; Koopman et al, 2014; Hamari et al., 2015; Fang et al, 2016; Quattrone et al, 2016) or "network economy" (Ikkala and Lampinen, 2015; Oskam and Boswijk, 2016). Sharing economy platforms have become extremely popular in the last few years, and they have changed the way in which we commute, travel, and borrow among many other activities (Quattrone at al, 2016). Airbnb and Uber platforms are emerging as important examples of this growth (Schor, 2014).

According to Oskam and Boswijk (2016), compared to hotels, Airbnb hosts offer competitive pricing because in the case of private residences fixed costs as rent and electricity are already covered, because of
minimal labour costs, the fact that Airbnb revenue is usually an additional income, and because stays are usually not taxed. Renters can obtain accommodations at lower prices from Airbnb than from hotels in most cities (Permalink, 2013). In a study by Zervas et al. (2013), Airbnb’s impact on hotel revenues was examined, with a 13 percent loss of room revenue for Austin and a 0.35 percent decrease in monthly hotel room revenue for every 10 percent increase in Airbnb listings for Texas in general.

Future researches on Airbnb have a great importance because destinations are just beginning to respond to the pressing challenges and promising opportunities created by the rapid rise of an informal peer-to-peer accommodation sector. The various questions and issues surrounding Airbnb are relevant to all major tourism stakeholders, including tourists, residents, tourism bureaus, hotels, and governments (Guttentag, 2015).

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the reasons why tourists choose to stay with Airbnb compared with the hotels. For the purpose of this study, a self-administered questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, the first section aimed at measuring the differences between the preferences of hotels and Airbnb, using a 27-item scale developing by the literature (Hamilton, 2015; Guttentag, 2015; Fang et al, 2016) and opinions of the experts, while the second part includes questions concerning demographic characteristics. All items were measure on five Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree).

The study is ongoing and the pilot study has been applied to Turkish citizens who have been staying at Airbnb for the last six months. Data collection began in the first half of January 2017. A pilot survey was conducted 50 Airbnb participants by reliance on the snowball sampling method. The data was analyzed with statistics program.

Results

According to the data obtained from 50 respondents; the Cronbach’s alpha value of the scale was found to be 0.898 and the reliability level of the scale was found to be high (Nunnally, 1978).

Demographic profile of respondents:

62.0 percent of the respondents were female and the majority of the respondents (62.0 %) were between 25 and 35 years of age. When income analyzed, it is seen that a clear majority of income is over the minimum wage. 60% of the participants are private sector employees. About 90 percent of the participants travelled with the purpose of holiday, fun and leisure.

Overall differences:

When the reasons for preferring the Airbnb versus Hotels are sorted according to their importance; (1) price (40 %), (2) comfort (12 %), (3) confidence (10 %) are effective in their preferences. Location, the variety of alternatives, the possibility of staying with crowded groups, the possibility of being in a relationship with the locals are among the reasons of preference. The majority of the respondents said they would like to stay again with Airbnb.
Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the reasons why tourists choose to stay with Airbnb compared with the hotels. After analysis of data based on 50 responses, it was found that price is the most important preferred compared with the hotels. This can be explained by having an affordable price range. Also, the affordable price offers longer stay opportunities. At the same time it provides to increase the budget of other expenses (shopping, leisure activities etc.).

Airbnb, unlike the hotels, rents not only room but also entire house. In this way, people can find accommodation in a more comfortable and comfortable environment and feel themselves like at home. It is concluded that comfort is an important element in the accommodation of Airbnb compared to the hotels. Especially, family with child and group accommodation. Airbnb stands out in terms of discovering the city easier, interaction with locals and also living together with locals. Airbnb which is thought to be more environmentally friendly than hotels, seems to have adopted a sustainable approach to its participants.

The limits of this study is a pilot study and also the study continue to collect data. It would difficult therefore, to generalize the findings.

References


INTENTION TO DINE AT LUXURY RESTAURANTS WHEN TRAVELING

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Introduction

The global luxury goods market was valued at US$264 billion in 2016, more than four times the value of the same industry in 1997 (Bain & Company, 2016; Nueno & Quelch, 1998). Because of this development, identifying the factors that contribute to consumers’ intentions to purchase luxury products is of interest to researchers, but previous luxury consumption research has focused more on goods than on services (e.g., Chen & Peng, 2014; Chen, Peng, & Hung, 2015; Hung et al., 2011; Han, Nunes, & Dreze, 2010; Shukla & Purani, 2012; Wiedmann, Hennigs, & Siebels, 2009; Yang & Mattila, 2016). Existing theories and frameworks of luxury consumption may not reflect the service-related luxury product purchase intentions of consumers because of the perishable and intangible qualities of these products.

The appeal of luxury products can be a result of their luxury value in the perception of the owners and others (Hung et al., 2011). For this reason, scholars have been exploring the dimensions of luxury value since the late 1990s (Berthon, Pitt, Parent, & Berthon, 2009; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Wiedmann et al., 2009; Yang & Mattila, 2016).

Researchers have accumulated evidence demonstrating that there is a significant relationship between perceived luxury value and consumers’ intentions to purchase luxury goods; nevertheless, findings regarding the influence of luxury value have been inconsistent when examining its relationship with luxury services (e.g., Shukla & Purani, 2012; Wu & Liang, 2009; Yang & Mattila, 2016).

Another area of luxury product consumption research that warrants further exploration relates to the intention to purchase luxury services in environments with which consumers are less familiar, such as while participating in tourism activities. Given that consumers have little or no opportunity to sample a service before consumption and that service quality is generally more variable than product quality, purchasing luxury services while participating in tourism activities involves additional uncertainty. The current luxury product consumption literature has rarely investigated whether consumers’ evaluation of luxury services can lead to intentions to purchase luxury services in less familiar environments. Moreover, there is value in identifying the factors that may moderate consumers’ intentions to purchase luxury services while traveling for tourism purposes.

To narrow the gaps in the literature, the present study examines consumers’ intentions to dine at luxury restaurants that serve mainly local dishes while traveling for tourism purposes. This research incorporates a “food image” variable into a luxury value-attitude-behavior model. The specific objectives of this study are as follows. First, this research intends to conceptualize gastronomy tourists’ luxury service purchase intentions by adapting the value-attitude-behavior model. Second, the present study plans to examine the influence of luxury restaurants’ perceived value (i.e., functional value, financial value, hedonic value, and
symbolic/expressive value) on consumers’ attitude and purchase intentions. Third, the study aims to investigate whether food image moderates the relationship between attitude and purchase intentions. Finally, this research outlines a number of implications for the consideration of hospitality and luxury service marketing practitioners.

Theory, Research Framework, and Hypothesis

The value-attitude-behavior model is rooted in the field of social psychology (Kang, Jun, & Arendt, 2015). Researchers have found that value can serve as a predictor of individuals’ attitude toward a given behavior, which in turn can affect individuals’ behavioral intentions (Allen et al., 2002; Chen & Peng, 2014; Kang et al., 2015). In this research, attitude is defined as the degree to which a consumer has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of luxury restaurants in general (Ajzen, 1991). Intention is defined as a consumer’s desire to dine at luxury restaurants that serve mainly local dishes while traveling for tourism purposes (Ajzen, 1991).

When compared to non-luxury products, luxury products tend to have premium quality, recognizable style, and high hedonic value, in addition to being more expensive (Berthon et al., 2009). Therefore, researchers who have investigated the consumption value of luxury products have suggested that these products’ particular characteristics must be considered and highlighted, such as their ability to bring joy to their users and to symbolize wealth and status (Berthon et al., 2009; Han et al., 2010; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Wiedmann et al., 2009).

Yang and Mattila (2016) suggested that consumers’ luxury value has four dimensions: functional value, financial value, hedonic value, and symbolic/expressive value. Functional value in this study measures the extent to which luxury restaurants’ products are desirable in terms of quality and performance (Yang & Mattila, 2016). Wiedmann et al. (2009) suggest that financial value addresses consumers’ perception of the cost-benefit relationship of luxury product consumption. Hedonic value refers to a luxury restaurant’s ability to evoke customers’ emotions of indulgence and pleasure (Yang & Mattila, 2016). The symbolic/expressive value of a luxury restaurant represents the restaurant’s ability to express and relay information about a customer’s wealth and status to others and to the customer (Hung et al., 2011). The following hypotheses will be examined:

H1: Consumers’ perception of the functional value of luxury restaurants has a positive effect on their attitude toward luxury restaurants.

H2: Consumers’ perception of the financial value of luxury restaurants has a positive effect on their attitude toward luxury restaurants.

H3: Consumers’ perception of the hedonic value of luxury restaurants has a positive effect on their attitude toward luxury restaurants.

H4: Consumers’ perception of the symbolic/expressive value of luxury restaurants has an insignificant effect on their attitude toward luxury restaurants.

H5: Attitude has a positive effect on consumers’ luxury restaurant purchase intentions while traveling for tourism purposes.

This research also investigates how a consumer’s intention to dine at luxury restaurants while participating
in tourism activities may be affected by his/her image perception of a destination’s food scene and culinary culture (i.e. food image). Food image is defined as a compilation of beliefs and impressions based on information processed from multiple sources over a period of time, which results in a mental impression of the attributes and potential benefits of a destination’s food (Zhang et al., 2014). Researchers have explored the components and influences of destination brand image (e.g., Chen & Tsai, 2007; Folgado-Fernández, Hernández-Mogollón, & Duarte, 2016; Zhang, Fu, Cai, & Lu, 2014), and studies have confirmed that food and beverages can contribute to tourists’ perceptions of a destination (Alonso & Liu, 2012; Hillel, Belhassen, & Shani, 2013; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Lin, 2014; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012). Purchasing luxury services while traveling for tourism purposes can involve high levels of uncertainty. Meanwhile, consumer behavior related to overseas tourism participation behavior is generally considered to be a more planned activity than a spontaneous or reflexive action (Han, Shu, & Sheu, 2010; Quintal, Lee & Soutar, 2010). Therefore, consumers’ decision to visit a destination is influenced by their preexisting image perception of that destination, such as destination image (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Martí’n & Rodrí’guez del Bosque, 2008). It might be inferred that gastronomy tourists’ decision to dine at luxury restaurants that serve mainly local dishes while traveling for tourism purposes is conditioned by their preexisting image perception of that destination’s food characteristics. The following hypothesis will be examined:

H6: Attitude has a stronger positive relationship with purchase intentions for consumers with a more positive food image than for consumers with a less positive food image.

Methods

To examine the proposed framework, Taiwanese consumers who planned to travel abroad for tourism purposes within six months after the survey administration were recruited. The surveys were distributed and collected by trained interviewers. A non-probability, purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data. Using an interception technique, the interviewers selected individuals who had finished dining and were leaving a luxury restaurant, as defined by Chen et al. (2015) and Wu and Liang (2009). A total of 361 usable questionnaires were collected, resulting in a valid return rate of 80.9%.

The participants completed a 32-question survey that included three items for functional value (Yang & Mattila, 2016), three items for symbolic/expressive value (Yang & Mattila, 2016), three items for hedonic value (Yang & Mattila, 2016), three items for financial value (Yang & Mattila, 2016), five items for attitude (Peng, Chen, & Hung, 2014), three items for purchase intentions (Schade, Hegner, Horstmann, & Brinkmann, 2016), and 12 items for food image (Chi et al., 2013). A seven-point Likert-type scale was used when designing the items.

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS AMOS 23 was used to analyze the data. As recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step approach to structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to analyze the collected data. After checking convergent validity, discriminant validity, and variables’ Cronbach’s alphas, the items were valid and reliable (data upon request). After the overall measurement model was found to be acceptable, the structural model was examined. The model fit was good ($\chi^2=444.374; df=159; \chi^2/df=2.80; RMSEA=0.071; CFI=0.941; NFI=0.916$). In addition, all hypotheses have been supported (data upon request).
Discussion and Implications

First, the results obtained in this study offer insight into the question of whether the existing theories and frameworks of luxury consumption require adjustment when they are applied to service-based products due to the differences between service-based products and physical goods. By applying a value-attitude-behavior model to a luxury restaurant consumption scenario, this study indicates that there are differences (i.e., the hypothesized insignificant effects of perceived symbolic value); therefore, researchers should be vigilant when applying theoretical frameworks used to examine luxury goods consumption behavior to the investigation of luxury services consumption behavior.

Second, similar to luxury goods, consumers who perceive that luxury restaurants 1) have better quality products (e.g., food, atmosphere, and services), 2) can bring them joy, and 3) offer value for money will be more likely to consider luxury restaurants to be pleasant, desirable, and good. These results align with the previous luxury restaurant research. Additionally, this research adds to the discussion regarding the symbolic value of luxury services. The present study finds that symbolic/expressive value has no significant influence on consumers’ attitude toward luxury restaurants. In contrast to luxury fashion items or luxury cars, which can be carried or driven around due to their tangible and durable nature, it is perhaps more difficult to signal wealth and status through restaurant choices.

Third, this study reveals that for consumers who have a positive image of a destination’s food quality, accessibility, and diversity, their attitude toward luxury restaurants in general will have a stronger impact on their intentions to try luxury restaurants that serve mainly local dishes while traveling for tourism purposes. However, consumers will not want to try luxury restaurants while traveling if they do not have a positive image perception of that destination’s food image. This finding is consistent with the previous gastronomy literature that suggests that experiences with food and drinks are essential to tourists’ perceptions of a destination.

In addition to offering theoretical contributions, this study highlights several managerial implications for practitioners (i.e., restauranteurs and tourism operators) and policymakers (e.g., tourism bureaus) to consider. First, restauranteurs should research how local food is perceived by tourists. If the results demonstrate that tourists do not have a positive image of the local culinary culture and food, professionals in the region could consider collaborating with one another through trade associations to launch a rebranding campaign. Second, tourism bureaus at local and national levels may also wish to be involved with the further development or rebranding of their region’s/country’s food image in order to stimulate its tourism and hospitality industries. Promoting and advertising to countries with the largest number of visiting tourists may be an option. Alternatively, targeting countries with tourists who are known for enjoying the opportunity to try ethnic foods may also be useful.

Conclusion

The present study offers several contributions to the luxury product consumption literature and tourism research by incorporating a “food image” variable into a value-attitude-behavior model. Despite these contributions, the present research also has several limitations. First, this study collected data from Taiwanese consumers who had dined at Taiwan’s luxury restaurants; however, some consumers may be more willing to purchase luxury products while traveling abroad. This category of consumer may be underrepresented in the current research. Future studies can overcome this limitation by collecting data in airport arrival terminals.
References


SEGMENTING RESIDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS LOCAL TOURISM EVENTS ON CHIOS ISLAND – A CLUSTER ANALYSIS

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Theodoros Stavrinoudis, University of the Aegean, Greece.

Introduction

The present article studies the opinions of the residents of Chios island on the one hand about the characteristics (quality, potential, organisation) of the main annual cultural events of the island, and on the other hand about their possible impact on the society, economy, tourism and natural environment of the area. The main findings of the study reveal some particularly interesting aspects and have political implications.

The term “special events” refers to special ceremonies, presentations, performances or celebrations that are planned and realised deliberately in order to celebrate special occasions or to fulfil certain social, cultural or collective goals and pursues (McDonnell et al, 1999). Getz (2008) provides a typology for the main categories of planned events based primarily on their form (event’s purpose and programme). Some events are public celebrations, e.g. “community festivals”, and usually offer programmes with a wide variety aiming to foster civic pride and community cohesion. Other events are planned for competition, recreation, entertainment, business or socialising.

It has been discovered that said events are related to both tourism demand and supply. More particularly, the realisation of an event in an area can create tourism demand, as it attracts tourists, raise the satisfaction connected with staying in the area and, to a lesser extent, increase direct expenditures (Panfiluk, 2015). Moreover, cultural events can contribute to the differentiation and enrichment of an area's tourism product (Getz, 2008), the prolongation of the tourist season (Connell, Page & Mayer, 2015), the advertising and promotion of an area, as well as the enhancement of a destination's image (Hernandez-Mogollon, Duarte & Folgado-Fernandez, 2017).

Most studies analyse the multiple benefits that cultural events offer to destinations on an economic and socio-cultural level. Said benefits could include: improvement of infrastructure, new job openings (Getz, 2008), strengthening of the local entrepreneurship, generation of additional revenue for the local community, increase of interest in other cultures and traditions (Yoon, Lee & Lee, 2010, Doumi et al., 2016), reinforcement of social cohesion within communities, raising of awareness, increase of social activities, improvement of residents’ life and enhancement of their pride (Akhoondnejad, 2016). Other studies confirm that event tourism can have a negative impact on an economy (e.g. increase of prices in the destination), society (e.g. congestion, community disturbance), culture (e.g. commercialisation and alteration of customs), or the environment (e.g. increase of waste) (Chen, 2011, Doumi et al., 2016).

Cultural events include festivals, carnivals, commemorations, and religious events, usually based on local culture and resources. Thus, they are inevitably linked to the residents, who are part of the “attraction”,...
providing the event with an authentic note, while they can also be “event attendees” (Chen, 2011). Akhoondnejad (2016) claims that tourists perceive cultural events as authentic if they are organised by the residents according to the local customs and traditions. A positive evaluation by local communities regarding the quality, the organisation and the impact of local cultural events can guarantee the attendance of such events and thus their sustainability. Moreover, residents’ attitudes and behaviours can greatly influence the satisfaction and overall experience of tourists attending the events (Chen, 2011).

The present paper is associated with and emphasises on the study of small-scale annual cultural events in a less popular tourist destination, i.e. the island of Chios in Greece. Chios is not a well-known tourist destination, mainly because of the availability of alternative sources of income (mainly shipping and the cultivation of mastic trees). The three annual cultural events studied in the present paper are summarised in Table 1. The studied small-scale cultural events attract a large number of Greek and foreign tourists, which has been constantly increasing over the last years, thus enhancing tourism development and the destination’s popularity and having a positive impact on the island’s economy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rocket War</td>
<td>During the Rocket War on Holy Saturday the parishioners of two churches, i.e. the Church of Saint Markus and the Church of Panagia Erythiani, tease each other and fire “shots” at each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agas</td>
<td>Agas is a custom taking place each year on Clean Monday in the village of Mesta on Chios island. It can be traced back to the Ottoman occupancy of Greece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostra</td>
<td>Mostra takes place every year during the Carnival celebration in the village of Thymiana on Chios island. This special custom dates back to a time when pirates ruled the Aegean Sea.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Major Annual Cultural Events on Chios Island

**Research Methodology**

A structured questionnaire comprising of closed questions, classified in four categories, was used for the needs of the study. The first category investigates the awareness, participation and attendance of the customs by the participants of the study, the second one focuses on the participants’ opinions about the quality, potential and organisation of the customs, the third one investigates the possible impact of these customs on the society, economy, tourism, and natural environment of the area, and the fourth one deals with the participants’ social and demographic characteristics. The study was conducted from February to May 2017 via simple random sampling due to a small-scale variation with regard to the population. 550 questionnaires were handed out, out of which 470 were correctly filled out. The reliability of the questionnaires was tested using the appropriate methods. The data analysis was conducted with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS23). Moreover, numerical methods were applied for data synopsis and a cluster analysis was carried out in order to group similar observations. A k-means
analysis was deemed suitable due to the sample’s size. The predefined number of factors results from the study of the topic-related literature. The completion of the analysis was based on Cramer’s V and ANOVA tests.

**Research Results**

**Sample profile**

The data comprising the participants’ profile are summarised in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced/Widowed</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>Civil Servant</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>Private Employee</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>Freelancer</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Housewives/Househusbands</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>Income</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>&lt;5000</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>5001-12000</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>12001-25000</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;25000</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of residence on Chios island</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10 years</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;11 years</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Sample profile**

**Cluster Analysis**

The cluster analysis was based on the grouping of 42 variables and its results are summarised in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables b</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness of the persons involved</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local community’s contribution and support</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective co-operation between the participants</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance opportunities for all ages</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly linked/stick to tradition</td>
<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of emotional experiences for the residents</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of recreation/entertainment opportunities for families</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Event Organisation</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient information on events</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training/Educational background of the participants</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency of the custom’s organisation by the authorities</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient number of sponsors</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crucial contribution of local authorities to the organisation</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy access/Directional signposts</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suitable areas for the accommodation of large numbers of participants/visitors</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security during the event attendance</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Potential of an event</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong potential of an event’s artwork</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong potential of an event’s location</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large numbers of young participants in an event’s organisation</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association with current affairs</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of the residents’ pride in their village or hometown</td>
<td>4.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of the residents’ interest to preserve an area’s traditions</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement of residents’ sociability</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of excitement/euphoria</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Positive Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening of a local economy</td>
<td>4.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue generation for local authorities</td>
<td>4.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of local businesses’ profit</td>
<td>4.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in resident employment</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of a local community’s standard of living</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of a community’s cohesion</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents learn about their history, culture and traditions</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of an area’s popularity</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement of an island’s tourism development</td>
<td>4.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of overnight stays</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists/visitors learn about the history, customs and traditions of an area</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction of a large number of tourists</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists wish to revisit</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Negative Impacts</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural environment degradation</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air pollution</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congestion and parking difficulties</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of waste</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destruction of cultural monuments</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community disturbance</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*df=470, level of probability .05, sig<0.05

a Variables were measured on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Table 3. Means of Clusters
Cluster A – “Embracers”. The residents belonging to this group are mainly women (59.4%), while 62.4% belongs to the age group 18-35 years old. As far as their educational level is concerned, 44.1% had at least a bachelor degree while the majority of respondents (81.8%) resides on the island for more than 11 years. Individuals of this group comprised 41.7% of the total sample and strongly agree that the events on Chios island were very well organised, have strong potential and high quality and promote socio-economic and tourism benefits. However, they acknowledge the fact that events are being commercialised and that there is a need to enrich them. Finally, they seem less anxious about the negative impact of said events on the socio-cultural and natural environment. The characteristics of this group of residents were similar to those described by Madrigal (1995), Fredline and Faulkner (2000) and Chen (2011).

Cluster B – “Realists”. The residents belonging to this group are mainly men (50.2%), while 83.6% belongs to the age group 18-45 years old. As far as their educational level is concerned, 55.1% had at least a bachelor degree while the majority of respondents (83.6%) resides on the island for more than 11 years. Individuals of this group comprised 50.8% of the total sample. This label was used by Madrigal (1995), Fredline and Faulkner (2000), and Chen (2011) to describe residents who acknowledge that the events had both positive and negative impacts. These residents’ opinions on quality, organisation, events’ potential, and positive impact are not as strongly expressed as those supported by individuals from Cluster A. Furthermore, Realists agree that the events have a negative impact on the society and natural environment.

Cluster C – “Neutrals”. The residents belonging to this group are mainly men (60.6%), while 39.4% belongs to the age group 36-45 years old. As far as their educational level is concerned, 42.4% had at least a bachelor degree while the majority of respondents (75.8%) resides on the island for more than 11 years. comprised 7.5% of the total sample. In this group, the residents evaluated most of their responses with low scores. As opposed to Madrigal (1995), who defined not only the groups of “Lovers” and “Realists”, but also the group of “Haters”, the third group in the present study does not express a strong disagreement or agreement. Individuals of this group simply support a neutral position with respect to the perceived quality, organisation, potential and impact of the events.

The socio-demographic profile of the aforementioned groups is of particular interest, with the last group being the one with the highest income compared to the others. In addition, individuals of this group reside, on average, fewer years on Chios island.

Conclusions

The findings of this study both resemble and differ from those of previous studies. The Embracers’ and Realists’ cluster exhibited characteristics that were similar to those of earlier studies (Madrigal, 1995, Fredline and Faulkner, 2000, Chen, 2011). However, the Neutrals’ cluster, which is presented in this study, is new and has not been addressed in previous literature. Furthermore, the present study was enriched by residents’ opinions about the impact but also about the quality, organisation and potential of the events.

These findings have also marketing and political implications as local authorities should consider residents internal customers/tourists on the one hand and co-creators of the tourism experience on the other hand. Thus, residents are to be taken into account both for the internal marketing and the planning of tourism development policies.

In conclusion, this study suggests that similar studies should be carried out to monitor residents’ perceptions related to the development of cultural event tourism in other competitive destinations in Greece. Moreover,
it would be of great research interest to test factors (endogenous or exogenous) that affect the shaping of the attitudes and opinions of the aforementioned clusters.

References


SESSION 11

TOURISTS AND BUSINESS PERFORMANCE
OPERANT RESOURCES IN EXPERIENTIAL CONSUMPTION: SELF-EFFICACY VERSUS PERCEIVED BEHAVIORAL CONTROL

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Ana Cláudia Campos, Universidade do Algarve, Portugal, acludiacampos@yahoo.co.uk

Introduction
This study explores the concepts of “value creation and value co-creation” in experiential settings. By acknowledging what tourists value during the whole process of buying, enjoying and remembering a tourist trip, innovative firms may utilize the knowledge in order to enhance the experience value for the tourists. However, more research is needed regarding definition and measurement of physical, emotional, and psychological participation, and the relative importance of self-efficacy and perceived control in value creation and co-creation processes. As service is delineated as the application of competences (knowledge and skills) by one entity for the benefit of another (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2006), tourist firms need to recognize how experience value is created and co-created as a result of mutual exchange throughout the whole experience process. Hence, resources and the making of experience value is a key to acknowledge innovation potentials in service systems (Spohrer and Maglio, 2010).

Experience value is defined by Prebensen et al. (2014: 254) as ‘…comprised of the benefits the tourist perceives from a journey and stay in a destination, including those assets or resources that the tourist, other tourists and the host bring to the process of co-creating experiences’. This work adopts this definition and explores interaction processes from a value perspective, which is why and how customers interact. The present work is founded in a new stream on research focusing on customer value in experience consumption. Furthermore, this paper adopts the Service-Dominant (S-D) logic of marketing in order to explore how firms can improve the experience value for the customers by developing, facilitating and providing their offerings in such a way that tourists can and will partake in producing experience value in various ways and to different degree.

A tourist experience is a blend of many dimensions that come together (Shaw & Ivens, 2002), in which each dimension may affect the tourist perception of the process and outcome of the experience differently. On that matter, Mossberg (2007) discussed dimensions within the individual that may involve the consumer emotionally, physically, intellectually and spiritually. Experience dimensions may include physical surroundings (e.g. Berman & Evens, 1995; Bitner 1992; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996) and social environments, including interaction with employees and other customers (e.g. Arnould & Price, 1993; Silkapit & Fisk, 1985; Walls et al., 2011) in which the tourist more or less interact. Interactions with service personnel and other participants at destinations, along with the newly acquired perceptions of the setting, may evoke new tourist experiences. It is advantageous that tourism firms and destinations can carefully facilitate enhanced tourist experiences by motivating, involving and educating the tourists to partake in value creation and co-creation processes.

Co-creation of experiences, as a theoretical construct, considers the consumer an active agent in the consumption and production of values (Dabholkar, 1990), and regards customer involvement and
engagement as essential for defining and designing the experience. In addition to participation and involvement, co-creating experiences during a vacation involves interaction with other people (e.g., host and guest) and with products and services in various servicescapes (Bitner, 1992). Typical interactions at a tourist destination are not limited to relationships between humans only, but the atmosphere and physical surroundings are shown to be of importance for consumer perception and satisfaction as well (Bitner, 1992; Ryan, 1997; Arnould et al., 2002). The hosts, e.g. front line personnel, the tour guide, etc., are shown to play an extremely important role in co-creating valuable experience atmospheres in tourism (Mossberg, 1995; Ap and Wong, 2001; Arnould et al. 2002). In addition, the relationships between the guest and other guests (unfamiliar) are also shown to be of importance for consumer experience (Lehtinen and Lehtinen, 1991; Grove and Fisk, 1997; Ryan, 1997; Zeithaml and Bitner, 2003). As such, a tourist meets and mingles with hosts and guests, in various atmospheres and physical surroundings, which influence the tourist experience. There might however, be a distinction between the tourist creating an experience for him or herself, alone versus together with others (Prebensen and Foss, 2011). These situations may reflect the distinction between value creation and value co-creation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host</th>
<th>Alone</th>
<th>With others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>guest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With others</td>
<td>Value creation</td>
<td>Value co-creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>No value</td>
<td>Value creation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another distinction that needs to be addressed is the level of knowledge and skills in the various experiences. As a skilled person (in a relevant context) will be much more confident and have the ability to create value for himself to a larger extent than an unskilled person, the more knowledge and skills a person holds, the easier value may be created alone, and vice versa.

Tourism research reveals that the tourist partake in creating and co-creating his or her own value through physical and psychological participation (Prebensen and Xie, 2017). The Prebensen and Xie, study further shows the imperative of mastering (felt self-efficacy) in the value creating process. Theory of planned behavior is frequently used to explain and to some extent predict consumer behavior, such as active participating in creating and co-creating experience value. The present work aims therefor to explore into

1) how a tourist partake in value creation and co-creation processes (how does value come to live in tourist experiences),

2) the relative importance of self-efficacy versus perceived behavioral control in experiential consumption, and

3) The relative effect of self-efficacy versus perceived behavioral control effect on participation in value creation and value co-creation processes

**Methods & materials**

First, participant observation will be employed to identify typical value creation and value co-creation situation in tourist experiences. Next, the identified value creation and value co-creation situations will be explored using two different theoretical perspectives, self-efficacy and theory of planned behavior as underpinning in order to propose hypothesis. Then, the proposed hypotheses will be tested by an experimental design. Different types of experiences (including utilitarian and hedonic dominant services) taking place during a tourist trip are studied using a scenario-based approach.
Research and Results
The data collection will take place in the summer of 2017. The authors expect that the data will fit the model and that the hypothesis are supported.

Discussion
The concepts of value creation and co-creation will be discussed. Based on the theoretical discussion, propositions for firms to become more innovative in experience based industries are suggested. Finally, examples of innovation elements that firms can focus on to enhance the perceived value of an experience are given.

References


PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT SYSTEMS: DOES MARKET FOCUSED LEARNING AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION IMPROVE TRAVEL AGENCY PERFORMANCE?

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Introduction

Essential to successful organisations, performance measurement involves “setting goals, developing a set of performance measures, collecting, analysing, reporting, interpreting, reviewing and acting on performance data” (Smith & Bititci, 2016, p. 3). Within tourism research, studies exploring performance measurement typically focus on quantitative accounting-based performance indicators, contextualised specifically within the hotel industry (Sainaghi et al., 2017). However, the intangibility of many tourism services and the increasing importance of longer-term financial measures may render a reliance on traditional accounting based measurement systems unsuitable (Phillips & Louvieris, 2005).

Therefore, more comprehensive performance management systems, which include both financial and non-financial performance measures, have received considerable attention throughout contemporary business research (Homburg et al., 2012). Homburg et al., (2012) refer to such systems as being comprehensive performance measurement systems (CMPMS). Here, they contend that central to these systems is the degree of comprehensiveness, which consists of the three components: breadth (i.e., financial, historical and contemporary information); strategy fit (strategic targets of the organisation); and the yield of information related to cause-and-effect relationships (i.e., the value chain).

This ‘market-focused learning’ is concerned with how an organisation collects, processes, analyses, and uses information relating to the market it operates within (O’Cass & Weerawardena, 2010). The collection of information goes some way to answering the questions posed by CMPMS, as it can illuminate a gamut of both external and internal, and financial and non-financial metrics important to the organisation. Resultantly, we hypothesise that, in acting as a progenitor for both macro- and micro- market related data collection, CMPMS provide necessary direction and structure which positively affects market-focused learning (H1). The capability to learn from the market, and to share the product of this learning with employees, provides an organisation with the foundation from which to compete (O’Cass & Weerawardena, 2010; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005). Market-focused learning stems from a proclivity to proactively explore and refine new and existing market segments, keep abreast of competitor actions and advancements, and maintaining an understanding of sector-wide innovation and technological advancements (Hooley et al.,
If the information gleaned from market-focused learning is collected in a robust fashion and subsequently analysed, shared internally and used appropriately, it can serve as a source of competitive advantage. Given this, we hypothesise that market-focused learning positively impacts upon the overall performance of the organisation (H3).

Further, in compliance with strong market-focused learning and the desire to understand sector-wide advancements and innovations, many organisations internally foster a degree of entrepreneurial orientation in order to facilitate long-lasting success (Zellweger & Sieger, 2012). Entrepreneurial orientation consists of five dimensions: autonomy, innovativeness, proactivity, risk-taking, and competitive aggressiveness (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). When considering innovativeness, organisations are considered as having an entrepreneurial orientation when there is explicit managerial openness to and acceptance of new, unorthodox, or revolutionary approaches or technologies in order to improve the firm’s core activities. With regards to risk-taking, entrepreneurially oriented firms are typically less concerned with maintaining the status-quo, have higher rates of project approval, and pursue riskier projects where returns are less certain but could potentially be higher (Martin & Javalgi, 2016). Further, entrepreneurial orientation is underpinned by proactivity. Here, as with CMPMS, there is an emphasis on long-term orientation and prolonged success, strategic advancements, and the impact of being first to market with a given experience, brand, product, or service (Zellweger & Sieger, 2012; Martin & Javalgi, 2016). Resultantly, we hypothesise that CMPMS positively affects entrepreneurial orientation (H2).

Firm overall performance comprises of three dimensions: customer satisfaction, market-effectiveness, and current anticipated profitability (Vorhies & Morgan, 2005). Anticipated profitability, is concerned with the expected financial performance of the organisation. This includes the profitability of the business unit, the return on investment achieved by shareholders, and whether the performance of the firm has met predetermined financial goals over a given period. Market-effectiveness is concerned with the organisation’s place within the market, but is again likely to directly impact upon the financial performance of the organisation (Morgan et al., 2009). This dimension of overall firm performance considers the organisation’s growth relative to competitors, whether revenues have increased, the extent and rate of customer acquisition, and the extent to which sales to existing customers have increased. The final indicator of firm overall performance centres on customer satisfaction. Here, customer retention, sustained positive customer feedback, and the realisation of a defined value proposition for customers are emphasised (Homburg et al., 2005).

Given the parallels between innovativeness, proactivity, competitive understanding, satisfaction, and growth, we hypothesise that firms with strong entrepreneurial orientation generally experience better overall performance (H4). Finally, as the overall performance of an organisation is drawn from many financial and non-financial considerations, and with many of these parameters measured explicitly within CMPMS, organisations where the comprehensive nature of CMPMS is embraced may perform better. As such, this study posits that CMPMS positively affects overall firm performance (H5). Figure 1, represents a holistic graphical demonstration of the hypotheses.
Method and Results

The data for this study was collected by through a questionnaire directed at employees of a leading travel agency with six branches located within two major cities in Iran. These branches are interconnected with regards to their marketing management strategies and work closely together in order to service their customers. To ensure content validity, the items of the constructs were adapted from constructs established within extant literature (Homburg et al., 2012; Martin & Javalgi, 2016; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005). Judgmental sampling was used in this study. This sampling approach has been established as an effective way of collecting data where the main purpose is theoretical advancement rather than generalisation, and is used frequently in tourism and hospitality studies (Wells et al., 2016; Karatepe et al., 2010). The mean replacement approach was employed to overcome 87 missing values across the dataset. Mean replacement “replaces the missing values for a variable with the mean value of that variable calculated from all valid responses” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 53). This approach has the advantage of not altering the sample size and the sample mean of variables (Hair et al., 2010).

The conceptual framework and hypothesis was assessed using PLS-SEM, as it is suitable for testing complex models with comparatively small sample sizes, reflective, formative and higher-order modes (Hair et al., 2017). In this study, as per previous research (Homburg et al., 2012; Martin & Javalgi, 2016), CMPMS, firm overall performance and entrepreneurial orientation were conceptualized as higher-order measures composed of first-order factors.

The convergent validity of reflective constructs was assessed using composite reliability (CR) factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). The discriminant validity was tested in two ways. First, following Fornell and Larcker (1981), we found that the square root of the AVE of all constructs were larger than all other cross correlations. The correlations among all constructs were below the threshold (0.70). Second, heterotrait–monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations approach was used (Henseler et al., 2015), with all valignificantly different from 1; establishing discriminant validity.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to confirm that each higher-order construct (CMPMS, entrepreneurial orientation and firm overall performance) was reflectively represented by their underlying constructs. The findings show that all item loadings exceed the minimum threshold (0.50) under the respective dimensions (Hair et al., 2010). Following Becker et al. (2012), the repeated measures approach
was used to estimate the PLS-SEM hierarchical component models (HCMs). We find that CMPMS, entrepreneurial orientation and firm overall performance are higher-order constructs represented reflectively by their underlying first-order dimensions.

Prior to examining the hypothesized relationships between constructs through PLS-SEM, the predictive relevance (Q2), the effect sizes (f2), the SEM-PLS goodness-of-fit (GoF) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) fit index were calculated. Following the PLS-SEM blindfolding procedure, Q2 using cross-validated redundancy procedure, shows that all Q2 values were greater than 0 (Figure 2). To measure the f2, Cohen’s effect sizes recommendation was used. The results show that the f2 values for the significant paths exceeded the recommended value (0.02). Following Wells et al. (2016), the GoF index was calculated. GoF was 0.44 which shows good model fit. The SRMR value for the model was 0.062, which is less than the recommended value of 0.08 (Henseler et al., 2014).

As exhibited in Figure 2, CMPMS negatively and significantly influenced market-focused learning ($\beta = -0.391, p < 0.01$). CMPMS positively affected entrepreneurial orientation ($\beta = 0.465, p < 0.01$); Market-focused learning positively affected firm overall performance ($\beta = 0.117, p < 0.01$) and CMPMS positively affected firm overall performance ($\beta = 0.198, p < 0.01$). However, entrepreneurial orientation negatively affected firm overall performance ($\beta = -0.221, p < 0.01$). The model explained 35.3% of market-focused learning, 31.6% of entrepreneurial orientation and 31.2% of firm overall performance.

Figure 2. Results of structural model.

As shown above, the findings suggest that CMPMS negatively and significantly influences market-focused learning, contradicting H1. However, supporting H2, CMPMS was found to positively affect entrepreneurial orientation. Similarly, H3 and H5 were supported by the findings, which suggest that market-focused learning and CMPMS positively affect firm overall performance. Nonetheless, H4 was not supported by the findings, with entrepreneurial orientation found to negatively affect overall firm performance in this study.

Discussion

Although performance measurement literature emerged in the 1960s, research regarding tourism performance measurement is in its infancy. This study examined an integrated conceptual model of
CMPMS, market-focused learning and entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance. H1 predicted that the CMPMS has a negative impact on market-focused learning. The strategy fit, breath and cause-and-effect approaches allow agency to increase their learning in negative way. This is in contrast with previous studies. Hypotheses 2 and 5 proposed a direct positive relationship among CMPMS, entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance. Agency owners with high levels of CMPMS have confidence in their ability to attain high levels of performance and leadership (Martin & Javalgi, 2016; Homburg et al., 2005). H3 proposed a direct positive relationship between a market-focused learning and firm overall performance. This was supported empirically demonstrating how leaning from market influence agency current anticipated profitability, market effectiveness and customer satisfaction (O’Cass & Weerawardena, 2010). H4 predicated the entrepreneurial orientation to have a direct relationship with overall performance. The results indicated a negative relationship between these two constructs. It seems the agency should revisit their innovativeness, riskiness and proactiveness leadership strategies in order to achieve positive overall firm performance. Taken together, these results provide new knowledge advancing our understanding of the mechanism by which CMPMS, market-focused learning and entrepreneurial orientation affect performance in the travel agency context. We also confirm that CMPMS, entrepreneurial orientation and overall firm performance are higher-order constructs with their underlying factors.

Finally, this study is potentially limited by the restrictive nature of the quantitative data collection method adopted. Future research should adopt a mixed methods approach, which also includes a qualitative phase, in order to provide a more holistic understanding of the overall performance of travel agencies. Additionally, data could be sought from customers and Iranian tourism trade associations in order to test or supplement the findings of this study by drawing upon perspectives other than those contained within the organization. Further, the data analysed throughout this study was collected from employees of a single travel agency in Iran, potentially limiting the generalizability of the findings due to both the geographic and organizational specificity of the data. Future research could consider drawing upon data from different geographic of organizational contexts.

References


MOTIVATION FOR A CAREER IN HOTEL AND TOURISM INDUSTRY: A SELF-DETERMINATION APPROACH

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Background of the Study

In recent years (2008-2014), Portugal has been in a deep economic and financial crisis characterized by high levels of unemployment affecting, in particular, young people. The youth (under 25 years old) unemployment rate increased to 39% in 2016, up from 27% in 2006. However, since 2015, the Portuguese economy has shown a moderate sign of growth with an important contribution by the Hotel and Tourism industry. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council Report (WTTC, 2017), the direct contribution of travel and tourism to the Portuguese GDP in 2016 was EUR 11.9 bn (6.4% of GDP). This is forecast to rise by 2.8% to EUR 12.2 bn in 2017. In 2016, travel and tourism directly supported 371,500 jobs (8.1% of total employment), and this figure is expected to rise by 3.4% in 2017. This dynamic economic activity is attracting the younger generation to the travel and tourism industry as a career path. Oficial data from the Portuguese Department of Higher Education website reports that from 2014 to 2016, the total number of candidates for tourism and hotel management courses had grown about 20% (e.g., University of Algarve, 24 %; Estoril Higher Institute for Tourism and Hotel Studies, 19%).

The present study attempts to identify the factors that motivate students from a Lisbon based university to search for jobs in the hotel and tourism industry after completing their academic education in tourism and hotel management. The framework of this research is self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) which states that human motivations can take different forms. Self-determination theory (SDT) allows one to explore work related motivation as a multidimensional construct and to identify different forms of motivation (Meyer & Gagné, 2008). We used this well-established theory to explore a possible relationship between types of motivation among students to search for a job in the hotel and tourism industry, and students’ commitment to their courses and commitment to their university.

Self-determination theory may help to explain students’ commitment to completing their formal education and the psychological states and behaviours that can transform students’ low levels of motivation into an active search for a job (Meyer & Gagné, 2008; Sacks, 2006). Linking motivation to commitment seems important because the concepts, while different, are related and can combine to influence behaviour and drive action (Meyer, Beker & Vandenberghe, 2004).
Theoretical Framework

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a theory of human motivation that is increasingly being used in the field of employment and organizational behaviour. It argues for a focus on the quality of workers’ motivation, over production. Motivation that is based on meaning and interest is shown to be superior to motivation that is based on pressure and rewards. Work environments that make employees feel competent and autonomous, influence their motivations, personal goals, and work values. The application of this theory to university students can be useful for understanding the different types of motivations that affect their behaviours in searching for a career in the hotel and tourism industry.

SDT offers a multidimensional conceptualization of motivation, at both the level and quality of motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT suggests that employees, in general, develop two forms of motivation— intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is when employees are engaged in their work because it is a source of satisfaction or pleasure. This type of motivation among undergraduate students may stem from a perception that a job in the hotel and tourism will make for a pleasant professional career; or, it may represent a way of life that is fully aligned with their personal values. Extrinsic motivation refers to undertaking an activity for instrumental reasons such as rewards or social recognition (Meyer & Gagné, 2008).

Extrinsic motivation has been termed the dominant type of motivation and can take different forms. It can: reflect a desire to obtain rewards (external material); seek to avoid social disapproval (external social); seek to avoid feelings of shame or guilt (introjection); attempt to reach a valued personal objective or something aligned with personal values (identification). Combinations of the different kinds of motivation are as follows: external motivation and introjection involve more external influence and less authenticity and are considered forms of controlled regulation; identified motivation occurs when employees give great importance or value to performing their tasks (Gagné et al, 2014); external and introjected types of extrinsic motivation have been called a form of controlled motivation; and a combined identified and intrinsic motivation is an autonomous motivation. Autonomous motivation leads to higher levels of performance and initiative and is linked with strong work commitment behaviours (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Examples of these different types of motivation applied to undergraduate students are described in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic motivation</th>
<th>Because I search for a job that will bring me pleasure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identified motivation</td>
<td>Because I search for a job aligned with my personal values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjected motivation</td>
<td>Because I search for a job to prove to myself that I can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External motivation</td>
<td>Because I search for a job that allows me to have a good life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External social motivation</td>
<td>Because I search for a job that helps me to avoid being criticized by others (e.g., colleagues, friends, family)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>I will do little to search for a job in H &amp; T because I don’t think is worth putting effort into</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Reasons to Search for a Career in the Hotel & Tourism Industry: Sample Items

Method
Participants
The sample size consisted of 305 students, 34.8% males and 65.2% females, from different academic years. Participants’ ages ranged from 19 to 35 years, and the age group with the highest representation, 66%, was 20 to 25 years old.

Measures and Procedure
Motivation was measured using the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS; Gagné et al., 2014). MWMS comprises of 19 items distributed across five dimensions: intrinsic motivation; identified; introjected; external as a second-order factor (social and material are combined in another first-order factor); and amotivation. Each item was rated on a seven-point response scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 7 = completely. Each item was adapted for the purpose of this study to evaluate the motivation for a career in the hotel and tourism industry.

The adaptation of the MWMS also included a faithful translation into the Portuguese language and sensitization to Portuguese culture, in particular, to the specificities of the sample under study. The translation into Portuguese was carried out by two researchers who possessed experience in the area of tourism and organizational behaviour and fluency in the English language. The questionnaire was given to 10 students to evaluate the comprehension level of each item.

After administering the questionnaire during classes and collecting the data from the sample (n=305), we first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of MWMS in order to compare two alternative fit models. The alternative structures chosen for comparison were a Five-Factor Solution (original structure according to SDT) and a One Factor Model (all items loading on one factor statistics). The fitting test was assessed through several indices: a Chi-square statistic, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), a widely used measure (Bentler, 1990). Values between 0.90 and 0.95 for the CFI and GFI indicate an adequate fit, and higher than 0.95 an excellent fit. Values smaller than 0.10 for the RMSEA indicate an acceptable fit, values smaller than 0.08 a good fit, and values lower than 0.05 indicate an excellent fit (McCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>χ2/gl</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Original model</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One factor model</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Compared Fit Indices

Results confirm the original factorial structure (Figure 1) model fits the data reasonably well (χ2/gl= 2.44; CFI = .93; GFI=.90; RMSEA = .069). The alternative One-Factor Model does not present an acceptable adjustment (Table 2). The internal consistency was assessed with the use of Cronbach alpha. Values varied from 0.71 (intrinsic motivation) to 0.91 (external social motivation).
The variables, commitment to the university and commitment to the course were assessed by an adaptation of Allen and Meyer’s (1997) three-component organizational commitment model (all α > .70), using a 7-point scale (1: absolutely disagree; 7: absolutely agree). Sample items for commitment to the university were:

Affective University Commitment (AUC). *I would be very happy to spend the rest of my education with this university.*

Calculative University Commitment (CUC). *It would be costly for me to leave this university now.*

Normative University Commitment (NUC). *I do not feel any moral obligation to remain in this university (reverse).*
Sample items for commitment to the course were:

- **Affective Course Commitment (ACC).** *This course has a great deal of personal meaning to me.*
- **Calculative Course Commitment (CCC).** *I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this course.*
- **Normative Course Commitment (NCC).** *I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current course* (reverse).

A final phase of the assessment included a self-report questionnaire to gather demographic data (gender, age, academic year, and grade average). The students completed and submitted the paper-based self-report questionnaire during class time between April and May 2017.

**Results**

Descriptive statistics as well as inter-correlations for all variables included in the study are reported in Table 3. It is possible to verify that the identified (M=6.05), external material (M=5.87), and intrinsic motivation (M=5.75) present the highest rates of motivation for a career in the hotel and tourism industry. External social dimension reveals a smaller source of motivation for the students. It is also important to mention that amotivation establishes a negative and significant relationship with the two dimensions of autonomous motivation and presents a positive relation with external social.

Finally, the three components of the commitment to the university variable and the commitment to the course variable are mainly associated with intrinsic, identified and introjected motivation. This suggests that as motivation increases, students’ sense of belonging to the university and to the course also increases. The two dimensions of external motivation do not indicate any association with affective commitment. However, as expected, the absence of motivation (amotivation) has a negative significant association with affective commitment with the course \((r = -0.12^*)\) showing that amotivated students do not feel committed to the course. A high positive correlation \((r = 0.72^{**})\) is found between affective commitment to the course and affective commitment to the university. Students who demonstrate higher levels of commitment to the course also develop a higher sense of commitment to the university.

To evaluate the relationship between motivation and commitment, we used SEM (structural equation modelling) with AMOS software. All included dimensions were previously centred in order to avoid risk of multicollinearity. The absence of multicollinearity among the predictors was verified by Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Likewise, none of the dimensions show a deviation from the normal distribution, skewness <3 and kurtosis <10 (Kline, 1998). Amotivation was not included in the analysis. To facilitate interpretation of results, the analysis was divided between commitment to the university and commitment to the course. Means, standard deviations and correlations are shown in Table 3.
Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intrinsic</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identified</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.533**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Introjected</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.321**</td>
<td>.352**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ext. Social</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>.144*</td>
<td>.138*</td>
<td>.578**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ext. Material</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.324**</td>
<td>.308**</td>
<td>.332**</td>
<td>.281**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Amotivation</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>-.164*</td>
<td>-.304**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.140*</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. AUC</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.136*</td>
<td>.153*</td>
<td>.263**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. CUC</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.143**</td>
<td>.344**</td>
<td>.237**</td>
<td>151**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.298**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. NUC</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.123*</td>
<td>.152*</td>
<td>.381**</td>
<td>.250**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.518**</td>
<td>.485**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ACC</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.121*</td>
<td>.203**</td>
<td>.215**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.164**</td>
<td>-.126*</td>
<td>.725**</td>
<td>.627**</td>
<td>.763**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. CCC</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.124*</td>
<td>.152*</td>
<td>.398**</td>
<td>.311**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.210**</td>
<td>.423**</td>
<td>.518**</td>
<td>.283**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. NCC</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.159**</td>
<td>.154**</td>
<td>.401**</td>
<td>.274**</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>.419**</td>
<td>.298**</td>
<td>.485**</td>
<td>.529**</td>
<td>.518**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; **p<.01; n.s. not significant

Motivation and Commitment to the University

The model (Figure 2) has an explanatory capacity of 7.4% (R2adjusted=0.074) of the variability of affective university commitment, 12.8% of the variability of calculative university commitment, and 14.9% of the variability of normative university commitment. Only the trajectories “Introjected $\rightarrow$ AUC” ($\beta=.23; Z=3.8; p<.001$), “Introjected $\rightarrow$ CUC” ($\beta=.27; Z=3.9; p<.001$), and “Introjected $\rightarrow$ NUC” ($\beta=.33; Z=4.8; p<.001$) are statistically significant. The remaining dimensions of motivation did not prove to be significant predictors of commitment to the university.

![Figure 2. Final Model: Motivation and Commitment to the University](image-url)
Motivation and Commitment to the Course

Analysing commitment to the course, once again the introjected dimension presents significant and positive effects with the three dimensions of commitment (p<.01). The external social motivation also has a significant effect on the calculative and normative commitment. See Figure 3.

Conclusions

Our main findings can be summarized as follows: First, we found that identified motivation (a career in the H&T industry is aligned with my personal values and desired life style), external material motivation (a career that will allow me to have good rewards), and intrinsic motivation (I will have an interesting, funny and stimulating job) are the factors that present higher rates of motivation for a career in the hotel and tourism industry. These results suggest the reasons students and graduates may decide to work in the hotel and tourism industry. Also, students may see this industry as an attractive employer (Blomme, Van Rheede & Tromp, 2009) and as glamorous (Richardson, 2009). Second, we found that external social motivation (with a career in the H & T industry, others will respect me more) reveals a smaller source of motivation for the students. Third, only introjected motivation (a career in the H & T industry will make me feel proud of myself) is a positive and significant predictor of commitment to the university (p<.01). It is suggested that undergraduates who develop introjected motivation and want to work in the hotel and tourism industry have a positive attitude towards this industry and develop a stronger commitment to the university and to the course. This type of motivation strongly influences the development of a certain feeling of belonging and affection (affective commitment), a sense of moral obligation to remain in the university and in the course (normative commitment), and an awareness of the personal costs associated with leaving the university early and giving up the course (calculative commitment). Finally, this study provides an understanding of undergraduates’ motivations and expectations with regard to a future career in the hotel and tourism industry which may be useful for addressing the relatively high employee turnover in the industry (Blomme et al., 2008; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Hotel and tourism schools may also be able to use these findings to guide their students’ expectations and career prospects and goals in the hotel and tourism industry.
References


**MOTIVATIONS TO TRAVEL TO MACAU, A MULTIGROUP ANALYSIS**

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**Introduction**

The number of tourists visiting casino resorts has increased in recent years (Sui & Baloglu, 2003). This visit is mostly driven by leisure purposes where gambling is one of the many activities they could do during their stay (Zeng, Prentice, & King, 2014). Most of the research about gambling destinations focus on market segmentation to understand who they are, how they travel and what activities, benefits they are looking for. The extremely focused research in gambling tends to forget that for most of the tourists, gambling is not the only motivation they have. In fact, in Macau leisure gamblers spend less time in gamble than regular gamblers, they also spend less time in gambling compared to those who gamble on a regular basis (Shaffer & Korn, 2002).

The tourism literature offers a multitude of motives to travel starting from the widely known push and pull motivations of Dann (1977) to a context-specific motivation models (e.g., Cohen, 1979; Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994; Hsu & Huang, 2008; Iso-Ahola, 1982) motivations to visit a certain destination have been explained by learning motives (Klenosky, 2002), socialization motives (Saayman & Saayman, 2012), adventure (Cha, Mccleary, & Uysal, 1995), relax (Turnbull & Uysal, 1995) and nightlife (Kozak, 2002) are some of the motives that drive tourists to travel for leisure or other purposes. This research aims to bridge the gap of literature assessing tourists’ motivations to visit Macau, where gambling is only one of the motivations, a structural equation model was developed and tested, also the sample was depicted in two groups, gamblers, and non-gamblers, to depict how their motivations differ by means of a multi-group analysis.

**Literature Review**

Motivation is particularly human motivation has been one the most popular topics in psychology (e.g., Murray, 1938). In general, motivation refers to the “factors that activate, direct, and sustain goal-directed behavior” (Nevid, 2012, p. 284). The goal here may be wanting, interest, or need to desire that drives someone in a certain way. Need refers to “a disequilibrium which stresses toward equilibrium (Murray, 1938, p. 67). Motivation involves the physiological and/or biological, social, emotional, and cognitive elements that trigger behavior (Gnoth, 1997). The arousal of these factors called motive. It relates to the reason for an action trigger or strengthens the behavior (Crompton, 1979; Kim, Noh, & Jogaratnam, 2007).
Inclusively conceptual and empirical studies indicate that two main types of motivations influence the direction and the strength of the behavior. The first one is the intrinsic motivation, which arises from the intrinsic value of the outcome (enjoyment or interest) for an individual and extrinsic motivation, which arises from the desire to obtain some outcomes (reward) or to avoid negative consequences (Dann, 1977; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Solomon, Dahl, White, Zaichkowsky, & Polegato, 2014; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Given that internal and external forces, motivation plays a major role in the decision-making process for consumers particularly for tourists (Mansfeld, 1992). Therefore, the motivations of people influence the choice of a visit to a certain tourism destination.

**Conceptual model**

The model tested consider that tourists travel to Macau with multi motivations and their motivations influence their expenditures, it is also assumed that gambling tourists and non-gambling tourists have different motivations that lead to the different level of expenditures in Macau. (Figure 1).

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**Figure 1 – The list of hypotheses to be tested**

![Diagram of motivations to travel to Macau and their corresponding hypotheses]

$H^1$: Prestige motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.

$H^2$: Relax motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.
H1: Cultural motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.

H2: Nightlife motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.

H3: Value for money motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.

H4: Sports motivations explain the motivation to travel to Macau.

H5: Motivations influence the level of spending in Macau.

H6: Gamblers and non-gamblers have different motivations and their motivations influence expenses.

Methodology

The targeted population of this study was international tourists who visited Macau. Considering the purpose of the study and the nature of the respondents, a non-probability sampling technique was used in the study. Specifically, data was collected through judgmental sampling. The questionnaires were conducted self-administrated manner and distributed and monitored by field surveyors. In an effort to increase the response rate, the field surveyors were instructed to approach every other traveler found at designated locations including airport, ferry terminal, hotels, casinos, and bus stations. 1,200 questionnaires were distributed to potential respondents who were agreed to participate to fill out the questionnaire. Of these, 992 questionnaires were found to be useful, which represents an 82.6% response rate. The data was collected between September and December 2014. Data collection was conducted in Chinese (Mandarin). In the questionnaire, all items were originally developed in English. In order to ensure reliability and validity, the questionnaire items translated into Chinese using back-translation method (Brislin, 1986). The faculty members of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University and those in Institute for Tourism Studies who were fluent in both languages further tested the cross-linguistic comparability of the questionnaire.

Model

The research model was assessed through Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), using AMOS 22.0 software. SEM is conducted to measure the six motivations constructs which it is not feasible to measure directly and relations within these constructs called path analysis. The maximum likelihood estimation method of SEM was applied to the analysis as it is robust to minor variations of normality (Hellier, Geursen, Carr, & Rickard, 2003) and to estimate a set of model parameters that maximize the likelihood of observing the true value of the population, with normal distribution (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Indicators to assess normal distribution of the parameters were tested and could be provided under request. Specifically, a three-step approach was employed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The first is the measurement model, i.e., it starts with common assumptions about items and their relationships to the dependent factor and sources of error (Marôco, 2010), through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). To test measurement model reliability, Convergent and Discriminant Validity was first conducted and then other statistical tools were used for data analysis such as correlation analysis. The second stage was to perform structural equation modelling to test and validate the hypothesis established, i.e., validate the structural relationships between the latent constructs in the research model (Ng, Sambasivan, & Zubaidah, 2011). The third step was to perform a multi-group analysis that allows depicting if there are different motivation between gamblers and non-gamblers.
Results

The CFA of the measurement model specifies the relationship of each observed variable with the latent construct. The sample was randomly divided in two (496 each). The results showed a good overall fit for both, suggesting that the CFA structure is feasible for any sample of data, which ensures the generalizability of the results. This is confirmed by CFA estimate values, indicated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Standardized Regression Weights</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to spend time with people I care deeply about.</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because my friends/relatives have been there before.</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>21.04***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because my friends/relatives have not been before.</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>19.75***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because I have been there before.</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>19.71***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to relax.</td>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to be emotionally and physically refreshed.</td>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>31.96***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to get away from home.</td>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>22.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to do nothing at all.</td>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>19.13***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to increase my knowledge of new places.</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to visit historical and cultural sites.</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>18.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because it has a different culture.</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>20.45***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau for local food.</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>20.29***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to seek adventure.</td>
<td>Nightlife</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to meet people of opposite sex.</td>
<td>Nightlife</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>19.25***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to have fun.</td>
<td>Nightlife</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>18.84***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because it has good nightlife and entertainment.</td>
<td>Nightlife</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>18.48***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to be active.</td>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to engage in sports.</td>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>28.99***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to get close to nature.</td>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>29.30***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to enjoy good weather.</td>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>26.82***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau to meet local people.</td>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>26.10***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because it offers good shopping opportunities.</td>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because it offers good value for money.</td>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>11.13***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came to Macau because it is a well-publicized destination.</td>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>9.60***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results show that prestige motivation is explained by the tourists will be with the people they care about (0.8) and just because their friends and relatives have been there before (0.73). Relaxing motivations are the true essence of their trip (0.86) where they expect to be emotionally and physically refreshed (0.90). Cultural motivations refer to their self-development (I came to Macau to increase my knowledge of new places, 0.77), and because Macau has a different culture (0.72) and Local Food (0.72). Nightlife refers to socialize (I came to Macau to meet people of opposite sex, 0.74) or only to have fun (0.72). Sports motivations are explained by the will to engage in sports (0.89) or to be close to nature (0.90). Furthermore, an average variance extracted (AVE), i.e., the degree to which the measurement items are explained by the construct and are dissimilar, above 0.5 is adequate for convergent discriminant validity (Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005). In this sense, Table 2 shows the results of Convergent and Discriminant Validity.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of the Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>MSV</th>
<th>ASV</th>
<th>Cultural</th>
<th>Prestige</th>
<th>Relaxing</th>
<th>Nightlife</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nightlife</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the analysis of construct reliability, a component reliability (CR) above 0.7 for all constructs is considered indicative of a reliable instrument (Nunnally, 1978), which means good internal consistency and reliability, as indicated by Marôco (2010). In this sense, it can be concluded that the results in Table 4 show signs of high reliability for all constructs. In the present analysis, the goodness of fit measures was considered, in order to be able to summarize the overall fit of the model. Despite the overall fit indices, with \( \chi^2/df = 3.552 \) \( (p = .000) \), being on the recommended interval (between 2.0 and 5.0 for some authors’ suggestions) (Marôco, 2010). Moreover, several fit-indices are considered acceptable: goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = 0.93; adjust GFI (AGFI) = 0.911; comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.945, as these values are greater than 0.9 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). However, for root-mean-square residual index (RMSR) and for root-mean-square error of approximation index (RMSEA), the values should be less than 0.1 to be acceptable (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). (RMSR = 0.06, RMSEA = 0.051). As the CFA presents good fits, without validity concerns and with all the items willing to contribute to the latent construct above 0.7, and further as all the factors were proved to be freely correlated among themselves, the structural model could be tested.
Hypotheses testing and validation

The estimation of the complete model with the path coefficients and significant levels is given in Figure 2.

Figure 2 List of Hypothesis tested.

![Figure 2 List of Hypothesis tested.](image)

All the coefficients are significant at a 1% significance level. The $\chi^2$/df ratio = 3.493 ($p = .000$) is in the recommended interval. The other relationships seem to indicate a good overall model fit (GFI = 0.925; AGFI=0.91, CFI= 0.939, RMSR= 0.068, RMSEA = 0.051), these indicators of the model fit summary indicate an adequate and incremental fit for the structural model. The conceptual model comprises a number of theoretical hypotheses. The strong validity and reliability as well as the resulting fit indices provide robust support for the study hypotheses. Results indicate that the model fits the data well. All the research hypotheses were supported (see Figure 2).

The results in Figure 2 show a significant statistical relationship between motivations and prestige (H1: path coefficient = 0.401; $p < .001$). This implies that tourists are driven by the prestige the trip to Macau may provide. There is also a significant relationship between relaxation and motivations (H2 path coefficient = 0.609; $p < .001$) showing that Macau is also a destination where rebalancing drives tourists. With a similar effect is value for money (H5 path coefficient = 0.605; $p<.001$). Furthermore, the most important motivations are Nightlife (H4 path coefficient = 0.656; $p<.001$) and culture (H3: path coefficient =0.634, $p<.001$) and sports (H6 path coefficient = 0.633; $p<.001$). Being all of them responsible for more spending when the
motivations increase (H7 path coefficient =0.185, p<.001). These findings suggest that nightlife is an icon in Macau but it is not the only motivation.

Multi-group analysis

Finally, variables correlations were tested for invariance among two different groups of residents. Multi-group analysis, as displayed in Table 3, highlights how gamblers and non-gamblers perceived their trip to Macau. The table includes just those paths that were proved to be different within the market segments. According to analysis, Cultural motivations are more intense within gamblers, which may suggest that gambling is part of Macau culture. Furthermore, nightlife is not the main priority although gamblers are more motivated for nightlife than non-gamblers, they also show more intense motivations that means that gambling is a sport activity. Accordingly, gamblers also spend more.

Table 3. Multi-Group Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Non-Gamblers</th>
<th>Gamblers</th>
<th>z-score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural</strong>&lt;---Motives</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nightlife</strong>&lt;---Motives</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sports</strong>&lt;---Motives</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expenses</strong>&lt;---Motives</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *** p-value < .01; ** p-value < .05; * p-value < .10

Conclusion and implications

This study aimed to understand which motivations are better to explain the motivations that drive tourists’ intentions of travelling to Macau, investigate if motivations influence the level of tourist spending and explore if these two groups of analysis vary based on gamblers and non-gamblers. Study results have confirmed the existence of all eight hypotheses that means that a total of major six motivation groups explain the motivation travelling to Macau. Culture, value for money, socialization, relaxation, and nightlife are the main drives of all tourists. Any possible increase in these motivations also leads to an increase in the amount of overall tourist spending. Finally and most importantly, there is also a variation between gamblers and non-gamblers. Despite the fact that the majority come for gambling and the existence of differences in motivation groups, gamblers also value other motivations. Gamblers also spend more. These results open paths to new forms of promote Macau. First, as it happens in sun and sand destinations the icon should be gambling and casinos. However, other products such as culture, cuisine, and sports should be added. Perhaps it is to develop a gambling destination of the second generation, the one that needs to combine more alternatives to the gambling.
References


SESSION 12

BUSINESS AND PERSONALITY
BEYOND GENDERED TOURISM LABOUR: CONTRIBUTIONS TO AN INTERSECTIONAL PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

Tourism brings together guests and hosts, tourists and tourism workers. In this sense, tourists live together with hosts, and different kinds of tourism workers live together with one another. However, this does not mean that each of these actors has an equally powerful say in what concerns the future of tourism. In the conference INVTUR 2017, John Tribe wondered how we are co-creating a good future for people who work in tourism, and observed that most of them only have moderate chances to co-create their own tourism world. This points to the relevance of the current study, which aims to address how the tourism world is shaped for certain groups of tourism workers. Focusing on the labour force implies a shift from analysing tourism as a globalised phenomenon to an analysis of its consequences in the local context.

While tourists have been the main focus of tourism research, the tourism workforce has been comparatively less studied. However, tensions and inequalities permeate tourism labour. Although such tensions can also be observed in the workforce in general, the tourism industry possesses certain characteristics that intensify such inequalities, such as longer working hours, low salaries, and the prevalence of typically female occupations at the lowest end of the career ladder. In some cases, involvement in tourism has produced different outcomes for different groups of women: while some women have taken advantage of tourism, inequalities have been intensified for other women (Lucy Ferguson, 2011; Vandegrift, 2008). If it is true that women in general tend to be disadvantaged in the tourism labour market, this disadvantage is greater for certain groups of women, e.g. lower class or non-white women (Vandegrift, 2008). However, tourism should be committed to improving labour conditions, instead of reinforcing axes of inequality.

Tourism organisations and organisations in general never were and never have been gender neutral. Instead, they are influenced by informal everyday practices and policies, which albeit seemingly gender neutral or gender blind, affect men and women differently by enacting patterns of dominance and submission (Hearn, 2000). Such practices have been named ‘gendering processes’ on literature on gender and organisations. However, not all women are equally affected by gendering processes, as intersectional analyses have revealed (Vandegrift, 2008). Intersectional analyses are important because they focus on the multiple disadvantages and oppressions that several groups of women might face due to the linking of gender, class and race (Acker, 2006; L Ferguson, 2010; Lucy Ferguson, 2011; Morais, Yarnal, Dong, & Dowler, 2005). The notion of ‘inequality regimes’ has been used by Acker to add the idea of intersectionality to gendering processes. It challenges the idea of ‘woman’ as a universal category.
The present article is the result of a broader research project which had a focus on gendering processes and the way they affect the careers of women top managers in the Portuguese tourism sector (Carvalho, 2017). Although this study had an explicit focus on gender, at several stages of the analysis it was observed how gender intersected with other axes of inequality, in particular nationality and class. This article focuses on these conclusions. Hence, the purpose of this article is to unveil gendered patterns of employment in the tourism sector and to find out how these intersect with class and nationality to reinforce inequality in employment.

Methodology and Materials

Although the original study was a mixed methods research study, the data here analysed result from quantitative analysis. The quantitative part of the study consisted of a multivariate statistical analysis of a matched employer-employee dataset concerning all Portuguese private companies and their respective employees in the year 2012. The dataset is owned by the Office for Strategy and Planning (GEE – Gabinete de Estratégia e Planeamento). The individuals analysed worked in hotel establishments, travel agencies and tour operators. The characteristics of their employment situations were compared to those of workers in the whole economy. The purpose of this analysis was to unveil gendered patterns of employment, and how gender inequalities intersect with class and nationality. Multiple linear regression models and Oaxaca-Blinder decompositions were also estimated to analyse and decompose the gender pay gap. SPSS and Stata supported statistical analysis. No previous known studies have analysed tourism employment data in the Portuguese context from this perspective.

Results and discussion

Labour in tourism and in the whole economy is segregated along gender lines both horizontally and vertically. In all the sectors, women are more likely to fill typically female occupations, while men are more likely to work in typically male areas. The hotel sector seems to reinforce traditional gender roles by shunting women to unskilled occupations, mainly as chambermaids or cleaners. Moreover, management positions are among the most common occupations for men in all the sectors analysed. This confirms the idea that management is a male-typed occupation.

Hence, vertical segregation is very visible in the sectors analysed. Men are overrepresented in senior and middle management positions, while women are more concentrated in low-skilled positions. Although this trend is slightly less marked in the travel sector, it is important to notice that women more than double the proportion of men in highly qualified positions in this sector.

Besides, it is often argued in the literature that there is an abundance of low-skilled jobs in the tourism sector. This was observed in the hotel sector, where about a half of women are employed in such positions. However, travel agencies and tour operators offer many qualified and highly qualified jobs, as compared to the other sectors analysed.

In terms of salaries, there is a marked gender pay gap, which suggests the existence of pay discrimination. Although the discriminatory factor seems to be lower in the tourism sector than in the whole economy, this
does not necessarily mean that the tourism sector is more ‘gender equal’. In fact, there is strong evidence that this aspect can be explained by the high concentration of workers at the bottom of the pay pyramid.

If the variable ‘nationality’ is introduced in these analyses, some results emerge which point to the importance of analysing how certain inequalities intersect. **There is a higher percentage of senior managers among Portuguese workers than among workers from other nationalities except in the travel sector.** As observed before, men in general are more likely to be senior managers than women, and this tendency is more noticeable among foreign workers. In contrast, the percentage of foreigners in low-skilled jobs is higher and is markedly gendered. In fact, more than two thirds of the foreign women working in the hotel sector are at the low end of the pyramid. This confirms the existence of ‘pink ghetto’ jobs in the sector (Woods & Viehlaid, 2000), i.e. that hotel jobs may be a niche for marginalised workers, as also observed in other contexts (Zhong & Couch, 2007).

Most of the foreign workforce comes predominantly from former Portuguese colonies or Eastern Europe, but in travel businesses there is a greater percentage of workers who are originally from other EU countries. There is a high proportion of foreigners in senior management in travel businesses, but most of them are employers in their own businesses.

There are more employers among Portuguese workers than among foreign workers in the sectors analysed, except travel agencies and tour operators. More than a fifth of all foreign men working in the travel sector own their own business, as compared to a tenth of the foreign women. It is in this sector that the widest gender gap in employers is observed. Still, foreign women in travel businesses are more likely to be employers than their Portuguese counterparts. **Although women immigrants are often portrayed as passive victims, they often create enterprises.** Previous studies observed that immigrant women often rely on their families and communities to start their own businesses (Morokosavic, as cited in Mirchandani, 1999).

Nationality is relevant to explain men’s hourly earnings, but not women’s. In the economy as a whole, being Portuguese has a positive impact on men’s earnings. Controlling for all other variables, Portuguese employees earn more than foreigners do. However, in tourism, Portuguese employees earn slightly less than foreigners do if all other variables are held constant. These results suggest that the lower unadjusted earnings of foreign workers in tourism are more the result of segregation, or discrimination through segregation, than the result of overt pay discrimination. In addition, foreign senior managers earn more than Portuguese senior managers do outside the tourism sector. Besides, while the variable ‘nation’ is not statistically significant for women, being a foreign senior manager influences positively men’s salaries, and widens the gender pay gap. However, it is important to bear in mind that the proportion of foreign workers who reach senior management positions is very low. Hence, these foreign male senior managers whose salaries exceed those of Portuguese senior managers seem to be a small minority who is in a very privileged position. Barros and Santos (2007) also concluded that being male and a foreign manager had a positive impact on earnings. Acker’s intertwining of gender and class is visible here. These results also seem to indicate gendered transnational managerial work (Hearn, 2009).

There are many more women than men working in low-skilled positions. This trend is much more noticeable among the foreign workforce. There is also a greater proportion of foreign women working in low-skilled positions in hotel establishments than in the other sectors. More than two thirds of foreign women employed in hotels are in low-skilled positions.
In the travel sector, foreign women are also disproportionately represented in low-skilled positions, but in a much smaller scale. Nonetheless, the differences observed between men and women are statistically significant both for national and non-national workers in all the sectors analysed. This analysis reinforces the importance of intersectional analyses.

The data do not suggest that foreign workers are marginalised as cheap labour in the travel sector, but rather that they start their own businesses. While most of the foreign workforce in hotels and the whole economy comes from Eastern Europe and former Portuguese colonies, in travel businesses most foreign workers come from EU countries. The data suggest that foreigners are employed as cheap labour at the low end of the pyramid in hotels and the whole economy, in particular women, while, in travel agencies and tour operators, foreign workers are more likely to stem from richer countries and be entrepreneurs.

Tourism is a labour intensive sector that nonetheless seems to undervalue its workforce. This is a contradiction that undermines the growth potential of the sector in Portugal. It is crucial to value labour and strive for equality, not only at the tourism industry level, but also at the level of the whole economy. Due to systemic nature of the problems, we agree with Jeanes et al. (2011) that it is necessary that change efforts target all levels of society, including individuals and organisations. Since we live in a globalised world, change efforts should also span across national borders.

It is also crucial to monitor the evolution of women’s representation in leadership positions in the tourism sector, as well as their distribution across all hierarchical levels. In these analyses, it would be important to include the other ‘axes of inequality’ or ‘inequality regimes’, such as nationality and class. Wider sectorial organisations, such as UNWTO or the WTTC could also be involved in such actions. In addition, it is important to approach power structures and not only engage in a ‘quantitative’ discourse about the percentage of women on boards or collect data as a goal in itself (Lombardo & Meier, 2007). Therefore, it is also important to include gender experts and civil society actors in the change process.

Future research on gender and tourism labour should bring gender power relations to the forefront of analysis, and engage in gender-aware critique. It is important to raise the awareness of the stakeholders in this field, so that it is possible to see through the apparent gender-neutrality of the sector, and gradually attain structural and cultural changes in organisations, and improvements in terms of equality. High visibility and low legitimacy of inequalities may enhance the possibilities for change, while social movements may contribute to both high visibility and low legitimacy (Acker, 2006b). A greater focus on the gendered nature of organisations, gendering processes and inequality regimes would improve understandings about gendered tourism careers.

References


EMPIRICAL DISCUSSION ON SERVICES' MANAGEMENT FROM HOSPITALITY’S PERSPECTIVE

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Introduction

The rapid development and spread of social media has helped turning strangers into acquaintances, enemies into friends, friends into best friends and outsiders into intimate. Not only in the field of tourism, it is verified that the visitor is strange (étranger) because it is intrusive in the house of another, in the space of another: the host can accept or reject it, notably for police or security reasons.

This abstract report the experience of the "Integrated Tourist Destinations Management System\(^4\)" (SIGESTur), which was originally conceived as a management tool for Destination Management Organizations (DMOs), but which can be implemented in the management of tourism attractions and services.

The implementation of SIGESTur assumes that there are a plenty of stakeholders demands with the DMOs surely will need to deal with. This is the “hospitality perspective” that supports this proposal.

This paper presents an ongoing experience, in which SIGESTur is a part of. There are other systems in development by professors and students of the course of Tourism of the Federal Institute of São Paulo (Campus Cubatão), but SIGESTur is the more advanced one. Besides that, this system has connection with the issues addressed by ATMC conference.

Integrated Tourism Destinations Management System (SIGESTur)

In coherence with the Brazilian civil rights framework for Internet, during the second half of 2016, one of the professors of the Tourism course of the Federal Institute of São Paulo (Campus Cubatão) started the development of a model of tourism destinations planning and management.

The SIGESTur is a technology-based solution concentrated on the website www.observatoriodoturismo.com and can be accessed by the application equally named SIGESTur (http://app.vc/sigestur).

The main idea is that each tourism destination makes use of the proposed methodology and develop interactive platforms based on these two models – which are already available to interested users, but the content is still experimental. It is worth mentioning that the project was one of the ten finalists in the field of Innovation in Tourism, an award promoted by the Panrotas Portal - a specialized media in tourism - and

\(^4\) From the Brazilian portuguese “Sistema Integrado de Gestão de Destinos Turísticos”;
the Brazilian Service of Support to Micro and Small Companies (Sebrae), on November 25th and 27th, 2016 in the city of São Paulo.

Figure 1: Screen shots from the SIGESTur app, with the home screen on the left, the location system in the center, and a screen of the project page on Facebook on the right.

Figure 2: Screen shots of the SIGESTur app, with options for entrepreneurs (B2B) (networking contacts, business opportunities and market performance data) on the left, contacts with business entities centered and information on public investments on the right.

The SIGESTur application for mobile devices has a global positioning system (GPS), a municipal information screen and a regional calendar of events. In addition to these tabs, there are also operation the ones that provide information about services, attractions and tourism facilities (figure 1). Another section
in operation deals with transparency in the management of public resources, that is, a space where the managers can show to the users, open data on the investments and the costs of the management of the tourism destination - in the accomplishment of works or services hired by the municipal public power (figure 2).

This solution has a low implementation cost and can be adapted to the reality of each Brazilian tourism destination – safeguarding the principle of integration. Likewise, the skills required of the professionals who will manage this system (collecting, processing and updating data and information) can be established according to the reality of each place.

Methods & Materials

This paper presents an ongoing research, which is characterized as empiric, whose approach is qualitative. It is planned bibliographical research and empirical discussion divided in two sections. In the first section the processes of planning and management of tourism and hospitality should be discussed and in the second one the role of communication in this process.

Research and Results

The conceptual model (figure 3) chosen to guide the execution of this research is the one proposed by Wang and Zheng (2007), which deals with the factor “collaboration” in the implementation of marketing strategies in tourist destinations. This model is structured in four constructs: preconditions for the formation of market alliances, motivation to enter marketing alliances, formative process of market alliances and stratification of results.

Although there are not results to be presented, it is possible to bring into discussion the conceptual model elected. As part of the field research it will be developed a questionnaire designed from this scheme. This questionnaire should be answered by stakeholders of the travel and tourism sector of the tourism destinations analysed.

Figure 3: Conceptual model adopted (WANG & ZHENG, 2007)
Conclusion

The proposed system is a model that aims to assist managers in managing the demands of their stakeholders. Incidentally, this process involves the identification and mapping of other actors in the travel and tourism sector. In this sense, managers will be able to identify, map and relate to their stakeholders more effectively using SIGESTur. This tool will also provide tourists with access to detailed, up-to-date information from appropriate sources, which is vital to the success of these visitors. It is expected to increase the flow of visitors to improve the quality of the experience experienced in the visitation/use of equipment, attractions and tourist services.

References


ALGARVE BRAND PERSONALITY

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Introduction

This paper aims to establish a first base to depict the brand personality of Algarve in the south of Portugal. This research grounds on theory about brand, image and personality, in the fields of marketing, psychology and economy. This study intends to underlined what are the main determinants of Algarve brand personality by means of contend analysis of the key words used to describe the destination. At the empirical level the results of this study will contribute to positioning Algarve destination and estimating the relative impact of the personality dimensions on attitudes toward this destination in general. The results will have practical implications for brand management, particularly by defining the Algarve destination's positioning.

Brand personality

Recently some studies have been focusing on brand personality, especially in the generic dimensions of brand personality (Aaker 1997). Although it is widely accepted that brand personality are of paramount importance to achieve a sustainable development of a tourism product, studies about destination brand personality are scarce in the literature. Following the tradition of the others studies, the few studies that could be found about tourism brand personality also focus on the seminal work of Aakers brand personality (Aaker 1997). Namely to tourism destinations in general (Ekinci and Hosany 2006) and to the rural tourism destinations (Cai 2002); it was established the difference between brand image and brand personality (Hosany, Ekinci e Muzaffer 2006); it was compared the development of a product/service brand to the development of a destination brand (Cai 2002; Gnoth 2002); comparisons were made between the development of a brand and (re)positioning (Gilmore 2002); further it was studied the characteristics and concepts related to destinations brands (importance of destinations ‘identity, the use of brand elements) (Cai 2002; Morgan et al 2004); it was approached the role of emotional relationship with consumers (Gilmore 2002).

The studies about brand personality tend to reduce the psychometric scales used to measure personality scales, rewording items and changing the fill form instructions in an attempt to adapt human traits to product traits. On this context and according to Milas and Mlacic (2007) a taxonomy of brand personality traits are still lack on the literature. Recent studies recommend that researchers adopt a stricter definition of the concept of brand personality in order to reach a more exact measurement of that concept, thus the definition
proposed by Azoulay and Kapferer (2003: 151) was “brand personality is the set of human personality traits that are both applicable and relevant for brands”. This concept of brand personality also defended by Aaker (1997), became a important topic once it allows to distinguish brands (Crask e Laskey 2000), help to create a set of unique and favourable associations in consumer memory, thus builds brand equity (Keller 1993, Johnhson, Soutar and Sweeney 2000 and Phau and Lau 2000) evokes the emotional aspects of the brand (Gilmore 2002, Landon 1974, Morgan et al. 2004) and rises the personal meaning of the brand to the consumer (Levy 1959). These recommendations give rise to a fourth fold definition of destination brand personality: brand value (the destination code of behaviour); brand attributes (the character traits of the destination); brand personality (the sum of attributes gives to the destination its own, unique brand personality); brand image (the impressions, beliefs and expectations tourists have about the destination). In the tourism scenery, this type of studies are more difficult as destinations join different interests and stakeholders (Young and Petrick 2005). Given that the objectives and research design need to that consider the multidimensionality of the construct and the number of stakeholders involved in the design of the tourism product.

Methods

The main aim of this study is to define the brand personality of Algarve, by depicting the main keywords used to describe the destination. A randomly questionnaire was applied to 4000 tourists at the end of their stay in Algarve. Tourists were invited to describe Algarve in three different keywords. A contend analysis were undertaken to categorize similar words. Word clouds by country of residence and level of involvement with the destination were used to depict the brand personality of Algarve.

Results

A list of human-relevant adjectives were derived from the contend analysis that counts with 423 different codes. The results show that the most loyal tourists tends to focus on human traits, whereas the others focus on cognitive attributes of the destination. Furthermore German tourists are very pragmatic in categorizing the keywords that best describe the Algarve, all of them relying in cognitive attributes, whereas the other countries made a subjective description.

Conclusion

Loyalty determines a human personality. The results can also be used as a diagnostic tool to examine if the perceived brand personality is aligned with the destination´s mission, vision and goals. Conclusions of this study may also be used to design cross-cultural and cross-national research to guide marketing managers enabling them to create a strong globally identifiable and acceptable brand personality.
References


Batra, ; Lenk, and Wedel () Separating Brand from Category Personality,


SESSION 13

DEVELOPMENT AND POLICIES
THE TRAVEL POLICY ON CORPORATE MOBILITY PROCESS AND THE RELATIONSHIP WITH HOSPITALITY: A VIEW OF THE APPLICATION BY THE TRAVELER

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Introduction

The corporate traveler has changed in recent years, while taking only the executive profile to include other hierarchical levels, which creates new relationships between business and travelers. Thus, the current context of corporate mobility aroused the interest of the researcher, generating hypotheses presented in this research. The first hypothesis, H1: travel policy can influence the corporate mobility process. The second hypothesis, H2: Hospitality can be seen as a relationship that influences the improvement of corporate mobility processes and application of travel policy.

The research aimed to understand the reaction of corporate travelers with the travel policy applied by your company in the corporate mobility process and how the relationship of hospitality can influence the process of corporate travel.

For the purposes of this research, it is considered that the company assumes the role of host in the hospitality relationship. a questionnaire based on the application of travel policies with Likert responses beyond old options, sex, trips per year and size of company that works to identify the types of travelers who responded to the survey was applied.

Literature review

Hospitality

The understanding of hospitality permeates issues related to behavior, attitude and even may indicate possible benefits of cooperation between those involved in the relationship - host and guest.

Hospitality is the basic link between people, is long overdue to we encounter a stranger, someone we recognize as another, so it is with the host, from the moment it is not in their nature environment, it also makes a guest. Contrary attitudes of non-virtue of hospitality are considered inhospitality, when there is no interest in contact with each other in giving and receiving, in many cases one can find even cases of hostility (Camargo, 2004 and 2015).
The hospitality analyzes the interpersonal relationship as the rescue, the exchange of warmth in a social environment increasingly inhospitable, if not hostile, emphasizing the possibilities that remain in the contemporary world, demonstration or recreation of social ties (Camargo, 2015, p. 45).

Thus, the hospitality is the main process between the host and the guest. They must feel that the host is being hospitable, through attitudes that show a desire to please. You can find hospitality in the three areas, social, private and commercial. In the social field identifies that the hospitality scenarios occur with impacts of social forces on the production and consumption of food, drinks and accommodation. In the private domain, it is where it is considered the host of the relationship of the impact and the guest. In the hospitality business, it is when hospitality is treated as an economic activity (Lashley, 2004).

Dimensions can be in the commercial space, where there is a supply of food, drink, shelter and entertainment in commercial activities, pursuit of personal fulfillment in social activity, and the meta-hospitality, which is the bond to communicative moments. Hospitable attitudes cannot be seen only as a sale of the service, but as the brand, the commercial hospitable host. There are companies that prefer to work with "commercial smile" of their employees than employees who have a more natural performance before their clients (Campbell, 2015).

Even in corporate environments is possible to understand that there is hospitality when we assume that is a list of people, the host (company) and the guest (customer or employee) (Camargo, 2015) is possible to identify a hospitality ritual:

- It's a scene in the theatrical sense of the word, with two plants, individual or collective authors, a considerate host and another guest with accurate markings of space and time. Whether at home, on the street, race, government offices, in the workplace, and even in virtual environments, the ritual begins with an invitation or as an application host (Camargo, 2015, p. 56).

Hospitality may be present in various contexts, not only in tourism, hotels and hospitals. It is important to study the employee and employer relationship, because there is a bilateral need this relationship (Rejowski & Oliveira, 2013).

The hospitality management is given by applying the administration in order to promote hospitality. Hospitality may be present at all times and activities that involve people in an organization, as the host must be present both to its customers and to its employees with (Wada, 2004).

**Corporate Mobility**

You can start understanding of mobility as a paradigm, should first be noted the important role of movement in the functioning of most social institutions and social practices. These social relationships involve several links that can be the distance and sometimes face-to-face. Mobility can also be observed within a new paradigm that identifies different ways, people body field, the physical movement of objects and virtual travel often transcendent distance in real time (Scheller & Urry, 2016).

Mobility action exists in many sectors, not only with the commercial interest shown in the corporate travel, for this reason, it is essential that we consider mobility involving business process and corporate mobility.
This action of the business sector can influence various sectors that make up the corporate mobility, which describes the impact of business in comfort class offered by airlines from the emergency to the growth and economic impact it has in this sector (Bowen Jr., 2009).

Human mobility is the process of movement involving the set of resources to take place, and their different ways of being applied (physical, social and work). Social mobility refers to individual mobility in social classes classification which includes understanding the changes of the population and also highlighted mobility based on the work and strategic management involved to remove geographical barriers to growth and success, where the individual involves physical and social mobility with capitalist interests which is taken into account the actions of individuals, such as tradition, relationship, expectations, needs, desires and solution. In this sense the organizations focus on the coming movements of groups that are interested (Ferreira & Wada 2011).

In a study of corporate mobility in Latin America shows that the corporate flow grew 19% in the first quarter of 2011, above the world average. Current companies travel policies consider corporate travel as an investment and not cost. The same line of reasoning applies when the corporate traveler has a long-term mission (over 30 days) out of their place of origin. Up to a certain point, business was considered only when the employee was expatriated, but now business involves a lot more activities (Ferreira & Wada 2011). A data corporate mobility that emphasizes the expatriation numbers comes from research "Mobility Brazil 2014," the Worldwide ERC association, one costs Expatriate, on average, 125% more than a local official, but most companies surveyed (62%) now considers international transfers as part of a Talent Management Process (TMP) comprehensive, and most of these companies involves HR (91%) and leadership (80%) in its PGT (GLOBAL LINE, 2014).

The corporate mobility not only encompasses the shift in travel and expatriate employees in order to do business and belonging to the customer position of a corporate travel agency, but may also include that shift the very employee of the tourism market. There is also a migration of people working in tourism and hospitality, complementing so that human mobility may be motivated by factors such as seeking adventure, job opportunities and self-realization. The authors add that these individuals may not realize more the boundary between work and leisure tourism, this differentiation becomes increasingly tenuous (Zampoukos & Ioannides, 2011). Mobility with focus on migration in search of work saying that increasingly this lifestyle is growing a result that comes from the pursuit of a dream and a desire to change their lives (Holland & Martin, 2015).

**Corporate Travel**

Corporate travel can be interpreted as a set of related practices and processes, not only facing the global economy, but also for culture, behavior and even leisure. The motivations that can encourage corporate travel are initiated with the intention of participating in meetings, training, customer visits, business closures and attendance at trade shows and conferences (Beaverstock, Derudder, Faulconbridge & Witlox, 2009).

Corporate travel must be segregated in a sequence of processes divided into three parts, travelers’ preparation, including the process of travel with monitoring during the journey and the process of follow-up after the trip. The travel management process should be from beginning to end. More specifically the
first stage it is the travel preparation, the second stage it is the implementation of a journey during the same phase and it is the three post-trip processes (Lenz, Gewald & Coccorullo, 2015).

The travel planning phase may last hours or days, and is the stage where you will be made the choices of transport and accommodation means through quotations with suppliers of processes. All information should be sent to the journey time, distance and visited destinations. Transport and accommodation must be booked prior to arrival. This phase of choice may be linked to a corporate travel policy that can be made by the traveler or through a travel management. After the choices have been booked and issued, the passenger receives their acknowledgments travel satisfaction all the information your trip as choice (Lenz, Gewald & Coccorullo, 2015).

Phase two, or on-trip, is the phase which begins at the time of starting the trip. It is characterized by being out of his home and is to be within your chosen transport and accommodation options. In cases of international travel can relate to the time taken for the arrival at the destination, because it is considered a non-productive period in the case of a business passenger, especially if these trips are affected by cancellations or delays. At this point it is important that the passenger is informed in this way can minimize the impact of non-productive time (Lenz, Gewald & Coccorullo, 2015).

Phase three, post-trip, is understood as the stage where the passenger will have the billing and reimbursement of expenses involved in your travel process. The entire process should be complete payment and invoices that can be completed (Lenz, Gewald & Coccorullo, 2015).

Hospitality and relationship with mobility and corporate travel

The hospitality is as central object the relationship between host and guest, so the look meted out to corporate mobility in this research considers the company involved as the host and the traveler and the guest. Corroborating this view, it may be noted that those involved in this hospitality relationship is put in these roles. Only the company is not solely responsible in the enterprise mobility process, the final destination as well as suppliers also has a responsibility to make this shift happen.

The care with the mobility of your employee, regarded as the guest in the hospitality process can be an organizational culture effect and come from corporate travel policies to follow.

Corporate travel can have a significant share in the global flow and corporate networks generator. You can see the need for mobility and the role of face-to-face contact in business. You can interpret the business drive corporate mobility relying on the influence of the economy and globalization (Jones, 2013).

Methods & materials

Data Source

As a research method, the first step was adopted a literature based on google scholar and journals such as Tourism Management and Applied Mobilities. For keywords in google scholar, were found in hospitality 28,600 results for corporate mobility were 21,400 results and corporate travel were 15,700. Among these articles, they were highlighted those who had more relevance to the subject of research.
In the second step, the study has a quantitative character, "quantitative research allows the researcher to measure opinions, habits, attitudes and reactions by means of a statistical sample representing the universe researched" (Freitas and Jabbour, p.9, 2011), where the data were collected through an online survey, available through social networking in the period from June 19, 2016 until July 08, 2016. There were 100 questionnaires available with answers based on the Likert scale, with options 1 = "Strongly Disagree"; 2 = "Disagree"; 3 = "indifferent"; 4 = agree; and 5 = "Strongly Agree", in addition to age options, sex of travelers, company size and amount of travel in the year to be allowed to identify the respondent public.

This questionnaire is intended to observe the traveler's view with respect to travel policy applied in their companies to pool be identified if the relationship of hospitality is present in the corporate mobility process within their travel through two hypotheses. The first hypothesis, \( H_1 \): travel policy can influence the corporate mobility process. The second hypothesis, \( H_2 \): Hospitality can be seen as a relationship that influences the improvement of corporate mobility processes and application of travel policy.

**Research and results**

It was decided to present the results in tables and graphs based on applied research with 100 questionnaires. It is observed that among the 100 respondents the traveling public is within an age range of 20 to 40 years, representing the largest percentage with 43%, followed by 28% in the range of 20 to 30 years, the lowest audience representing 13% is the age group above 50 years. Among travelers, the largest amount is within the male with 58%, the sixth female representatives are with 42%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 to 30</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 to 40</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 50</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1. Age Group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2. Gender*

The company's size analysis, most belong to the company more than 1000 employees with 56%, followed from 0 to 100 employees with 26%, showing that the public was divided between the ends of the options of answers, where the other options had low percentages. As the amount of travel, the public was more divided between the response options, and more often above 10 trips in the year 24% and 5 to 10 trips in the year also with 24%, followed by one trip per year 23% and 2 to 4 trips a year with 17%.
To start the analysis of the points that will be most crucial in the research, the first challenge was on analysis of travel policy applied by the traveler company, where the majority of 43% answered agree, followed by indifferent with 34% Disagree 14% I fully agree with 7% and strongly disagree with 2%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you analyze the Company’s Travel Policy</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strongly agree</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How do you analyze the Company's Travel Policy

The company's concern with the movement of your employee has the following analysis to be questioned, and had a score of 48% with agree and 21% of disagree, the other answers were less than these two options, being indifferent with 17% agree fully with 8% and 6% strongly disagree with.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company concern in mobility</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strongly agree</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6. Company concern in mobility

In the analysis of options offered for means of transportation and accommodation means the results were most travelers agree with offers policy for its displacement. Presenting for locomotion means the option I agree with 45%, followed by 26% disagree and 14% indifferent, the other options had low percentages on responses. For accommodation facilities, the "I agree" option stood at 53%, followed by 24% and 12% disagree with indifferent where other options have low percentages of responses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top Locomotion Options</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I agree</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I strongly agree</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7. Locomotion Options
In the last two analyzes, the points raised were on the trip to post reimbursements processes offered by the company and hospitality as a way of improvements in travel policy. The answers were to the operation of the refund procedure at the end of the trip, 51% agree, 22% disagree and 14% strongly agree. About the inclusion of more hospitality in corporate travel and travel policy process, 56% agree, 33% strongly agree and 10% are indifferent.
After analysis of all responses, you can see that the corporate mobility process through the application of travel policy rules can prove the first hypothesis which says that the travel policy helps in corporate mobility process because every point questioned and related to this aspect in the research had the "I agree" option as the most choice among travelers. The second hypothesis, which states that hospitality, can be seen as a relationship that would help in improving corporate mobility processes and application of travel policy. These analyzes allow to see that even if the traveler feel that hospitality is applied within their travel policy, use more often this relationship is seen as an improvement to their displacement.

**Discussion**

The research aimed to understand the relationship of hospitality, corporate travel and corporate mobility through an optical traveler in the application of travel policies. It has been found by the literature that the objects are interconnected within the same segment as the relationship of hospitality can affect the displacement process and the rules used in the company's policy for the traveler.

Human mobility that originates in the process of movement is treated here with the focus on corporate mobility where the ratio of come and go is complemented by a commercial interest, that is, business, pointing the relationship it has with the travel corporate. Companies now understand that the trips are investments, not just spending.

The hospitality is as central object the relationship between host and guest, so the look meted out to corporate mobility in this research considered the company involved as host and traveler and the guest. Corroborating this view, it may be noted that those involved in this hospitality relationship, are placed in these roles. Travelers expect the company to fulfill its role as host through the host and care must dispense with their travelers. Both hypotheses were confirmed in research through applied research to travelers, where hospitality can benefit the process of travel policy and corporate mobility.

Given the importance of the issues addressed in this study, the author recommends the continuity from this study, including the development of more hypotheses that could be tested in future studies with more opportunities to respondents.
References


DO COMMUNITIES HAVE AN ISSUE IN MANAGING BEACHES WHEN THEY HAVE TO SATISFY BOTH, THE LOCALS AND TOURISTS? - CASE STUDY OF CROATIA

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Introduction

Beaches are one of the most important coastal resources and as such they require a holistic approach in managing. Today, beaches in Croatia are a resource which development is more or less successfully managed by regional and local authorities.

The authors based the research on the main topic that a beach is more than a strip of land dedicated to tourists for their leisure activities. In order to achieve this, beaches have to be developed in regard to the surrounding landscape and the needs of the local community.

The main focus of the research is on local and guests’ perspective of beaches, thus results highlight important issues in this relationship which may enable improvements in beach managing.

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the interdependence between sustainable beach managing and local/tourist needs and satisfaction.

The goal of this paper is to propose the model of sustainable beach managing that has a direct impact on development processes of the beach.

Research methodology includes an overview of recent projects and references and as a result it helps to understand the importance why beaches as valuable resource need sustainable managing. One of the important project goals is to differentiate different beaches and their main attractions as well as their adaptation to a particular target group and the emergence of new forms of specific thematic beaches.

This research gives a contribution to the overall conference topic as it clarifies the relationship between the role of all stakeholders, the public administration, local communities, tourist operators, spatial planners and the others aiming at sustainable beach managing, as well as the tourist satisfaction.

Literature review

When the first seaside resorts opened in the 18th century (Holloway, 2006) and when they started to expand in the 1840s, the grooving interests in seaside resorts meant also an increase in research activities. First research papers were published in England where the culture of the seaside vacation was the most established one. Other well-known European destinations, such as the Mediterranean coast in France and Spain, also gradually attracted the researchers’ interest. Researchers firstly focused on geographical and
geomorphological changes at the side landscape (Cendrero & Fischer, 1997; Cicin Sain, B. et al., 1998; Defeo et al, 2009; Williams & Micaleff, 2009) and later the interest gradually extended also to socio-economic thematic (Jovičić & Dragan 2008; Marković et al, 2010; Kovačić et al, 2013), including tourism which reneged from purely economical to sustainable and gradual to interdisciplinary researches combining different scientific fields (Ozhan 1996, Kovačić et al, 2010).

However, beach managing is still an open question. It depends of different variables. Some researches (Jovičić & Dragan 2008, Botero et al, 2009) think that the carrying capacity is one of the most common tools for beach managing, while some others (Jimenez et al, 2007 in Botero et al, 2009) highlight beach user density as the most important variable. Finally, most researches stand out that good managing includes beach evaluation.

Methods and Materials

Nowadays, the value of a beach can’t be measured only in its natural assets. Tourists’ demands are on the increase and they except places where they can create their own experiences by activating their own networks and resources (Gnoth & Jaeger 2007).


However, the paper focuses on the method of beach thematization that can be best described via a project done at the national and regional level (Kovačić & Magaš, 2014). The purpose of the projects Adriatic Sea Stars was to raise awareness of all stakeholders in the tourism sector in order to preserve the coastal area.

The Research and Results

The realization of the fundamental objective is to recognize the economic and ecological impact of the increase in tourist traffic and tourists consumption. A special focus is on the growth of tourist satisfaction and greater opportunities for the employment of local people. A large study, which included an analysis of 1000 beaches in Croatian along the Adriatic coastline, was carried out during 2014. In 2015, the Primorsko-goranska County started working on a regional program of planning and managing beaches. The project leader of both projects was the Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality, Opatija, Croatia, as well as several interdisciplinary teams of scientists who also participated in the project.

The project included a series of activities from conducting surveys among stakeholders (concessionaires, the locals and tourists) to workshops in cities and municipalities of the region. The survey questionnaire covered several groups of questions, the general ones and the specific ones addressed to concessionaires and tourism workers, and in particular questions for tourists and questions for the local population to find out how they think.

The most important results of the study will be presented in this paper.

Thanks to these projects it is possible to propose a model as an efficient tool for communities beach managing. The fundamental determinant of a managing model at the local level includes participation of
citizens in decision-making on issues of public goods and the partnership between local authorities, civil society organizations and the private sector.

Discussion and conclusions

The research has shown that the current model of beach managing in Croatia, which derives from legislation, gives a very important role to regional and local authorities. The basis for the development of a sustainable model of beach managing have been issues noted during the implementation of regulations, primarily due to an inadequate intellectual capacity, conflict of various interests and pressures, as well as the results of conducted survey and conclusions made at the workshops.

The role of management is not only to understand and valorise beaches as a resource but to implement a basic knowledge of managing. A special management role is manifested in the maintenance of national quality standards and water quality, and in co-operation with the environment and pollution team. In order to achieve this, it is necessary to improve communication with the locals, tourists, tour operators and other stakeholders. At the same time, economic effects should be planned, that will be achieved by granting some beaches in concessions or issuing annual permits. Author Blackmore (Blackmore et al, 2002) point out, that for the majority of beach users is acceptable to pay some additional facilities like eco tax and other. According to author, the willingness to pay varied with social class, earnings, amount of beach use and between local, domestic and foreign user groups. Thus results are very indicate for beach management because implies managing the offer and demand of beach facilities.

Beach management literature gives theory determinations and good practice that can be implemented on future planning of sustainable beach managing in Croatia. The research intends to help to co-create well-being for the local population and the tourism industry in the way to provide a tool for efficient model of sustainable beach managing in Croatia.

The proposed model is a result of the experience in managing the maritime domain, theoretical and empirical knowledge, and conducted researches and projects. The model is not a predetermined size, it changes with environmental changes and new circumstances, and it can contribute to understanding the importance of beaches as a resource that has to be specially taken care of.

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Law on Maritime Domain and Seaports (Official Gazette 158/03, 100/04, 141/06, 38/09)

Law on Concessions (Official Gazette 143/12)
IMPLEMENTING COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM, SOCIAL VALUES AND INNOVATION IN DIFFERENT CITIES: NAZARETH JERUSALEM AND TEL AVIV

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Introduction

Innovation in tourism and hospitality management has become a complex task due to the competition at tourism destinations in general and especially in urban tourism destinations. Hospitality organizations aspire to meet growing tourist expectations for a specialized experience by emphasizing the characteristics of the local culture and urban community. The theoretical framework of this research is based on the important relationship linking urban hospitality, the tourist experience (Cosma, Paun, Bota and Fleseriu, 2014; Ryan, 2010), and the management of innovation and creativity in tourism (Chan, To & Chu, 2016). In an era of competition and specialization, urban tourism faces new challenges (Li, Fang, Huang & Goh, 2015). At the same time, the tourist experience is becoming a central component in the creation of a sustainable community-based tourism product of social significance (Enz, Verma, Walsh, Kimes & Siguaw, 2010). This study focuses on an urban hospitality organization that aspires to translate its vision and set of values into a management strategy that successfully creates and implements a unique tourism experience.

Methods & materials

This study examines the role of innovation and creativity in devising a new urban hostel concept inspired by local culture, history and tradition, and offering guests an opportunity to feel connected to the local community. The main aim of the paper is to examine how the management of an urban hospitality organization in Israel (the Abraham Hostels chain) implements its community-based and social values in each one of its three hostels and how they adapt the tourist experience to the culture and atmosphere in each city (Nazareth, Jerusalem and Tel Aviv). The research methodology includes participatory observations of the management and operations in each of the hostels, in-depth interviews with the managers and a detailed analysis of literature providing background information.

The study methodology includes three forms of qualitative research data collection methods: participant observation, document review and in-depth interviews. The researcher visited the guesthouses (3-5 visits to each of the 3 hostels, most of the visits included an overnight stay) on separate occasions between January 2016 and December 2016. During these visits the researcher conducted extensive participant observations which included observations of managers, staff activities and meetings, interactions with the Abraham Hostels management, staff and volunteers, as well as interactions with guests. The participant observations focused on how the management of an urban hospitality organization (the Abraham Hostels chain) implements their community-based and social values in each of the three hostels, and how they adapt the
tourist experience to the culture and atmosphere in each city (Nazareth, Jerusalem and Tel Aviv). The researcher was not identified in other settings (e.g., during guests' workshops, social and entertainment activities, tours offers, breakfast and pub dynamics), where he presented himself as a hostel guest.

**Research Results & Discussion**

The findings present a unique new model of creative innovation in urban hospitality management and its connection to implementing a social, community-based tourist experience. The importance of the paper is in proposing a model that may benefit other hospitality organizations. The research findings highlight management’s use of innovation and creativity to brand the whole chain, so as to implement the vision and values they determined for themselves, as will be discussed below. They developed a system of sub-positioning, by which the vision and values were adjusted to match the unique culture of each city – Nazareth, Jerusalem and Tel Aviv – and the nature and traditions of each local community. The management is constantly renewing and varying their services and assimilating new ideas which focus on three prominent aspects: local community, social values, and local and regional tours, as presented in Figure 1. When combined, these three aspects shape the tourist experience as management perceives it should be. Although previous studies have emphasized the importance of innovation in creating new products to answer increasing public demand for new and exclusive attractions and a unique tourism experience, this study presents a relevant model that is being implemented to achieve this goal. The model for implementing innovation in urban hospitality management and marketing, describes the connections and interactions between the various aspects. These aspects derive from the vision and set values held by the management, in respect to the tourism product and the tourist experience offered by the hostels in the chain.

**References**


Little is known about Chinese tourists’ interest in indigenous cultures, how it forms and expresses itself in activities and experiences. This may be due to the fact that China’s push onto the world tourism market has been rapid and sudden, and while researchers have tried to capture its characteristics (e.g., Fountain, Espiner & Xie, 2011; Ryan & Mo, 2001) many questions remain unanswered, as the Confucian value system contrasts with those of traditional Western source markets (e.g., Watkins and Gnoth, 2011).

The Chinese market began to impact New Zealand after 1999, when New Zealand became one of the first designated destinations outside Asia where Chinese tourists were allowed to travel. The next decade saw tremendous growth and since 2012, China has become the largest source market in the world, with more than 122 million border crossings, and US$ 110 billion spent in 2016 (CNTA, 2017; COTRI 2017). Although New Zealand captures only a very small percentage, with almost 400,000 visitors in 2016, China forms 12% of New Zealand’s total market and is now its second largest customer after Australia (TNZ, 2017).

Research into the Chinese tourism market in terms of its psychographic and motivational profile and, particularly, interest in culture (e.g., Zhang & Lam, 1999; Weiler and Yu, 2007; Hua & Yoo, 2011; Ruhanen, Whitford and McLennan 2015), it tends to show two distinct features that appear to go hand in hand with this market’s development. The initial push to travel revealed little knowledge of the destination the Chinese travelled to, or interest in any specific topics or themes, other than a general interest in cleaner landscapes and iconic features; however the second wave of those with accumulated travel experience shows interest towards authentic and engaging experiences, even off beaten tracks (Arlt 2017). There is thus a general interest in foreign cultures, a strong push towards free and independent travel, yet little knowledge of Chinese interest in any specific cultures or cultural themes or how it may form and be characterized (e.g., Fountain et al., 2011; Ruhanen et al., 2015).

Fountain’s et al. (2011) sample of 181 Chinese international tourists was gathered in Queenstown, a major destination in the South Island of New Zealand. These visitors showed, on average, only mild interest in Maori culture before coming to New Zealand. Although Fountain’s sample appeared to show less enthusiasm than previously measured (e.g., Ryan & Mo, 2001), according to these authors, the importance of Maori culture must have grown while travelling the country as it seemed to add to the sample’s total satisfaction with their trip so far.

The sample was not representative of the general Chinese traveler profile, in terms of age and previous experience of New Zealand. More than a third had travelled to New Zealand before, and more than half had visited the North Island (3.5 million inhabitants) and particularly to Rotorua. The Rotorua region is an
iconic Maori cultural tourism destination as it also features geysers, lakes and volcanoes in the distance. In general, the North Island is usually positioned as featuring the most cultural attractions.

Though larger, the South Island has far fewer people (1.3 million inhabitants) and is positioned as the nature and adventure destination.

The finding that interest in Maori culture increased as tourists travelled the country, possibly meeting Maori in the streets, or being reminded of Maori heritage by landmarks and place names, coincides with Gnoth, Duncan and Gnoth (2009) whose feasibility study for Maori cultural tourism products found that tourists travelling the South Island would welcome more opportunities, and to learn more about Maori. Although sampling the total tourist market (i.e. all nationalities), the scale they developed and tested (Gnoth and Zins; 2013) confirmed that the more contact tourists had with Maori, the more interest they showed.

Given these diverse findings, the question arises, what is the level of exposure tourists have to Maori culture, why is it not more important even before Chinese tourists come to New Zealand, and what could possibly be done about it? A survey of Maori representation on major Chinese outbound travel web-pages (Ctrip; Mafengo; Tuniu; Qiongyou; weibo; Wechat) resulted in the following summarized findings.

Starting the internet search in China began with typing ”New Zealand”, “Rotorua” and “Maori” as search words. Ctrip offers a translation of New Zealand’s Maori name, Aotearoa, as well as information about Rotorua and its cultural village. An introduction of about 500 words offers information about visual features of attractions but no historical or anthropological background, and results of about 12 000 customer ratings of the village experience.

Mafengo offers basic geographic information about places in NZ but otherwise provides user generated content (UGC). In this case 61 comments on Rotorua and experiences of Maori culture describe visual impressions of artefacts and performances. The more informed these comments, the more appreciative they are of Maori cultural features.

Tuniu is mainly a sales platform for travel products and contains a short reference to the Maori cultural village in Rotorua only. Qiongyou produces a 1000 word introduction to history and landscape, refers to Maori as first people, and offers a few key-words in Maori. UGC then produces some detailed experiences including explanations of origins and meaning of the haka dance, references to mythology and impressions on how Maori are integrated into contemporary society. Weibo offers further numerous UGC, including links to ‘language classes’ offered by, for example, Air New Zealand, offering frequently used words and background information on Maori culture.

In order to understand how interest in Maori culture and motivations to meet and interact with Maori may form, the above web-pages represent one important source of information tourists use. At the same time they reflect the content and depth of interaction that is currently taking place – at least as far as the revealed behavior is concerned. To further build a background picture on the expectations and motivations tourists arrive with, we conducted initial in-depth interviews with twenty Chinese tourists in Queenstown and Christchurch. These lasted up to 90 minutes, and took place in public spaces, such as hotel lobbies, and in cafes. All attempts were made to approximate phenomenological interviews (Thompson et al. 1989), which seek to put respondents at ease, and are expansive in their approach rather than using structured lists of questions.

Importantly, these interviews use very general questions to get the respondent to talk at ease about their general impressions and experiences of New Zealand, before moving on to talk about Maori. The topic of
Maori culture usually emerges at some stage either because Rotorua is a popular destination on Chinese itineraries, or it is mentioned in relation to visits to a museum or similar. Only if no mention of Maori occurs – particularly in the case of visiting exclusively the South Island of New Zealand, the interviewer asked, ‘have you come across any Maori or have you become aware of local Maori culture?’ Questions then encouraged respondents to expand on their impressions and feelings, taking their lead from what the tourist said. This way we sought to secure knowledge of how the experience of Maori was embedded in their experience. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. Preliminary results using hermeneutic text analysis, coding and comparing expressions are now presented (Charmaz, 2008).

Clearly, for all respondents, the main attraction of New Zealand is its landscape and scenery, as well as outdoor pursuits. Knowledge of Maori prior to arriving in New Zealand does either not exist or relates only to exposure to some visual elements portrayed in web-brochures or on television. As the Chinese prime minister had visited New Zealand and been welcomed with a traditional Maori ritual some also referred to this experience.

Predominantly, however, actual awareness of Maori as a culture only emerged as tourists travelled New Zealand and because Rotorua is on what may be considered the standard Chinese itinerary. Furthermore, those tourists with some English language abilities mentioned that some place names were noted as being Maori.

The main access that Chinese tourist have to Maori culture is visual. They notice Maori as being large people compared to the Chinese race and, stereotypically, associate skin tattoos, and unique wooden carvings with Maori. A frequently mentioned feature is the haka which is a provocative dance performed to test the intentions of opponents and to show strength and resolve. Many are also aware of the hongi, the rubbing of noses in greetings.

Overall, there is a strong sense of Maori as being ferocious, aggressive (particularly based on the haka) but also as kind and friendly (particularly when tourists have been to Rotorua and actually perceived to interact with Maori). In general though, there is no awareness of the fact that Maori are 10% of the population in NZ and not simply identifiable by their looks and skin-colour anymore, as races have intermingled.

Stereotypical thinking abounds in interviews, namely that tattoos are identifiers, that Maori are big and aggressive but also that Maori is a “primitive” yet “clever” people as they managed to survive and keep their cultural identity, in many ways beyond what Chinese experience with their 56 other ethnic populations living in China.

Results further show that as tourists are exposed to things Maori they appreciate it more, begin to discern typical features, and open up to suggestions of more exposure. Particularly those tourists who encountered experienced guides and who introduced them to the cultural significance of artefacts, rituals and ways of life, expressed genuine interested, if it could be accessed conveniently.

Overall, the presentation at this year’s ATMC will provide information on how tourists expressed their interest, their attitude towards what some refer to as a primitive or a culture of cannibals, and what may be likely avenues for engaging Chinese more in Maori culture.
References


SESSION 14

DESTINATIONS AND EXPERIENCES
TERRORISM AND TOURISM REVISITED.

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Introduction

Tourists have been examples, in recent years, of this vulnerability and represent targets which have become more and more desirable (Seabra et al., 2014). A terrorist attack targeting tourists can help its authors achieve several objectives: advertising, economic threat, ideological opposition to tourism, among others (Sönmez, 1998). In fact, tourism sector is one of those that suffer more from terrorist activity. “The adverse economic effects of terrorism on the tourism sector are felt by all countries that suffer terrorist attacks, regardless of whether or not these incidents are aimed at tourists” (IEP, 2016, p.67). Terrorism targeting tourism sector represents heavy costs directly by decreasing tourist arrivals and receipts which will affect and cause a decrease in those countries’ GDP; indirectly employment in tourism and other related industry sectors will decrease as well (IEP, 2016).

Based on an extensive literature and data analysis from the 70’s until 2015 (the last year which has complete and available data), this work’s main goal is to make an important contribution to science and management by analyzing the terrorism phenomenon, specifically its connection with the tourist industry. It is our aim to update the pioneer works of Sonmez (1998) and Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) and help connecting the dots between terrorism and tourism. Firstly, the main links between terrorism and tourism will be explored. Secondly, the effects of terrorism on tourism will be analyzed through a data analysis on terrorism events targeting tourism infrastructures and destinations in the last 45 years. Finally, the main studies connecting terrorism and tourism since the review made by Sönmez and Graefe (1998) will be presented.

Methods & materials

In the 80s and 90s of last century, researchers have predicted a substantial increase of terrorist attacks in the future (D’Amore & Anuza, 1986). Experts speculated that terrorist groups would continue to select vulnerable targets, the attacks would be more indiscriminate, and terrorism would become more institutionalized and geographically wider as a method of armed conflict. On the other hand, they argued that, thanks to media coverage, the public would assist to more terrorist attacks than ever (Atkinson et al., 1987).

Indeed, terrorism numbers showed that they were right. Terrorism attacks increased from 650 events in 1970 to more than 14 820 in 2015, in total there were more than 156 770 terrorist events in the last 45 years. Terrorist attacks rose from an average of 983 per year in the 70’s to about 2500 in the first decade of the 21st century. Despite a slight decrease in terrorism numbers in the 90’s and in the first decade of 2000, we can witness an enormous rise in terrorist situations during this decade. In only five years (2010 - 2015 )
there were almost the same number of events as in the decades of 1970, 1980 and 1990 put together (GTD, 2017). Presently, the public fears terrorism more than ever. In 2014 the deaths caused by terrorism increased 84%. 2015 was considered by the Global Terrorism Index as the worst year of the last 16 years studied in the countries of OECD (IEP, 2016).

The numbers show this new reality. In fact, along with the increase in attacks, the mortality caused by terrorism rose over the last decades and there is a substantial increase in deaths and injuries caused by terrorist events (GTD, 2017).

In the present, violence seems to be happening randomly. The collateral damage is higher than it was previously. In fact it is possible to observe that these kinds of attacks have increased and hit all types of targets, but Private Citizens & Property, Authorities and Tourism are those which seem to have gained terrorists’ preference since the 70’s (GTD, 2017).

The belief of many researchers is that during the 90s the world has entered a new phase of terrorism dramatically different from the previous times. It is called by some the 'new terrorism' (Jenkins, 2001), or 'new types of terrorists post-Cold War' (Hudson, 1999), 'a new type of terrorists' (Stern, 1999), 'new terrorists’ generation' (Hoffman, 1999), ‘or simply a' new wave of terrorism ' (Rapoport, 2001). Generally, the argument is the same, terrorism changed on its main characteristics (Bergesen & Han, 2005).

Terrorism suffered thus a process of profound change accompanied by a strong globalization (Bergesen & Han, 2005), turning it an international issue and reality. When a terrorist incident involves citizens, targets, institutions or governments from another country, terrorism assumes an international nature. According to the European Union (2002), terrorism events, may, in fact, seriously damage a country by intimidating the population and destabilizing its political, constitutional, economic or social structures. Even more, the actions taken in one country inflict costs to people and property on other countries (Enders & Sandler, 2004).

Tourism, being the most important international movement of people, has been regarded as strategic targets by terrorist organizations. In fact, paradoxically, international terrorism and tourism share some characteristics. Both cross national boundaries, involving citizens of different countries and use new technologies associated with travel and telecommunications (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). The words tourism and terrorism can be placed at opposite ends of a quality of life continuum. Tourism suggests life, relaxation, fun, while terrorism readily recalls feelings of death, destruction, fear and panic (O’Connor et al., 2008).

**Research and Results**

Terrorists find in tourism destinations, infrastructures and consumers important targets since they guarantee several goals and purposes (Sönmez et al., 1999). Since the 80’s, researchers found several linkages between terrorist activity and tourism, trying to explain that strange connection. Although several authors describe the goals of terrorists differently, they agree that terrorist organizations have much to gain by attacking tourists (Sönmez, 1998). In fact is possible to find three main dimensions to explain the relationship between tourism and terrorism: i) strategic goals achieved by terrorists; ii) ideological goals achieved by terrorists; iii) tourists are easy targets.

The globalization of tourism markets entails the increase of global risks which are inherent to businesses that are developed at a global scale. The world has become more interdependent. Small-scale crises in a
certain part of the world may have very strong repercussions elsewhere. Tourism is one of the activities which is more vulnerable to these risk factors (Ritchie, 2004). In fact, stability is one of the key factors for the development of tourism (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008). If some event causes a disruption in this balance and causes a risk perception among tourists, it can have a powerful and negative impact on demand (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996). When people travel, they do not want to be exposed to threats to their integrity. Safety on vacation and leisure is an expected requirement for any visitor in any destination (Baker, 2014).

Tourists are essentially concerned with traveling to a particular destination in order to satisfy their desires with as little complications and threats to their safety as possible (Beirman, 2003). Tourist demand is particularly sensitive to tourists' concerns about their well-being (Blake & Sinclair, 2003). The risk in tourism markets has been largely associated with a large number of factors, including threats to their health, crime, violence, war or natural disasters (Cosp, 2003; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Kozak, Crotts & Law, 2007), however, terrorist attacks and political instability are much scarier for tourists (Sönmez, 1998). In fact, terrorist attacks have been responsible for most of the recent tourist crises (Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999).

According to the Institute for Peace Economics in the Global Peace Index (2016), the contribution of tourism sector to GDP is twice larger in countries where there are no occurrences of terrorist attacks targeting tourists in 2015. Between 2008 and 2014, tourism’s average contribution to GDP growth was 3.6 per cent in countries that had no terrorist attacks targeting tourists. In countries where attacks deliberately targeted tourists, it amounted to 1.9 per cent. Many countries and regions saw their revenues on tourism activity dramatically affected due to terrorism activity.

Discussion

The main goal of terror is to provoke an emotional fear, more than to obtain a military defeat. Terrorists achieve that goal by choosing high profile civilian targets or national society’s symbols. Therefore, while the number of casualties is lower than the number of wars, keeping structures and institutions largely intact, terrorism can generate deeper fear and anxiety, causing changes in the individual and organizations’ behavior (Spilerman & Steckov, 2009).

The social nature of terrorism leads, in many individuals, to the fear of traveling, especially abroad, and specifically to destinations perceived as unsafe. The violence affects directly the image of a country, both internally and internationally, destroying the functioning of society and interfering with the free flow of people and ideas (Seabra et al., 2014). Few people travel to places where they feel threatened. When people are afraid of traveling, isolation and xenophobia begin and cooperation and cultural exchange end (Pizam et al., 1997).

Although terrorism has been a political weapon since the beginning of history, this form of struggle in contemporary periods has an impact and frequency never witnessed before. Terrorism today is almost a commonplace (D'Amore & D'Anuza, 1986). Most terrorist attacks are difficult to prevent. They are different and difficult to solve with simple formulas, however, tourist destinations should be prepared in order to build and implement their own specific action plan. In light of the social and global complexities, no target is immune to negative occurrences and to think that “it only happens to others” may be dangerously immature and may be catastrophic (Sönmez, 1998). Crises resulting from terrorist attacks, which have become increasingly frequent, put an enormous pressure on staff and managers (Ritchie, 2004). Marketers,
especially, need to understand tourists’ behavior and their decision-making mechanisms in order to join forces and resources with managers in an attempt to attract tourists in a world where fear is global (Yeoman et al., 2006). Since the paper of Sönmez (1998) few researches tried to make a deep analysis on the tourism and terrorism connections. With this work it is our aim to close this gap.


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IS THERE A LINK BETWEEN PEACE AND TOURISM?

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Introduction

According to the International Institute for Peace through Tourism (IPT), founded in 1986, Travel and Tourism is the world’s first “Global Peace Industry” – “an industry that promotes and supports the belief that every traveler is potentially an ‘Ambassador for Peace’ (D’Amore, 2010, p.566). However, apart from this belief and the research conducted on the existence of causal relationship between peace and tourism (Litvin, 1998; Pratt & Liu, 2016), a question still remains: does peace lead to tourism or does tourism lead to peace instead? Moreover, if there is a link between peace at home and tourism, how does it influence behaviors and attitudes, particularly attitudes towards risk in international travel?

The present study analyses the impact of peacefulness in the tourists’ country of origin, using the Global Peace Index (Institute for Economics and Peace, 2015) on several aspects of travel behavior and its determinants, specifically: i) behavior in travel planning: involvement with international travel; and ii) travel risk and safety perceptions: risk perception, safety/insecurity sensation and iii) determinant of risk awareness: interest in/ attention to terrorism in the media.

Methods & materials

Human behavior is essentially intentional and regulated by anticipation. Through anticipation, individuals self-motivate themselves to conduct their actions, anticipate images of a product, its uses and the consequences of its consumption. While forming different expectations, consumers can mentally try different alternatives and choose the one that will bring them more pleasure during its consumption (Bieger, Laesser & Gallen, 2000). Travel, especially leisure travel, should be a most enjoyable and relevant experience for an individual’s quality of life. This importance makes most tourists plan their travel carefully (Seabra, Abrantes & Lages, 2007).

Tourists are more and more demanding in their travel choices. The purchase of tourism products implies high-involvement decision-making, because tourists purchase highly valued experiences expected to occur at a destination. These are personally relevant, but intangible and subjectively distinctly lived and perceived, while tourism products are purchased at a distance in both space, time and frequently culture, making the
decision more complex, risky and engaging (Kastenholz, 2010), due to the substantial financial and non-financial costs they may involve (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Purchase involvement is the degree of commitment with which consumers engage in different aspects of the consumption process: product choice, search for information, decision-making and purchase (Seabra, Abrantes & Kastenholz, 2014). It is, in fact, a central aspect in consumer behavior research (Broderick & Mueller, 1999), both generally (Zaichkowsky, 1985, 1986), and especially when analyzing the purchase decision regarding tourism products (Dimanche, Havitz & Howard, 1991). Product involvement has five main dimensions: knowledge, pleasure/interest, risk probability, risk importance and prestige (Seabra, Dolnicar, Abrantes & Kastenholz, 2013).

Stability at the destination and during travel is, in fact, a key factor for tourism development (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008). If some event causes a disruption in this balance, it will cause a feeling of risk in tourists that will in turn cause a powerful negative impact on demand (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996). Tourist demand is particularly sensitive to the tourists’ safety, health and well-being concerns (Blake & Sinclair, 2003). Individual sensitivity towards risk in travel may be determined by the perceived safety and peacefulness experienced in tourists’ home environments (Pratt & Liu, 2016). Risk perception relates to the amount and types of risk tourists associate to travel and international tourism. Two subscales can measure this perception: the generic types of perceived risk and perceptions of insecurity.

A survey instrument was used to collect data in three international airports of countries associated with different levels of terrorism threat and risk: Madrid/Barajas, Lisbon/Portela and Milan/Malpensa. Two of this study’s authors administered the questionnaires to random travelers who had undertaken an international trip after they had carried out their check on the way back from their destination. The questionnaires were self-administered to ensure the data was not biased. A final sample of 613 questionnaires and 600 valid responses were collected, equally divided among the 3 international airports. Appendix 1 includes the questionnaire measures, constructs and scales adapted from literature relevant to the research context.

To analyze the mentioned dimensions of involvement, risk perception, safety/unsafety perceptions and contact with terrorism through media, and to analyze the impact of peacefulness at home on these determinants of international travel decisions, the sample was divided, based on each respondent’s country and corresponding classification within the Global Peace Index (Institute for Economics and Peace, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Peace Index</th>
<th>Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPI very-high</td>
<td>Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Japan, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI high</td>
<td>Argentina, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI medium</td>
<td>USA, Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI low</td>
<td>Guinea, India, Israel, Kyrgyzstan, Mexico, South Africa, Turkey, Venezuela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI very-low</td>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Countries of origin of travelers in the sample by GPI index
The respondents in the sample are mostly from countries with a high (50%) or from a very high GPI conditions (26.1%) and 19.2% are from countries with a medium GPI. Only 5.2% of responses are from countries with a low or very low GPI (see Table 1).

The resulting groups were finally compared regarding the travel decision-making variables and determinants: involvement with international travel, travel risk and safety perceptions and interest in/attention to terrorism in the media.

**Research and Results**

Possible associations between the GPI groupings and the previously identified most consistent travel-determinant dimensions were analyzed through Kruskal-Wallis tests. In addition, a more specific analysis was carried out through pairwise comparisons to assess which pairs of GPI categories exhibited significant differences. It was possible to obtain the following results.

Regarding the Involvement dimensions, tourists from countries with different levels of GPI showed no significant differences regarding Knowledge (p=0.547) and Pleasure/Interest (p=0.868). However, the Risk Probability dimension showed a significant difference between GPI groups (p=0.004).

When testing the influence of tourists’ GPI level on Risk Perception types, the results show that most of the risks have a low or very low influence: Functional Risk (p=0.153), Financial Risk (p=0.889), Physical Risk (p=0.753), Social Risk (p=0.719), Psychological Risk (p=0.652), Risk of Satisfaction (p=0.108), Health Risk (p=0.713) and Terrorism Risk (p=0.760). Only the risk perception of Political Instability varies according to the GPI index of the country the tourists live in (p=0.037).

The Unsafety Perceptions dimension Safety Importance depends significantly (p=0.028) on the GPI value of the tourists’ country of origin. Finally, the tourists’ country of origin GPI index does not influence significantly the dimensions Interest and Attention to Terrorism (p=0.179).

**Discussion**

Travel safety is a critical issue to tourists. However, their country of origin may be an important key factor to understand the different behaviors and safety perceptions they hold when they go on an international trip. The main issue underlying the present study was to establish the relationship between peacefulness at home and international travel. Specifically, the aim was to analyze the impact of peacefulness in tourists’ country of origin on their travel behavior regarding involvement, risk, and safety/insecurity perceptions.

The results bring important insights to managers of tourist organizations and destinations. Factors like involvement and especially risk probability that relate directly with the tourists’ confidence when they buy tourist products, interest and attention to terrorism and safety perceptions are very important attributes managers have to take into account if they want to attract tourists from all around the world.

In addition, this study showed that the peacefulness in the tourists’ origin countries has an impact on their involvement, on some risk perception dimensions and on the importance that they give to safety. That could be a huge task. However, the existence of GPI index simplifies it. In consequence, it is very important to make the distinction between the different levels of the GPI index, distinguishing countries with a very high, high, medium, low, and very low GPI index, because it turns out that peacefulness and safety
perceived at home will influence the tourists’ behaviors and attitudes. This is a very important insight to tourist destinations and firms that are concerned in increasing their clients’ satisfaction levels and developing a correct targeting strategy. Destinations that want to attract tourists from countries that exhibit a low GPI index should invest in good promotion and informational strategies, highlighting the safety of the destination and the measures to guarantee it for tourists, to limit tourists’ risk perception when they are buying their products.

The image of safety and security is critical, so promotion campaigns should focus on that stability and safety image. Attracting tourists from countries with medium GPI index is a challenge, since they are particularly concerned with safety measures. This means that authorities and managers should consider following this kind of strategy. Those safety and security measures should be visible in airports and in the destinations promotion strategies. To those tourists, safety is the most important attribute that a destination can offer.


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MUSEUMS AS TOURIST EXPERIENCES - ADDED VALUE FROM DIGITAL AND PERSONAL GUIDES?

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Introduction

A challenge for tourist attractions is how to convey history and culture in a way that provides knowledge and meaningful experiences for tourists. Museums are a good example of culture-based attractions with a long tradition of knowledge transfer (Lyngnes, 2014). Currently we see increased focus on experience products and offers within tourism and can observe how this may add value for tourists and tourist firms. Museums possess original, often unique, stories and objects that should be interpreted and conveyed to appropriate segments of the public. Museums as attractions are central venues for obtaining knowledge about another culture, but to an even greater extent, they are a venue for experiences.

Today, new technology affects most aspects of society, including communication within culture, education and tourism. Digitization, blended learning, flipped classrooms and extensive use of social media have led to new roles for lecturers, guides and other mediators; they also challenge traditional teaching and mediation methods. The implementation of new technology is both a necessity, an opportunity and a challenge. There are several alternatives for conveying the museum’s resources and one of the standards is guiding. Guiding is an important offer in most attractions, and creating attractive experiences depends on the narrative and how it is delivered and conveyed. Guiding can come in the form of written guides, like booklets and posters, through personal guides, and as digital guides based on modern technology. Digital guides mediate culture and art through a variety of channels, such as downloaded material, interactive material for I-phones and other platforms that can be updated more easily than traditional presentations, and even material from augmented reality (AR). The use of digital guides may be seen as an opportunity to offer experiences. Digital guides also make it possible to replace personal guided tours (Bohlin and Brandt, 2013). Personal guides are not always available, they generally perform only for groups, and are only available by appointment beforehand. They can be hired for an extra fee or, in museums, guide at specified times. There seems to be a need for increased knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses of the different guiding forms in order to organize meaningful experiences.

Although research has focused on knowledge transfer at attractions, there seems to have been little academic attention brought to focus on guided tours in tourism research (Jonasson, Hallin and Smith, 2013) and especially in galleries and museums wishing to emphasize experience. Furthermore, there seems to be a lack of knowledge regarding the experience value of digital guides and personal guides in conveying culture and art for tourists.

This study aims to explore different aspects of digital and personal guides and how these types of guiding affect the tourist’s perceived experiences and acquisition of relevant knowledge.
Guiding is based on two pillars: the narrative and the conveying of the narrative. Guiding principles and tools for interpretation and teaching are well-documented (e.g. Beck and Cable 2011, Ababneh, 2017, Timothy 2011). Guiding to offer experience has to a lesser extent been a focus of attention for museums. In order to explore the guide’s impact on experiences, the experience field will be presented and discussed.

The experience economy was launched by Pine and Gilmore (1999). They claim that companies set the stage for experiences and thus increase value for both the customer and the company and that experiences can be a competitive advantage for firms and destinations. More recent studies show that staging is moving towards co-creation between companies and customers, and that this is justified both in a macroeconomic context and through changes in individual demand (Bosjwijk, Peelen and Olthof 2013). The theoretical framework focuses on the following perspectives. Staging (e.g. Pine and Gilmore 1999), co-creation between guides and tourists will be explained (e.g. Arnould and Price, 1993, Bosjwijk, Peelen and Olthof, 2013, Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) both as physical and mental activities. Research shows that involvement impacts perceived experience value (Prebensen, Woo, Chen and Uysal, 2012) and storytelling as a method for increased experience value (Bryon 2012, Mossberg 2007). This will be presented and discussed.

Methods & materials

The present study is exploratory in nature and adopts an interpretative and qualitative method approach. It is based on a sample of four well-known museums that offer both personal, written and digital guiding and are active in social media. The museums are visited in order to obtain participating observations of the guiding offered. Content studies of websites, apps and social media are conducted. In-depth interviews with visiting tourists will be conducted in the summer of 2017. A semi-structured interview guide including key words about the narrative and staging, co-creation, involvement and storytelling will be applied. The location for the study is within the museums as the physical meeting place.

Research

In this section the different aspects of digital guiding and personal guiding will be analyzed. Further analyses will look into how elements from the experience field are facilitated, made available and used both in interpretation of the narrative and the in delivery. The research design is not organized and presented as a comparative study.

Discussion

The final section provides a discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of the respective guides. Key elements in the discussion are the possibility of the tourist’s involvement and co-creation and storytelling for increased experience value and acquisition of relevant knowledge. The personal guides may optimize the opportunity to act in a way that increases the value of the experiences for tourists, and help to find new ways of being more available and co-creating with the tourists. The digital guides will explore the opportunities and challenges of the new platforms, how they can be applied (such as iPhone and apps) and
how the content can be organized in accordance with this. The study will also discuss potential consequences of offering either digital or personal guides. The paper concludes with suggestions for management, possible implications and further research.

References


EMOTIONAL LABOR IN SHOPPING DISTRICTS: ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTABILITY, CUSTOMER ORIENTATION, EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION, AND JOB SATISFACTION.

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Introduction

As tourism is promoted, locals, particularly laborers who attend to customers, have more opportunities to come into contact with tourists. Those laborers are not only hospitality professionals but also ordinary workers who are less likely to be accustomed to tourists’ different cultural backgrounds. As the mental health of locals is argued to influence a destination’s sustainability and attractiveness (Ap, 1992) and locals who come into contact with tourists for commercial purposes may affect tourists’ experiences and evaluations of destinations (Krippendorf, 1987), favorable mental conditions of local laborers who have intercultural interactions with tourists are significant for successful tourism promotion.

One of the concepts that are related to the mental conditions of laborers who wait on customers and that may influence the laborers’ job-related mental conditions is the emotional labor. Emotional labor is the management of feelings and expressions employed to fulfill a job’s requirements and is often performed by laborers who have face-to-face or oral contact with people (Hoschshild, 1983). Emotional labor can be classified into surface acting and deep acting (Hoschshild, 1983). While surface acting refers to laborers changing their emotional expressions to display the required appropriate emotions to customers, deep acting refers to laborers altering of their inner emotions, which also leads to the expression of the appropriate emotions to customers.

According to past studies, surface acting may lead to laborers’ emotional exhaustion (Brotherbridge & Lee, 1998), while deep acting may contribute to laborers’ job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2016). Lee et al.’s study (2016) also showed negative relationships between customer orientation and surface acting and positive relationships between customer orientation and deep acting as well as laborers’ job satisfaction.

This study focuses on commercial laborers in shopping districts and aims to elucidate the relationship between the two types of emotional labor, surface and deep acting, toward tourists using cross-cultural adaptability and customer orientation as antecedent variables and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction as dependent variables. The originality of this study is summarized in the following three points. First, while past tourism and hospitality studies have focused on hospitality professionals such as luxury hotels workers (Lee et al., 2016), this study pays attention to more ordinary laborers who may also affect tourists’
experiences. Secondly, this study includes laborers’ cross-cultural adaptability, which has not been examined in past studies on emotional labor. This variable is expected to affect emotional labor and the relevant variables when laborers need to express their emotions to tourists with different cultural backgrounds. Thirdly, this study measures emotional labor toward foreign tourists and tourists from the same nation as the laborers separately in light of the possible variety in results caused by perceived cultural differences. In order to make practical suggestions, this study focuses on shopping districts that have recently experienced a rapid increase in foreign tourism because ordinary commercial laborers in these areas may need clues to adjust themselves to the foreign tourists with different cultural backgrounds.

This study relates to the conference theme of “the art of living together,” particularly “the roles of locals and communities,” in that it focuses on laborers’ emotional labor, which may affect their views about their jobs, and that the laborers can resultantly affect tourists’ experiences. As shopping districts may accommodate both tourists’ and locals’ activities (Snepenger, et al., 2003), this study is expected to offer insight into interactions between tourists and local laborers and further into forms of tourism in which both tourists and locals can be in favorable emotional states.

**Methods and Materials**

This study employed a questionnaire survey to laborers working in shopping districts in Naha City, Okinawa Prefecture, Japan. In these districts, many shops in and adjacent to the main street were converted into rented spaces in 1980s as a result of the outflow of customers to large-scale suburban stores, and have mainly been used as souvenir shops since then (Kinjo, 1996). Nevertheless, according to the district’s union president, some areas further away from the main street still comprise mainly clothing stores for locals.

The questionnaire included questions about the respondents’ demographic profiles, questions about their jobs, such as their main merchandise, employment status, opportunities to serve Japanese tourists and foreign tourists, and thirty questions regarding the eight key variables on five-point scales (1, “do not agree at all” to 5, “agree very much”): three items each regarding deep acting toward Japanese tourists, deep acting toward Chinese tourists, surface acting toward Japanese tourists, and surface acting toward Chinese tourists (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Chu & Murrmann, 2006); three items regarding emotional exhaustion (Maslach & Jackson, 1981); three items regarding job satisfaction (Cammann, 1979); three items regarding customer orientation (Susskind et al, 2003); and nine items regarding cross-cultural adaptability (Kelly & Meyer, 1995). Chinese tourists were selected as the target foreign tourists because their share among foreign tourists to Okinawa Prefecture was the second largest (4,492,000) and the rate of growth in the number was the largest (51.5%) in 2016 (Okinawa Prefecture, 2017).

Ratings on the scales regarding each variable were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (Promax Rotation, Major Factor Method). The relationships illustrated in the initial model (Figure 1) based on the above-mentioned past studies were first tested through step-wise multiple regression analysis using the factors’ scores of the key variables as the dependent variables, except cross-cultural adaptability, and the factors’ scores of their antecedents as the independent variables. The model with paths between factors’ scores, which were found significant as the result of the multiple regression analysis, (Figure 2) was then tested using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).
Figure 1. The initial model

Figure 2. The results of the multiple regression analysis
Due to the limited space allowed for this abstract, only the minimal details that are necessary for helping readers’ understandings are reported.

The questionnaires were distributed to 309 laborers from 24 to 27 November 2016, and 264 completed questionnaires were collected. Then, questionnaires completed by those who did not have opportunities to come into contact with either Japanese or foreign tourists, did not indicate ‘Japanese’ as their nationality, or did not answer any questions about the eight key variables were excluded. As a result, 197 responses were subjected to further analysis.

As a result of factor analysis, one factor was obtained each for job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and customer satisfaction (Cronbach’s α = .706, .630, and .698, respectively). As for cross-cultural adaptability, three items were excluded because they did not show enough factor loadings (≥.04, Nunnally, 1978), and resultantly one factor was obtained (Cronbach’s α = .780). The factor analysis with ratings regarding emotional labor, namely surface acting and deep acting for Japanese and Chinese tourists, generated three factors, surface acting (concealing) (Cronbach’s α = .794), surface acting (automatic) (Cronbach’s α = .830), and deep acting (Cronbach’s α = .886), and separate factors for Japanese and Chinese tourists were not identified.

As a result of factor analysis, one factor was obtained for job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and customer satisfaction (Cronbach's α = .706, .630, and .698, respectively). As for cross-cultural adaptability, three items were excluded because they did not show enough factor loadings (≥.04, Nunnally, 1978), and resultantly one factor was obtained (Cronbach’s α = .780). The factor analysis with ratings regarding emotional labor, namely surface acting and deep acting for Japanese and Chinese tourists, generated three factors, surface acting (concealing) (Cronbach’s α = .794), surface acting (automatic) (Cronbach’s α = .830), and deep acting (Cronbach’s α = .886), and separate factors for Japanese and Chinese tourists were not identified.

The subsequent step-wise multiple regression analysis showed the significant paths between the factors’ scores of the key variables as shown in Figure 2. The following SEM with the deletion of insignificant paths and the addition of correlations with reference to the modification indices generated the model shown in Figure 3. Resultantly, there were significant positive relationships observed between cross-cultural adaptability and customer orientation, between customer orientation and surface acting (automatic) as well as...
as deep acting, between deep acting and job satisfaction, and between emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. There was also a negative relationship between surface acting (automatic) and emotional exhaustion.

Discussion
This study suggests that for ordinary commercial laborers in shopping districts that have been experiencing rapid growth of inbound tourists, their cross-cultural adaptability may, not directly but indirectly through their customer orientation, have positive effects on the two types of emotional labor. Therefore, while general educational attempts to foster laborers’ cross-cultural adaptability are needed, it is also necessary to introduce professional education to increase their customer-oriented mindsets and teach ways to perform emotional labor at both deep and surface levels. Secondly, surface acting (automatic) was found to affect laborers’ emotional exhaustion negatively and, as a result, increase their job satisfaction, which runs counter to the previous implication of the negative effects of surface acting on job satisfaction. This points to the necessity of laborers’ skills of automatically presenting favorable emotions to customers for their own job satisfaction. Lastly, the results of factor analysis of ratings on scales regarding emotional labor suggest that the structure of emotional labor may not differ across customers’ nationalities. In this sense, the above-mentioned measures to foster laborers’ cross-cultural adaptability such as professional education for developing customer-oriented mindsets and expressing favorable emotions to customers are important for laborers’ job satisfaction and for fostering domestic and international inbound tourism.

Despite the above contributions, the small sample size for the SEM and possible effects of social desirability regarding the responses to some questions, such as cross-cultural adaptability and customer orientation as well as respondents’ possible anxiety to express job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion, are drawbacks. In order to overcome them, it is necessary to accumulate data from other shopping districts of a similar nature and, although this may lengthen questionnaire and lower the response rate, to introduce more inverse scoring.

References


SESSION 15

TOURISTS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
BEYOND THE “TOURIST ENVIRONMENTAL BUBBLE”: CROSS-CULTURAL ENCOUNTERS OF BUSINESS TRAVELERS.

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Introduction

The current study examines the nature of the guest-host encounter, by focusing on cross cultural encounters between business travelers and locals during the former’s stay at the visited destination. Since business travelers meet colleagues or clients that are not part of the local tourism industry, they have the opportunity to cross what Cohen (1972) calls “the tourist environmental bubble” (TEB) and experience the visited destination in a more authentic manner than leisure tourists do.

Literature review

The proliferation of international business in the era of global economy generates constant growth in the number of individuals who engage in long distance and overseas travel for various work-related activities (Gustafson, 2012). Official statistics indicate that the business travel segment comprises 14% of the international tourism market (UNTWO 2016).

The business traveler belongs to a wider category of tourism called by Cohen (1974) “partial-tourism”. Specifically, this category includes hybrid travelers who combine tourism with other domains of life, such work (business travelers), family (VFR tourists), voluntarism (volunteer tourists) politics (international activists) and health (medical tourists). While many of these travelers enjoy the comfort service and enmities of the TEB provided by the local tourism industry, they have the opportunity to cross it by interacting with locals who are not part of the local hospitality sector. The current study aims to shed light on these encounters beyond the TEB, by focusing on challenges, difficulties, as well as rewards and benefits experienced by business travelers who often interact with locals who may be colleagues or clients.

Recently, Unger, Uriely & Fuchs (2016) explore the business travel experience as a framework of time with four phases (trip preparations, passenger experience, destination experience and homecoming), paying attention to the split between work and leisure throughout trip phases. The study indicates that, while the passenger experience includes “moments of relaxation”, The other phases of the trip, including the stay at the destination, are devoted mainly to work-related obligations. In this context, the literature on business travelers suggests that their destination experience is often associated with a stressful schedule of meetings and challenging intercultural encounters with locals (e.g. Doyle & Nathan 2001; Espino, Sundstrom, Frick,
Jacobs & Peters, 2002; Gustafson, 2012, 2014; Unger. Uriely and Fuchs 2016). At the same time, their destination experience also involves beneficial inter-cultural encounters that lead to cosmopolitan identities, broadened understanding of cultural differences, increased open-mindedness and enhanced professional status (e.g. Cohen & Gossling 2015, Doyle & Nathan 2001, Gustafson 2009, 2014, Lassen 2006, Westman. Etzion & Chen 2009, DeFrank, Konopaske, Ivancevitch 2000). Both the difficulties and the rewards experienced by business travelers are considered by Cohen and Gossling (2015) as consequences of a “hyper-mobility” lifestyle. In the current study. They are addressed as features of the “beyond the TEB” encounters, which are the main concern of this study.

Methods

The present study is based on the qualitative method of research and employs the interpretative analysis of 26 in-depth semi-structured interviews. All the interviewees were Israeli business travelers whose positions require a minimum of eight international business trips a year and who had maintained this lifestyle for at least two years.

For recruiting the interviewees, a snowball sampling method was employed. The initial interviewees were detected by utilizing personal ties with people who met the criteria of the study population. The sample included employees of both Hi Tech and Low Tech companies, having a variety of functions. These included practitioner professionals, executives and sales personal. The interviewees had different level of work seniority and different ages, all with the common denominator of multiple air-travel trips as an integral part of their functioning. According to the literature, the business travelers’ population is generally characterized as being of high level in their organizations, with a middle-high socio-economic status and academic education (Doyle & Nathan, 2001), where men tend to travel more than women (Gustafson, 2006). These characteristics are reflected in the present study as well. In the study twenty –two interviewees were men and only four women. Twenty-three participants held academic degrees and sixteen had senior management positions at their organizations. The age range of interviewees was 29-64, twenty-three were married, two were divorced, and one was single.

The interview included 54 questions that were based on the literature review and referred to six issues: characteristics and frequency of travel; the preparations for the trip; the experience in airports and in aircrafts; various aspects of the stay at the destination; the return home; and questions that dealt with the daily routine that frequent travel dictate to the respondent and to those related to him.

The length of the interviews ranged from an hour and a quarter to two and a half hours. The interviews were recorded and fully transcribed.

For interpretation and understanding of the significance of the data, the interviews were dismantled and reassigned in accordance with the methodology of "Grounded Theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Research and Results

The finding indicate that compared to most tourists, the destination experience of business travelers is more authentic in the sense that they cross the protective walls of the “tourist environmental bubble” (TEB), which shields tourists to some extent from what goes on "behind the scenes" (Cohen 1973). In this regard, note that while business travelers employ tourism services such as flights, hotels,
and restaurants and interact with locals who work in the tourism sector (like other tourists), they also encounter colleagues and clients who provide them with entry to non-touristic geographical and cultural zones of the local destination. Consequently, the destination experience of business travelers appears to be both more challenging and more rewording when compared to conventional leisure tourists. Specifically, in order to succeed professionally, it is crucial for the business traveler to know and understand how certain practices differ across cultures. This can be reflected in business card exchange, seating arrangements at a meeting, negotiation management and so on. Additionally, business trips often include dining with local colleagues or other gatherings that expose business travelers to cultural differences such as table manners, food types, drinking habits and other behavioral codes that they must implement in order to respect both their hosts and the local culture. At the same time, it appears that the effort invested in the encounters with locals provides business travelers with a sense of cosmopolitan identity, self-development and deeper understanding of people and cultures around the globe. They have to opportunity to avoid “tourist traps”, meet “real people” and engage in “authentic” local culture. In this respect, they belong to a category of tourists/travelers who cross the BET to some extent, such as volunteer tourists, visiting friends and relatives, international political activists and those who travel abroad for medical services.

Discussion

The study uncovers “beyond the TEB” sort of interaction between business travelers and locals. It shows that the most desirable motives of tourists, such as quests for authenticity and novelty are experienced beyond the TEB, but so are feelings that tourists try to avoid including anxiety and stress. These findings contribute to the literature on business travelers as well as to the study of guest-host contact in tourism scholarship. Further encounters beyond the TEB are yet to be examined in the contexts of VFR tourism, volunteer tourism, political and medical tourism.

References


TRAVELING TO A LESS SAFE DESTINATION: THE CASE OF MOROCCO.

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Introduction

Having the urge to travel to a destination can be related to several socio-psychological aspects according to the needs of the person. The tourist can search for a place to relax, better conditions that allows him to establish his own business, or even a destination where he can have and experience a new lifestyle. Saayman, (2006).

However, with the insecurity that delights the world, some of the destinations, that might be dangerous comparing to others, still attract people despite the security circumstances. But what makes tourists curious about having an extremely different holiday experience?

The reasons behind why people chose one destination over another is related to several factors Papatheodorou (2006). The need to see the unseen and to know the unknown drives people to travel and motivates them to visit new destinations (Venkatesh, 2006); those factors can be related to the concept of being loyal to a destination, Practicing a new trend of tourism, having curiosity to discover the exotic side of the new places, Or even the low prices to which the tourist cannot resist. All these factors might reduce the feeling of fear and increase the desire of having a non-standard experience. This balance between fear and the try-out of unexpected adventures makes the risk safety perception negligible for them.

The purpose of this research is to have a clear view about the relationship between what fascinate tourist to travel to a less secure destination, and the way how they manage the balance between the two critical feelings: fear and desire. The guidelines used shows a better understanding about what’s the attractive side of Moroccan destination that still keeping tourist curious about it despite of the safety circumstances.

Methods & materials

In order to reach better results, the following steps were conducted:

1. Literature review of the main articles and books that analyze tourist’s motivations and tourist’s risk perception.
2. Recorded Interviews with tourists using a guideline that contain seven open questions.

The target was 20 leisure tourists visiting Agadir in March/April 2017. The reason behind the choice of a guidelines survey was to let the opportunity for tourists to express more about their motivations. The interview guide was in two languages: English and French in order to diversify the segment and to have more opinions.
Research and Results

The data collection was implemented in Agadir, Morocco. The guidelines with seven questions were distributed in March/April, 2017.

The guidelines aim to analyze what motivate tourists to keep visiting Morocco in spite of its location near to some risky destinations. What are the their socioeconomic/psychographic characteristics? Which are the main tourists attributes of Agadir that prompt them to prefer Morocco vis-à-vis other more (perceived) safe destinations?

Discussion

The results for this study will demonstrate the relationship between the way in which the fear and desire sensation is managed by the tourist, and the motivation to travel to a less safe destination.

References


EVALUATION OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES IN TURKISH TOURISM INDUSTRY

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Ozkan TUTUNCU, DEU Faculty of Business, Turkey.

Introduction

Tourism is a vulnerable and sensitive industry in which peace and security are the pre-conditions. Tourism industry operations are interrelated with political stability and peace environment. However, some incidents such as political instability, terrorist attacks, or epidemics are uncontrollable factors by which tourism industry is directly and immediately affected.

Terrorism -particularly Isis terrorist attacks- in Belgium, France, Germany, Turkey, USA, and many other countries in Asia and the Middle East; Syria war and ongoing conflicts in the Middle East; epidemics in several African countries; and political instability worldwide had major impacts on tourism in recent years. Turkey has been among the mostly affected countries in terms of its position in this crisis environment. Turkish tourism industry has come up against several political tensions and terrorist attacks recently. In the aftermath of the political tension with Russia which is the major source market for Turkey, and recently increasing level of terrorist attacks, the demand for Turkey has dramatically dropped. In 2016, the number of tourist arrivals from Russia decreased by 76%, while total number of tourist arrivals decreased by 25% compared to the previous year (KTB, 2017).

Tourism crisis can be overcome to a certain degree with good management but it is necessary that the strategies that are created should aim to cope with unexpected events (Faulkner, 2001). This approach requires proactive scanning, planning and implementing strategies and assessing the effectiveness of these strategies to ensure continuous improvement of crisis management strategies (Ritchie, 2004). Tourism enterprises carry out various managerial practices as a part of human resources, maintenance, marketing, and governmental assistance to minimize the impact of the crises (Israeli et al., 2011). Marketing strategies, in particular, are mostly needed to overcome or minimize the effects of crisis. It includes strategies such as withdrawing from weak markets, marketing strong brands, maintaining advertising activities, finding alternative markets, and reducing prices (Ang et al., 2000). Moreover, if the domestic tourism market has sufficient purchasing power, short, medium, and long term plans can be applied by the enterprises (Mansfeld, 1996). According to Fleisher & Buccola (2002), reducing local market prices can also help to compensate decreasing foreign tourist demand. The effects of crisis are divided into two groups as short term and long term. In this study, the short term effects of the crisis as one variable.
The main purpose of the study is to explore crisis management practices of tourism industry in Turkey. Since there was a lack of literature, it was questioned if crisis management practices of tourism enterprises were different based on the operation years and business types. There were scarce amount of research dealing with crisis management (Faulkner, 2001; Parsons, 1996; Ritchie, 2004) and effects of crisis in the existing literature (Okumuş & Karamustafa, 2005; Sönmez et al., 1999). Related hypotheses of the study are given as follows;

**H₁:** There is a significant relationship between crisis management practices and the operation year of tourism enterprises.

**H₂:** There is a significant relationship between negative short-term effects of crises and the operation year of tourism enterprises.

**H₃:** There is a significant relationship between crisis management practices and the types of tourism enterprises.

**H₄:** There is a significant relationship between negative short-term effects of crises and the types of tourism enterprises.

**Methodology**

Data were obtained by administrating a structured-questionnaire survey and consisted of three parts. The first part examined crisis management practices of tourism industry and inquired 30 statements under five dimensions. The second part of the survey included negative short-term effects of crisis on tourism enterprises with six statements under one dimension. The scales were adapted from previous research (Israeli & Reichel, 2003; Israeli, 2007; Israeli et al., 2011; Perl & Israeli, 2011; Okumuş & Karamustafa, 2005). Since the scales were to be used in Turkey, they had to be retested against validity and reliability. Some modifications were made in this context and statements were translated from English to Turkish. All items were measured on five-point Likert-scales ranging from “1 = strongly disagree” to “5 = strongly agree”. The last part of the survey involved basic demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Data collection was carried out in Travel Turkey Izmir’2016 Tourism Fair and Congress, which is one of the leading and prestigious events for tourism market in Turkey. The fair hosted 1179 exhibitors from 38 countries and was visited by approximately 40000 tourism professionals from 77 countries in 2016 (Travel Turkey Izmir, 2016). Data were collected among professionals of Turkish tourism industry (hotels, travel agencies, airline companies, and other type of tourism enterprises) at the event hall by research team between 8 and 11 December 2016.

In total 223 questionnaires were collected, of which 219 were usable. Concerning respondents' demographic profile, genders of employees’ were almost equally distributed with 50.7% female and 49.3% male. One remarkable characteristic of the respondents’ profile was that vast majority of the sample was highly educated i.e. - undergraduate and post-graduate (89.5%). Regarding the operation years, it can be highlighted that most of the enterprises have been operating for more than 6 years (70.8%). The great majority of the sample worked at hotels (60.3%). Data were analyzed by using a SPSS 24 program. Descriptive statistics, parallel test, exploratory factor analysis, independent samples t-test, and correlation analysis were used to analyze the data.
Results

To design an effective and a valid research, reliability and construct validity of the scales were evaluated. Regarding the reliability, Cronbach’s Alpha value of crisis management practices was .89, and negative short-term effects’ value was .80 which provided the .80 minimum standard (Nunnally, 1978). In order to test construct validity of the scales, Horn (1965)’s Parallel Analysis was implemented to determine the number of factors. In the exploratory factor analysis, crisis management practices were restricted to five dimensions and negative short-term effects were explained under one dimension. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin value was .82 for crisis management practices and .81 for negative short-term effects which were within the acceptable limits according to Hair et al. (2007). Maximum Likelihood analysis was implemented and factors were rotated by the Promax method. Variables of which loading rates were less than .35 have been taken out of evaluation so as to have the topics be presented more clearly (Norman & Streiner, 1998). Finally, it was found that 29 variables were formed under five factors with total variance in the rate of .55 (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1 - Maintenance</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>Eigen-value</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost cuts by limiting services</strong></td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>7.350</td>
<td>25.344</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost cuts by postponing maintenance of the building</strong></td>
<td>.723</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost cuts by postponing maintenance to the engineering systems</strong></td>
<td>.663</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cost cuts by using less expensive substitutes</strong></td>
<td>.650</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Postponed new investments</strong></td>
<td>.513</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduced our budget for training</strong></td>
<td>.503</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extending credit or postponing scheduled payments</strong></td>
<td>.424</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 - Human Resources</td>
<td>3.191</td>
<td>11.004</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Using unpaid vacation to reduce labor force</strong></td>
<td>.674</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Replacing high-tenure employees with new employees</strong></td>
<td>.665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Increased reliance on outsourcing</strong></td>
<td>.601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Increasing the number of working hours per week</strong></td>
<td>.575</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decreasing pay rates</strong></td>
<td>.547</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Laying off employees to reduce labor force</strong></td>
<td>.479</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Freezing pay rates</strong></td>
<td>.417</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3 - Government Assistance</td>
<td>2.216</td>
<td>7.640</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industry-wide demand for a grace period on national tax payments</strong></td>
<td>.977</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. Factor analysis of crisis management practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Variance Explained</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negative Short-Term Effects</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>56,155</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faced difficulties paying our debts</td>
<td>.280</td>
<td>56,155</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Experienced a stressful working environment  .747  3.98
Faced difficulties in collecting loans  .639  3.34
Our costs increased  .597  3.85
Delays in services from the local authorities  .590  3.28

Table 2. Factor analysis of negative short-term effects

Negative short-term effects were explained by five variables under one dimension with the total variance rate of .56 (Table 2). Tourism enterprises were mostly effected from stressful working environment with the average of 3.98 and increasing costs with 3.85 average.

An independent sample t-test was performed on variables in order to determine whether significant differences existed between groups based on the operation years (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Operation years</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Sd.</th>
<th>Se.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance</td>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.97</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.02</td>
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<td>2.31</td>
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</tr>
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<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.12</td>
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<td>.80</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
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<td>3.77</td>
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<td>1.03</td>
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Table 3. T-test of Crisis Practices Based on the Operation Years

The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the operation years of tourism enterprises and crisis management practices. Tourism enterprises that have been operating less than five years have applied more practices in human resources, government assistance, promotion and product & price than enterprises which have been operating for more than six years. According to t-test, H1 was supported for these four variables with a reservation on human resources and product & price practices. Their significant levels were near to cutting point of p < .05 which demonstrated a slight difference between two groups. On the contrary, there was not a significant difference for maintenance practices. Negative short-term effects did not also have a significant difference based on the operation years, and H2 was not supported.
In addition, there was not a significant difference between business types (i.e. hotels, travel agencies, airline companies, and other type of tourism enterprises) and crisis management practices. Although business types were quite different in terms of working conditions, the similarities showed that the impacts of the crisis did not differ much in relation to business type. And there were more similarities than differences between the business types in their responses and views of its negative short-term effects. H3 and H4 were not supported here.

Correlation analysis was implemented in order to test the relationship among independent variables. Regarding the results shown in Table 4, there was a positive relationship among all factors and negative short-term effects of crisis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
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<td>Promotion</td>
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<td>0.24**</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
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<td>Product &amp; Price</td>
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<td>Negative Short-term Effects</td>
<td>0.59**</td>
<td>0.41**</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
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</table>

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

Table 4. Correlation analysis

The highest correlation, additionally, \( r = 0.57 \) was between maintenance practices and negative short-term effects, and this was a positive and medium relationship. On the other hand, the lowest correlation \( r = 0.20 \) was between human resources and product & price policies, and this was a positive and small relationship.

Discussion

This study was implemented to evaluate crisis management practices of tourism industry in Turkey. Product & price and promotion practices had higher mean averages when compared with other practices, which showed that Turkish tourism enterprises were more likely to apply marketing practices in time of this crisis environment. Enterprises used social media marketing more effectively which can be explained by requiring no extra cost. They also focused on the location’s distinctive features and relative safety to attract tourists. Dropping product and service prices by special offers, marketing new products and services, and targeting new segments were mostly used by the enterprises. Israeli & Reichel (2003) supported that
product and price practices such as increasing its reliance on the domestic market by offering a variety of package deals could be vital for tourism enterprises.

Other practices mostly used by Turkish tourism industry were related to maintenance such as cost cutting policies –i.e. postponing investments, reducing building costs, limiting services, postponing scheduled payments and current expenses. On the contrary, human resources practices were least applied. Tourism enterprises were not reluctant to replace full-time employees with part-time employees and reduce the pay rate, the number of staff, and the number of working hours per week. Reducing the number of working hours is an important indicator, because tourism enterprises are reluctant to decrease number of as they will need it again when the tourism industry recovered (Anderson, 2006). As Okumuş & Karamustafa (2005) stated, these activities were more reactive and tactical than proactive and it is suggested when investigating and evaluating specific crises, characteristics of the business culture in the industry and a country’s national culture should be taken into account.

Crisis management practices of tourism enterprises differed based on the operation years. The new enterprises in the market needed government assistance more than older enterprises. They asked industry-wide demand for a grace period on national and municipal tax payments. It could be predicted that this crisis environment was not the first experience for older enterprises, thus, they applied less practices. Moreover, new enterprises applied more marketing practices such as increasing advertisement, dropping product and service prices, joint marketing campaigns with other companies. This might be because they were less known enterprises in the market and had to gain recognition and maintain their business activities. On the other hand, crisis management practices did not differ based on type of tourism enterprises. According to Blake & Sinclair (2003) and Anderson (2006) tourism crisis affects entire the industry. That is why the entire tourism industry is giving equal importance to crisis applications in order to survive.

Finally, tourism crises in Turkey caused difficulties in collecting loans and credits, increased costs, led challenges on paying debts, created a stressful working environment, and delayed services from the local authorities. As a result, tourism enterprises checked their business agreements, intended to postpone future investments and prepared future plans for potential crisis. Negative short-term effects of crises were also highly related with maintenance practices, particularly with cost cutting policies, and government assistance. This was supported by Israeli (2007), indicating that the government support and cost-cutting activities were significant for combating short-term hardships.

This research was conducted on Travel Turkey Tourism Affair in Izmir. It can be replicated in different destinations at different times. The study focused on the negative short-term effects of crisis, for the further research, the relationship between long-term effects and management practices can be analyzed.

References


ARCHAEOLOGICAL TOURIST DESTINATIONS PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT IN POMPEII (ITALY), ANGKOR (CAMBODIA) AND MACHU PICCHU (PERU).

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Key words: Archaeological tourism, destination planning and management, archeological attractions, Angkor, Pompeii, Machu Picchu

Introduction

Archaeological tourism is a worldwide current phenomenon generating millions of travels annually and it is expected to carry on growing exponentially (Moreno-Melgarejo & Sariego-López, 2017:168). There are international tourist destinations such as Peru, Cambodia, Greece, Egypt, Jordan and a very long almost endless list of other destinations located at regional, district or municipal level worldwide, whose primary motivation of travel is to visit its archaeological heritage. In addition, other destinations have secondary archaeological resources that complement and qualify their cultural offer so it can be argue that archeology has become a vital resource for tourism worldwide.

Archaeological tourism is a sort of tourism with its own characteristics and requirements different from cultural tourism in the same way that they are others tourism typologies such as, wine tourism, food tourism, religious tourism, etc. These are also tourism typologies belonging to the common cultural tourism root. However, they have their own operational process and development. Therefore, it is necessary to make a deep reflection on the development models of tourist destinations that are holding archaeological resources as a primary motivator of the trip and the relationships between archaeological resources and destinations.

Based on the comparison of three of the most important historical places in the world, such as Angkor/Siem Riep (Cambodia), Machu Picchu/ Sacred Valley/ Cuzco (Peru) and Pompeii-Herculaneum/ Naples (Italy), which are distributed in three different continents with very different cultural and tourism dynamics but with the common denominator of being three of the most popular archaeological destinations worldwide, we carry out a comprehensive analysis of destination management in order to obtain some practical conclusions related to site and destination management. These findings are used to define a theoretical model of development applicable to archaeological tourist destinations with possibilities of real practical implementation by responsible managers becoming a reference management tool.
Methodology & Materials

During fieldwork we have travelled to Pompeii (Italy), Machu Picchu (Peru) and Angkor (Cambodia) in order to gather information enough to understand their specific tourism development patterns. In every destination, interviews have been conducted to different stakeholders such as, tourist destination managers, archeological resources managers, tourism offices, tourism private enterprises associations, guides and local population. The main aim was to gather primary sources related to the way tourism industry works in every destination selected and the relationship of the tourism industry with archaeological resources. This methodology has been selected for the collection of information and that "Interviws methodology is characterized by direct contact between researchers and their partners (...). Thus, in principle, establishing a true interchange through which the interviewed express their perceptions of an event or situation, interpretations and experiences, while through open questions and their answers, the researcher is helping these opinions out, avoids to keeps away from the objectives of the research and allows your face to face access to the highest degree of authenticity and depth " (Quivy & Van Campendhoudt, 2006: 173-174).

During the current research, analysis and comparison of different archeological destinations have used research techniques and methodology from a qualitative approach rather than quantitative. Therefore, the approach was to collect a great deal of ‘rich’ information about relatively few projects rather than more limited information about a large number of projects (Veal, 1994: 93).

Qualitative methods are used for pragmatic reasons. But there are also theoretical reasons for using qualitative methods. For example structured research might impose too much of the researcher’s view on the situation. It is not appropriate for the researcher to be the one to decide upon the important issues, which questions are to be asked and to determine the whole framework within the discourse of the research which will be conducted (Veal, 1994: 93).

Conducting qualitative interviews, it is expected to gather more complete information than with a quantitative one. On the other hand, the answers will be more heterogeneous which makes the later analysis more complicated.

The current qualitative research is not aiming to select a single option to be followed, but rather to eliminate the least interesting and suggest a group of ideas or concepts that should be subject to further development and implementation. Qualitative research is often used to explore the strengths and weaknesses of alternate ideas, to cull out those ideas that offer the least opportunity, and to suggest which ideas ought to be developed further or pursued in further studies (Ida Peterson, 1994).

The main aim is to identify the key finding based on the case studies. Moreover, to get in contact with the positive and negative aspects that tourism development has led within the destinations in order to transform them into elements to be considered and key indicators within archaeological tourism destination planning and management.

In addition to previous methods of collecting information, any process of fieldwork implies direct visual observation. This kind of observation is the only method of social research that captures the behavior at the time they are directly produced and in situ without the intermediary of a document or an external witness. The researcher can check the behavior of different stakeholders within the destination with special emphasis on visitors and their relationships with the local population. In doing so, it can be observed real tourism phenomenon daily context within a destination. Researcher observation field is a priori infinitely large but depends on the objectives of the work and the assumptions made. Therefore, observation process is
structured with attention to the relationship between visitors and archaeological resources throughout targets studied. Tourist destination spatial analysis perception and its relations to the visitors are crucial in order to understand the overall performance and tourism development shortages.

**Research And Results**

- Comparing destination planning and management from a destination value chain approach (Pulido-Fernandez and Lopez-Sanchez, 2016)
- The specificity of archaeological tourism compare to cultural tourism
- Enhancing the role of archeology through economic development

**Case Studies Analysys**

**Introduction and case study targets**

Selected case studies have focused on tourism development models comparison around three archaeological top worldwide destinations selected in different continents. Case study key goals are:

- The analysis of patterns related to tourism planning and management and tourism development within the archaeological destinations where archaeological tourist resources are located.
- Identification of strengths and weaknesses and the ability to solve problems or conflicts in order to learn pragmatic approaches that could be replicated elsewhere.
- Understanding problems resulting from tourism development around archaeological tourist resources.
- The identification and analysis of relationships between archaeological resources and their destinations.
- The research has focused on three representative cases given its relevance within the archaeological tourism phenomenon worldwide and the current high volume of visitors around them. Selected resources have been Angkor in Cambodia (Moreno-Melgarejo, 2013), Pompeii in Italy (Moreno-Melgarejo & Sariego-López, 2014) and Machu Picchu in Peru (Moreno-Melgarejo, 2012).

**Discussion**

**Archaeological heritage particularities as a tourism resource**

Archaeological heritage has several specific features different to other kind of heritage. Those features are, among others, the use of archaeology science to gather knowledge, they usually belong to cultures disappeared long time ago, they are always a public property, in most cases it is not 100% restorable heritage and they have lost their original use, they are highly regulated with respect to surveys and excavations and they show a very deteriorated state of preservation compared to other sort of heritage.

**Integrated archaeological tourism resources in the destination**

Archaeological resources are converted into tourist resources and they get into the destination network as soon as they welcome visitors and there is specific management dealing with issues related to visitor
management. The network sets by a destination must be fully planned and managed in order to ensure sustainable development and economic and cultural profitability

Archaeological tourism as an independent tourism typology

Archaeological tourism is a sort of tourism with its own characteristics and requirements different from cultural tourism in the same way that there are others tourism typologies such as, wine tourism, food tourism, religious tourism, etc. These are also tourism typologies belonging to the common cultural tourism root. However, they have their own operational process and development.

The archaeological tourist experience

The tourist experience is based on three fundamental aspects which can be decomposed. First of all, the functional aspects, they are necessary elements for trip making such as tourist infrastructure, archaeological tourism resources, associated services, the supply of restaurants, hotels, tourist offices, etc. Secondly, the symbolic aspects associate while conducting this kind of tourism such as adventure, discovery or knowledge. Finally, the experiential aspects focus on creating intense, surprising and innovative experiences for destination visitors.

Management a key tourism development issue within archaeological tourism destinations

In every archaeological tourist destination, there are two basic levels of management: the one related to the destination and the one related to archaeological tourism resource itself. Generally, management of both areas oversees different institutions. In general, the former is more related to tourism institutions either regional or district level, while the latter are often dependent on cultural institutions if archaeological heritage is always publicly own. Relations between both areas must be extremely close to reach joint strategic decisions. There is no destination without tourism resources as well as tourism resources are meaningless without destination able to profit visitor arrival through any kind of tourism services.

Archaeological destinations planning and management recommendations

From comparative tourism destination analysis of three relevant archaeological tourist destinations worldwide, the paper has provided some thoughts and reflection that are structured a proposal archaeological tourism comparison model using a destination value chain approach (Pulido-Fernandez and Lopez-Sanchez, 2016). The proposal can be used as a practical tool for destination managers and archaeological sites resources managers.

References


SESSION 16

TOURISTS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
ASSESSING COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF NQILENI, BULUNGULA LODGE IN THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCE

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Amanda Ndzimeni, Walter Sisulu University, South Africa.
Lwazi Apleni, Walter Sisulu University, South Africa.

Introduction and background of the study

Tourism is a rapidly growing sector and a valuable industry, contributing significantly to the local economy. Society has made it a significant economic, social and cultural activity in many societies both in developing and developed countries (Telfer & Sharpely, 2007; Le-Klahn & Edward, 2004). However, Goeldner and Richie (2006) explain tourism as activities, processes and outcomes arising from relations and interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host communities and surrounding environments involved in attracting and hosting of visitors.

Tourism is also considered to be a growing industry, offering communities of all types and sizes a unique tourism development opportunity (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). Tourism has the ability to generate employment opportunities, create local and regional investment, provide local residents with trade opportunities and supports and support other economic sectors within a destination zone (Lin & Mao, 2015; Pappas, 2014; Rayn, 2003). Moreover, Richie and Crouch (1993) highlight that tourism development may affect both communities and tourists negatively and positively. Therefore, the community must engage themselves in tourism development processes because they understand best how the region adapts to change (Nyaupane, Morains & Dowler, 2006). Such changes could be positive or negative, for example: tourists are assumed to be wealthier than locals; some local retailers will increase prices in response to tourist visits not considering that locals will also have to pay more. Hence, (Murphy, 1985) emphasises the significance of community engagement in tourism development.

The researchers further elaborate by stating that the success of tourism development relies on the goodwill and cooperation of local people because they are part of the tourism product. In addition, if tourism development and planning processes do not coincide with local desires and aptitudes, then the potential of the industry could be vulnerable.

Mowfort and Munt (1998) also depict that there are different ways in which local communities can be engaged in tourism development. The engagement of the communities is regarded as a contributing factor in the success of tourism development projects or in tourism related business such as lodges, restaurant and cultural village. Local economic development (LED) is a process in which partnerships are established between local governments, the private sectors and community-based groups in order to manage existing resource for job creation as well as the stimulation of local economies (Helmsing, 2001). The engagement of communities is also regarded as a contributing factor in the success of LED. Communities will reap what they sow, by participating in the local tourism activities. For example, by promoting tourism development in the decision-making processes, the local economy will benefit through the creation of job opportunities.
Significance of the study

The importance and the need of community engagement in tourism development cannot be ignored (Aref, Gill & Farshid, 2010). Residents of the communities are key stakeholders in any places undergoing redevelopment (Ijasan, 2011). Community engagement is deemed to develop positive attitudes towards tourism development, to ensure benefit-sharing and to facilitate implementation of the principles of sustainable tourism development (Josun, 2006). The lack of engagement of poor people to handle development effectively, apathy and low level of awareness are other factors that affect local communities (Tonsun, 1999). In other words, the ignorance, lack of interest and knowledge of the communities about tourism may hinder the success of tourism development. Participation in decision-making means that residents have opportunities to voice their own hopes desire and fears for the development as well as to contribute to the planning process (Timothy, 2002). This would encourage the communities to invest in the tourism industry.

The significance of the study was to determine and to assess the community engagement on developing tourism in the case study of Elliotdale Bulungu Lodge in the Eastern Cape Province. It will also address the social development that has occurred since the inception of the Lodge, together with the overall effects on the local communities. The research findings can help towards broadening and filling the gap in the existing knowledge base. It is envisaged that research findings will further assist with ways of how local people should be engaged, to ensure that they benefit from tourism related enterprise.

This study also contributes towards underscoring methods or techniques that will ensure on-going processes of community engagement in the processes of developing tourism. The study can assist local governments to develop principles of sustaining tourism in communities. For the communities to take part in tourism activities, they need to be knowledgeable, as knowledge is a way to empower people. This study will also increase the level of awareness and knowledge concerning the importance of community engagement in the processes of developing tourism.

Literature review

This section will discuss the relationship between tourism development and communities as key stakeholders in tourism. It will also address the impacts that are as results of tourism development in the host communities. There is paucity of evidence in the literature that portrays the nature of relations between local communities and tourism development which is one of the core fundamentals for developing a viable tourism industry in a destination (Aref, Gill & Farshid, 2010).

Many authors, for example (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006; Telfer and Sharples, 2007; Le-Klahn and Edward, 2014) agree that tourism is a multifarious activity that cuts across the economic, activity, traditional and environmental sector of any economy (Acheampong, 2015). World wide tourism has been prioritized as one of the contributing sectors in the local economic development. In the developing countries such as Swaziland, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, the primary ambitions to encourage their regions as tourism destination is the projected economic benefit, such as the employment opportunities that will be created as results of tourism (Acheampong, 2015; 2011; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Flint (2003) asserts that in every 2.4 seconds a new job is created by the global tourism sector in SMEs as well as work for the freelance, jobs for the poor, women, indigenous communities and unskilled and highly skilled workers. Therefore, tourism has been recognized at upper level for its significant effect it has on the local economy (World Travel & Tourism Council 2014).

Development of Tourism overview in South Africa

According to National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS, 2011), The South African government has documented the Tourism sector’s potential to bring about economic growth and employment creation. The Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP2) has identified the sector as one of the areas expected to contribute to
the development of rural areas and the culture industries, among others (NTSS, 2011). South Africa represents an emerging tourist region in the international tourism economy (Saarinen, 2009). The potential role of Tourism in South Africa’s economy increases the contributions of sector to the growth rate of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Van Schalkwyk, 2007). Van Schalkwyk further articulates that the contribution of Tourism to the GDP has improved from 4.6% in 1993 to 8.3% in 2006 bringing in over ZAR66 billion per annum to the economy and contributing over half million jobs. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2015), the total contribution of travel and tourism to South Africa’s GDP was ZAR357.0bn (9.4%) in 2014 and has raised by 3.4% in 2015, and is forecasted to rise by 4.3% per annum to ZAR561.4bn (10.4% GDP) in 2025 (WTTC, 2015). Apart from that, the National Department of Tourism (NDT) further articulates that a highlighting has been made on urban resources for Tourism Development at the expense of the rural areas which constitute ahead of 80 per cent of the total land surface (NDT, 2012).

The Eastern Cape Province, which is measured as one of the South Africa’s poorest and the least developed out of nine provinces, leaves much to be desired. According to Acheampomg (2015) the Eastern Cape Province has the potential to become the “Mecca” of global tourism due to its cultural, traditions and historical sites, rich and unique of lovely land, the flora and fauna and the rapidly growing tourism infrastructure like accommodation, transportations and better-trained staff to deliver the product (Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council (ECSECC), 2009). However, the greatest benefits could not be achieved during apartheid period because black people were not given a chance to invest in the tourism sector. Therefore, the Tourism White Paper on the Promotion and Development of Tourism (1996) supports this statement. The Department Economic Development, Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEDEAT) reckons that tourism in the Eastern Cape Province accounts for nine percent of the provincial economy and is the fifth and third most popular tourism destination in South Africa for international and domestic tourist also (DEDEAT, 2008). The Eastern Cape Province attracts 14% of all South African international tourist arrivals with foreign tourism arrivals increasing by 155% since 1995 (Center for Investment & Marketing in the Eastern Cape (CIMEC), 2000).

However, though the province shows such potential, the NTSS (2011) argues that the Tourism industry cannot exist without partnerships and collaboration. Visitors are looking for a great experience, which can only be attained if the various Tourism partners work together. Sound partnerships form the basis of any successful Tourism industry. These partnerships include the public sector, the private sector and communities. Moreover, NTSS (2011) states that despite some examples of strong partnerships, there is often a lack of communication and collaboration among different sub-sectors of the private sector; among the different spheres of government responsible for tourism, and between enthusiastic government tourism entities and the various government entities that have an impact on the Tourism industry.

Stakeholder’s role in Tourism Development

Anon (2008), describe stakeholders with those people with an interest in the decision being made and should be involved in all stages of Tourism Development of a destination of a destination. The author further contends that stakeholders include local community members, government, NGO’s, as well as the tourism industry and the tourists. Active engagement and participation in the Tourism development seem to be the tool for attaining goal of sustainability and improving the overall welfare of the community (Kruja & Hasaj, 2010). Kruja and Hasaj further emphasise that government should develop strategies and policies or tourism while communities will be engaged in making sure that tourism is developed (Kruja & Hasaj, 2010).
Research methodology

Kumar (2008) points out that there are three typologies of research design: qualitative; quantitative and mixed method. The study has adopted the mixed method. This method is the combination of both qualitative and quantitative method (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research design is the collection, the analysis and the clarification of data, by witnessing what people do (Gibbs, 2007). Cresswell (2010) portrays a qualitative research design as an approach in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims that are primarily based on a constructive perspective. Furthermore, qualitative research is all about analysing the multiple, meanings of individual experiences, with the intent of developing theory, a pattern, or advocacy perspectives. In terms of achieving a quantitative research method, for the study, the closed and open ended questionnaires were made that were meant to be administered to the respondents in person (Creswell, 2009).

Primary data

Two main methods, namely primary and secondary, are used for collecting data in research (Silverman, 2010). Boone and Kurtz (2011) contend that primary data is the information collected for the first time specifically for a marketing research study, through observation and questionnaires. As a research instrument, Veal (2006) underscores that primary research involves collecting original data, which did not previously exist, about the phenomenon studied. Such research is designed to answer specific questions of interest posed by researcher. Primary sources were utilised. The primary data for the study was collected by means of questionnaires in Bulungula which is situated in the former Transkei region (Eastern Cape). The questionnaires were designed for, and then administered to, the survey population, via-face-to-face interviews.

Data analysis

The qualitative data was that collected was analysed by means of the application of a constant comparative methodology that involves categorizing, teeming the terms and concepts used (Fowler, 2013). In contrast, the quantitative data that was collected was analysed through the use of SPSS that allowed for statistical tests to be described by means of bars, pie charts and tables (Burns & Burns, 2011).

Validity and reliability

According to (Joppe, 2000) validity determines how truthful the research results are. Veal (2006) argues that validity is the extent to which the collected information of study reflect the phenomenon that is studied. The academics determined validity by asking a series of questions, and looked for the answers in the previous research of others. As cited by Ngxiya (2015) that Weiner (2007) portrays that, there is an intimate relationship between validity and the reliability. This is because they are interdependent, as there cannot be validity without reliability or reliability without validity.

Halloway (1997) contends that validity is the extent to which the findings of the study are true and accurate. The reliability in contrast, has to do with accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure (Kothari, 2004). Validity and reliability demonstrate the way the research was carried out, in case somebody else would like to try the same way (Miller & Kirk, 1986). The results must be reported theoretically with meaningful variables, and measured in a way that is justifiable in terms of relevant theories. In order to ensure validity and reliability of the questionnaires for the study, the researcher designed questionnaires with support from the supervisors in the form of editing and inspecting spelling errors, as they were trained on how to administer the questionnaires. The questionnaires were designed based on the research questions for the research, with the intentions of ensuring the reliability and validity.
Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a research instrument that contains a list of written questions to which the respondents are expected to provide answers, and which acts as an inductive method of study, with a view to formulate new theory (Beiske, 2007; Kumar, 2008; Grafton and Jones, 2010; Freeman, 2013). Brace (2008) contend that the structure, or layout, of a questionnaire is critical to its success as an instrument for ensuring accurate data capture. There are three types of questionnaires, closed ended, open ended questionnaires and the combination of both (Dawson, 2002). In the study the questionnaires contained the combination of both. In closed ended questions the respondents were provided options to choose the answer of their choice with a tick X, while in an open ended questions the respondents were given a chance to explain their own views. In the study, the questionnaires were structured into three sections that are briefly described below:

**Section A**: the section was concerned with the respondent’s profile, their age, race, educational level attained, employment status, monthly income and the period of visiting or living in the community.

**Section B**: Assessed the awareness and the engagement of tourism stakeholders in Nqileni village through a case study of Bulungula lodge in tourism development processes.

**Section C**: Examined the impacts of Tourism Development that are of the results of the lodge in the community.

**Findings of the study**

The findings of the study elucidated that (55%) of tourists visited the destination for sightseeing, while (45%) indicated that they visited the destination for leisure. Thus, sightseeing and leisure might be the prime reasons which attract people to visit the destination. Respondents were also given a choice to choose from various impacts that could negatively impact the lodge. The respondents (20%) indicated the issue of poor marketing, while (15%) reflected the issue of poor infrastructure. Another impediment, concerned the limited use of English as a communication language which was indicated by (15%) of the respondents. Interestingly, (15%) of respondents equally mentioned the use of poor signage and that there were insufficient cultural activities in the village which handicapped the operations of Bulungula Lodge.

Lack of government support was reflected by (62.5%) of the respondents, while the (10%) percentage of respondents indicated that the lack of finance could be a serious challenge faced by the Lodge. Approximately, (36%) of the respondents indicated that the mission of the Lodge was to uplift the standard of the community. Furthermore, the results indicated that the majority (50%) of the local communities worked as entertainers, while equally, (25%) worked as tour guides and small business owners. Lastly, respondents were asked questions on how to sustain tourism development in the community. The majority (50%) of the respondents suggested that governmental institutions must work together to develop tourism, while an equal proportion (25%) stated that there must be an improvement of infrastructure and funding needed to support local communities.

**Recommendations of the study**

Community engagement in tourism development processes is a crucial element in terms of bringing revenue, employment opportunities and gaining the improvement of infrastructure in a community. This means that working in collaboration of the related tourism stakeholders in developing tourism will assist to reach common objectives, community will benefit, and tourists will visit the destination and spend. Developing tourism and tourism related products by using different techniques is one of the ways to alleviate poverty at the destination.
This paper was intended to assess the community engagement in tourism development processes, in Nqileni village, the case of Bulungula lodge in the Eastern Cape Province. Specifically, the study surveyed four related stakeholders; (such as tourists, government, Bulungula lodge and the community). However, the recommendations are drawn and the future directions are suggested. Limitations that were encountered during the study are also highlighted. There is a serious need for the infrastructural development such as road transport construction and telecommunication to support not only, evacuation of tourists to the destination but also to ease movement and link up the country, thereby, benefitting the community. The maintenance of water and power supply, health, funding to support community based developed projects and educational facilities were important priorities. Government should strive at reducing the illiteracy level of the community. Additional educational opportunities like tourism related schools which increases awareness creation about the global importance conservation and maintenance of the environment were deemed necessary. This will increase the potentiality of the involvement in decision making and empowerment of the community, thereby, installing a sense of ownership and responsibility.

There should be increased collaboration between the different stakeholders (communities and SMTEs). The government should capacitate people, instead of exacerbating community dislike of government officials. The community should be given a clear indication as to which communication channel to follow when they wish to be involved in tourism related business, and be taught on how to market the destination. Similarly, government must market the destination as much as possible. In addition, the local radios stations, along with other marketing initiatives, including such promotional activities such as posters, television shows (short-left), radio shows, signs and billboards should be used to create awareness about Nqileni village that has the eco-lodge, so called Bulungula lodge.

**Conclusion**

As government authorities suggested, there must be funding funded to the community in support of the development of tourism that is taking place. Encouragement in a form of incentives, workshops, and community meetings must be provided to give support to those community members who want to start tourism related business. Since tourists were complaining about few activities that were in the village, the interested community members must be encouraged to develop a Xhosa Cultural Village as a project that has the ability to involve quite a number of people.

This will bring more meaning to the local people with regards to tourism as well as enable them to identify themselves with tourism developments in their area. As the majority of the tourists who visited the destination supported the idea of the development of more cultural activities, this means that it will be a viable project enjoying the support of both the tourists and the local community. For example, traditional craft work and local traditional dancers can be invited to be part of attraction so as to reflect the tone of the area, as they do in Swaziland. In Swaziland it is known that a primary reason for tourist visiting the destination is the culture of Swaziland. In conclusion, the development of tourism requires all stakeholders to work together and requires long-term planning.

**References**


UNDERSTANDING CHINESE TRAVELLERS’ MOTIVATIONS TO VISIT EUROPE: VIEWS OF STUDENTS FROM GENERATION Y

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Introduction

China outbound travel has gained attention for its impact on international tourism, together with its high spending power (Chan, 2006). The introduction of the “open door” policy in 1978 and the institutionalisation of holidays and leisure travel in China has led Chinese outbound tourism to successively expand until today’s large expenditures (Breakey et al., 2008). Expenses in international travel by Chinese amounted to US$165 billion in 2014, with half engaging in outbound tourism more than once a year (European Commission, 2016). Chinese outbound tourism also constitutes a fundamental source market for Europe, which in 2015 attracted 12 million Chinese tourists out of 84 million worldwide (European Commission, 2016). Recent research found that Generation Y, a tourist segment that has been regarded as having peculiar features and being actively engaged in consumption, also contributed to 23% of international travellers in 2015, with study abroad representing a main cause of massive flow (UNWTO, 2016; Glover, 2011). Very few studies have examined motivations of Chinese travellers’ behaviour; this is evident when the specific segment of students from Gen Y travelling to Europe is considered. Therefore, this study was carried out to explore the Chinese tourists’ motivations to travel to Europe and views from Gen Y.

Literature Review

When it comes to travelling, Generation Y expresses a strong desire to travel abroad and is characterised by the intention to engage in social relations during the trip, as well as having exciting or relaxing experiences depending on individual attitudes (Beckendorff et al., 2010). Varasteh et al. (2014) found that international students are characterised by an important correlation between travel purpose and their nationality, making Chinese Gen Y a potential target segment for travel marketing research. Chinese international travel is estimated to be mostly engaged by Southern, Northern and Eastern citizens, with the main sources of outbound tourists being coastal provinces and large cities like Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou (WTCF and Ipsos, 2014). Individuals from these three cities are considered to have different travel connotations, while recent studies suggest that shopping is becoming less important over the interest in exploring and encountering different realities (Guo et al., 2007; Arlt, 2006). Furthermore, three main markets are formed to describe Chinese outbound travellers (Du and Dai, 2005, cited in Breakey et al., 2008): seniors; families; young people who opt for independent travel. Chinese international students are believed to be well-experienced independent travellers, and the importance of comprehending their background is essential for knowledge on Chinese youth travel behaviour (Gardiner and Kwek, 2016). Chinese Gen Y has been called the Social Transformation Generation (Egri and Ralston, 2004), as it experienced globalisation, materialism and one-child policy,
shifting the attention on self-development and on enhancing social status (Sun and Wang, 2010; Chung et al., 2016). Overall, tourists’ motivations need to be investigated considering social influences (e.g. Iso-Ahola, 1982), and they can also be categorised as “push” and “pull” factors: push factors are internal needs that compel an individual to travel, namely psychological factors; pull factors represent external aspects attached to tourism destinations (Dann, 1977). Furthermore, psychocentric travellers are described as dependable and cautious individuals that engage in few and short trips, while allocentric visitors correspond to curious explorers that travel to international destinations frequently (Plog, 2001).

According to Arlt (2006), Chinese tourists dream of visiting Europe and are attracted by its culture, history and different customs. When it comes to motivations of Chinese travellers, knowledge, prestige and novelty are found to be the main push factors, while image, accessibility and variety of festivals and sceneries are defined as major pull factors (Hanqin and Lam, 1999). According to Guo et al. (2007), fundamental Chinese travel push factors also include seeking adventure. Chen et al. (2014), found that Chinese backpackers travel for: “social interaction, self-actualization, destination experience and escape and relaxation” (p. 364). Generally, Chinese students have been examined by researchers in multiple locations and their main motivations to travel are discovering a destination’s culture and history, experiencing novelty, relaxation and enjoying nature (e.g. Xu et al., 2009). This research investigates Chinese Gen Y and focuses on their motivations to visit European destinations.

Methods and Materials

In order to conduct an exploratory and descriptive research, focus groups were chosen as the source of data collection. Chinese postgraduate students in the UK were the object of the sampling to represent Chinese Gen Y. Non-probability sampling was employed, namely snowball sampling, and 5 focus groups were finally conducted, with 4 to 6 participants for each discussion. Thematic coding was selected as the device to analyse the findings.

Research and Results

24 individuals were interviewed in the focus groups. The sampling was aged 20 to 30, and consisted of 16 female participants and 8 male participants. Most respondents came from central and south areas, followed by North East, South West and North China. Moreover, three participants were from Beijing. The analysis of the interviewees’ travel behaviour in Europe indicates that only two participants had not travelled outside the UK, and the number of trips to European destinations varied from one to three. The most visited countries resulted being France and Italy, followed by Spain and Switzerland.

The main pull factor of Chinese Gen Y tourists’ potential travel to Europe that was found is exploring the different culture. The participants remarked that Europe is renowned for presenting a mix of numerous cultures, with different traditions and history, as famous European landmarks and architecture constitute a vast imagery about the old continent. Surprisingly, food emerged as popular theme in each focus group, and it was determinant for the choice of destination. Certain European countries’ cuisine presents excellent reputation in China, especially Spanish, French and Italian dishes. Food can here be perceived as a pull factor, with Western European cuisines conveying a distinctive reputation abroad. Moreover, natural sceneries represented a common motivation to visit specific European destinations. The Alps were a main attraction for several participants, despite China’s renowned environmental assets. This can be identified as another pull factor, mentioned by Hanqin and Lam (1999). Festivals that would reflect the local culture and sport events constituted an additional motivation factor.

As Gen Y Chinese that experienced globalisation, the participants stated that travelling to Europe is an opportunity to witness the supposed advancement and advantages of so-called developed countries. This can be defined novelty, the typical allocentric traveller’s motivation (Plog, 2001). Another recurrent theme was the fact that the participants always dreamt to travel to Europe, remarking the “being a life-long dream”
motivation (Arlt, 2006). The image and reputation of the place, as well as the reputation of the people were found to be factors that influenced the respondents’ choice of the European country to visit. Another recurring push factor was relaxation, as most interviewed students decided to travel during Christmas and Easter breaks. Escape and relaxation were found to be travel motivations of Chinese backpackers by Chen et al. (2014), as well as characterising Gen Y travel (Beckendorff et al., 2010). This study also provides robust support to the existing literature on Chinese students travel motivations, as these listed push factors - novelty, being a life-long dream and relax – plus enjoying nature were all found to be recurring in previous studies (e.g. Xu et al., 2009).

Moreover, a number of participants stated that during their trips they looked forward to interacting with locals. Chen et al. (2014) found that social interaction is one of the four main motivations of Chinese backpackers to travel. According to some respondents, some famous landmarks and attractions were also visited in order to take pictures there and share them in social media with friends and relatives, making the individual gain prestige. This strengthens the importance of status quo that characterises Chinese Gen Y (Sun and Wang, 2010), and it has significant repercussions on the importance of the unique image of a destination. Minor themes were found during the group discussions, such as cheap flight fares, shopping, travelling with family members and visiting friends.

Schengen visa was also an accessory motivation that allows to add more destinations to the intention to travel to Europe, and a sign of the affirming independence of choice of the Gen Y Chinese traveller (e.g. Gardiner and Kwek, 2016). Lastly, the origin of the respondents did not provide any correspondence or affinity with specific motivations. No patterns were found between their province and travel preferences.

**Discussion**

Numerous themes were found when understanding motivations of Chinese Gen Y tourists for travelling to Europe. Cultural aspects such as learning, interest in history and landmarks represented the primary motive. This was followed by other pull factors: natural sceneries and events. Moreover, food was a popular motivation and an important pull factor of some European destinations. Chinese Gen Y push factors for visiting Europe were relaxation, as well as novelty and being a life-long dream. Moreover, interactions with locals and gaining social status were additional important motivations. These findings suggest several courses of action for management and marketing of European destinations. Tourism organisations should enhance the popularity of destinations in Asia, spreading the image of unique historical and cultural heritage. Therefore, different cultural assets should be preserved and appreciated in order to attract Chinese Gen Y travellers or international students who are mostly motivated by visiting the most significant European landmarks and icons. Partnerships and collaborations with film productions could generate films that advertise natural landscapes and cultural heritage. Since the main motivations for travelling to European destinations ranged from culture, novelty to natural sceneries, relaxation and typical cuisine, tourism in European destinations could design themed itineraries that would successfully satisfy one or mixed interests of Chinese Gen Y travellers.

**References**


SESSION 17

PLACES AND DESTINATIONS
PLACE ATTACHMENT, ROOTEDNESS AND ATTITUDES IN MATURE DESTINATIONS.

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Rafael Nelson Cortés Macias, University of Málaga, Spain, Spain.

Introduction

This study is directly related to the role of local communities in the development of tourist destinations. The proper functioning of destinations is related to the attitudes shown by residents and some factors involved in these activities.

We assess the attitudes of local communities towards tourism in a destination and its relationship with various variables such as attachment, rootedness and level of satisfaction with tourism development.

The reason for choosing this research is the lack of attention given to the role of local communities in the development of destinations and their proper management and competitiveness. We believe that the attitude towards tourism is directly related to the attachment, the rootedness and the level of satisfaction towards tourism development. This research proposes a new indicator to know the rootedness of residents in a tourist destination.

The local communities’ studies in destinations have focused on identifying factors that influence those attitudes (Akis et al., 1996). These factors include: (i) the educational level (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001); (ii) the years of residence (Jurowski et al., 1997), (iii) the satisfaction level (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010), (iv) and the place of birth (Um & Crompton, 1987).

Another variable that can have a close and important link with the attitude of residents in tourism areas is place attachment, with this considered as a factor that can affect the perception of residents in accordance with the impact of tourism and their support for the sector (Um & Crompton 1987). Place attachment has been defined as “a positive affective link between a person and the place where he lives” (Hidalgo & Hernández, 2001).

Very few studies have analysed place attachment in relation to their attitude to tourism development (Um & Crompton, 1987; Jurowski et al., 1997). In any case, tourism studies often refer to “destination attachment” analysing satisfaction and place loyalty from the perspective of the visitor. Place attachment has been measured using very heterogeneous variables or items. Within tourism studies, those used most often are residence time and having been born in or grown up in the community. In accordance with the most recent studies on place attachment, the fact of having been born and/or live in a specific place does not necessarily mean developing feelings of attachment to the aforementioned community.

Most of the studies on satisfaction and tourism have focused on the opinions of tourists (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). A small number of researches have been interested in the satisfaction of the local population in the tourist development (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010). Residents' satisfaction has a
determining role, as it is a good indicator of the attitudes and support of the local community towards tourism development (Ko & Stewart, 2002).

In the tourism literature, there are several models that seek to explain the attitudes and behaviour of the resident. One of the best known was formulated by Doxey (1975), who proposes four progressive stages in which it is observed that as the number of tourists increases in a destination, the residents react with greater hostility towards the tourists. The resident's attitudes towards tourism vary from the euphoria of the early stages, towards apathy and irritation in the intermediate phases and reaches antagonism in the final phase (Diedrich & García, 2009). In the same way, some studies carried out in mature destinations, as in this case, find that the attitude of the residents is to support tourism (Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001). Therefore, the favorable attitude identified in many mature destinations contradicts the Doxey model (1975) and moves away from the theoretical antagonism that should be found in mature destinations.

**Method & materials**

The sample was a total of 770 people and the universe of study were residents in Benalmádena (Spain) in 2011 (63,788 inhabitants). In order to ensure that the sample was fully representative, a random proportional stratified sample was carried out. The population was stratified in accordance with several categories: gender, age, being a native or non-native. This method ensures that the sample is statistically representative of the population, with a margin of error of ±5% and a $2\sigma$ (95%) level of confidence.

The tourism satisfaction level was evaluated using the item: In general, I feel satisfied with the tourist development of Benalmádena. The local tourism attitude scale is formed by 21 items, of which, eleven are positive aspects of tourism, among others and ten negative aspects (Table 3). Attitude is a concept that brings together all the items mentioned above, and with them an average is calculated that measures the global attitude towards tourism. The items were adapted from the main authors who have investigated this issue (Gursoy et al. 2002; Gursoy and Rutherford 2004; Andereck et al. 2005; Díaz 2010). In this research, tourism satisfaction level was evaluated using the item: In general, I feel satisfied with the tourist development of Benalmádena. The response format was a Likert scale with five options, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

With regard to the variable that measures the attachment of residents, the following item was chosen: I feel proud to live in Benalmádena, previously used by different authors. It reflects a subjective measurement of place attachment as suggested above.

As an innovative element in this study we introduced a method for measuring the level of rootedness, which results from the aggregation of three variables: birth place, birth place of a parent, birth place of a child. This idea arose from the need to reflect the diversity of the population of Benalmádena and an interest in taking the small native population into account. This study is concerned with finding out the link that is established between the rootedness of residents and their attitude towards tourism. McAndrew (1998) sought to measure the concept of rootedness which he equated with an affective interpretation of place attachment. Unlike other authors, we consider rootedness as the linking of the resident to the place, by measuring their place of birth, as well as that of their parents and their children. We understand this relationship between the resident and the place as little variable, as opposed to the place attachment.
The questionnaire was designed to respond to the objectives of the research, especially regarding the variables of attachment, rootedness, satisfaction and attitudes of the residents towards tourism. Self-reported questionnaires were used as data collection instruments. The questionnaire was prepared after a literature review (Akis et al., 1996; Dyer et al., 2007; Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Johnson, Snepenger, & Akis, 1994; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Kuvan & Akan, 2005; Liu & Var, 1986; Vargas et al., 2009; Williams & Lawson, 2002).

The data were processed using the statistics program SPSS v.19. Reliability analysis, Pearson correlation, chi-squared testing and stepwise linear regression were carried out in order to analyse the results.

### Research and results

A “rootedness rating” has been created using a sum of the conditioning factors that residents satisfy: have been born in Benalmádena, resident with a parent born in the municipality and resident with a child born in Benalmádena.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>91.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>770</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Level of rootedness

Group 3 represents those that satisfy the three conditions, which amounts to 2.9% of the sample group. Group 2 meets two requirements, which amounts to 5.8% of the total sample. Group 1 only meets the requirement of having been born in Benalmádena, which represents 17.5% of the sample. Lastly, Group 0, are residents that do not meet any of the three requirements; this group is comprised by the largest number of residents (73.8%), the residents in this group are mainly new residents that have arrived in the
municipality over the last few years. We can conclude that Group 3 has the highest level of rootedness and Group 0 has the lowest rootedness rating, or in any case, they are rootless.

Below is a presentation of the internal consistency of the scale used for resident’s attitudes in 21 items (Table 3). The value of the Cronbach’s alpha is high on the scale for attitudes towards tourism: 0.76 (n=21) indicating a good level of reliability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale average</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>61.57</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.40</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.72</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.01</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.45</td>
<td>.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>62.56</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.06</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.23</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.86</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.52</td>
<td>.74</td>
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<td>62.04</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.59</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
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<td>63.53</td>
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</tr>
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<td>62.92</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.73</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.46</td>
<td>.73</td>
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<tr>
<td>63.21</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.96</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Attitude of residents (scale)

As for the level of attachment to Benalmádena, we can see that it is very high among both natives and non-natives. In the case of natives, 98% claim to feel proud about living in Benalmádena as opposed to 2% that do not. Among the non-natives, the percentage of people that feel proud is slightly lower, 94.4%, although it is still very high, with 5.6% stating that they do not feel attachment. There are no significant differences between the two groups (Chi-square= 2.17; p=0.14).
As you can observe, the attitude towards tourism correlates positively and significantly with tourism satisfaction ($r=0.24$), attachment ($r=0.26$) and level of studies ($r=0.13$). The correlation is significant but negative in the case of years of residence ($r=-0.19$) and the level of rootedness ($r=-0.09$). The statistical analysis used was the Pearson correlation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Adjusted R</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>49.03**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of residence</td>
<td>-0.11</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>31.48**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>25.26**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>22.03**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Attitude toward tourism and significant variables

Discussion

In this study we mainly analysed the attitude of residents to the impacts of tourism and its link with the following variables: place attachment, rootedness, tourism satisfaction, level of education, and time of residence, which provided significant results:

The analysis shows that the local population has an indifferent or ambiguous perception, although at no point have we found anti-tourist rhetoric or an aversion towards tourism. This could be due to the fact that...
residents in mature destinations are more aware of the effects of tourism, and their assessment of it is indeed neutral or ambivalent, as is the case in this study. This could be due to the fact that residents in mature destinations are more aware of the effects of tourism, and their assessment of it is indeed neutral or ambivalent, as is the case in this study. The apathetic attitude of residents in Benalmádena contrasts with a large number of studies carried out in mature destinations (Liu and Var 1986; Milman and Pizam 1988; Sheldon and Abenoja 2001; Andriotis and Vaughan 2003; Dyer et al. 2007) which found that the attitude of residents is one of support for tourism. Even in mature national destinations with a “sun and sea” model that in turn have had a history similar to Benalmádena, they concluded that while residents acknowledge the negative effects of tourism, they have a positive predisposition towards this sector.

We have found that the attachment levels of residents towards Benalmádena are very high (94% and 98% for non-natives and natives respectively), while satisfaction levels tend to be moderately favourable, with no significant differences between both groups. They even have the exact same figure in the case of satisfaction. The level of attachment in Benalmádena is quite high. This supports the results of McCool and Martin (1994), who found that people living in communities with a high level of tourist development have a stronger sense of attachment to the community. The aforementioned authors conclude that residents with a high level of attachment, such as in the case of Benalmádena, had a clearer assessment of the positive and negative effects of tourism.

With regard to the level of rootedness, an innovative variable in our study, we have found that the highest percentage group of the population (73.8%) has a minimum level of rootedness. That is to say, not only were they not born in the area, but nor do they have parents or children that live in the municipality. Despite this, and as we have seen, the levels of attachment are very high which confirms the relevance of separating both concepts.

With regard to the tourism satisfaction level, it has been found to be moderately favourable, but it does not reach high or very high levels. This research could be in line with the study by Ko and Stewart, (2002), who found that the satisfaction of residents in the community was closely linked with the effects perceived, both positive and negative. That is to say, the moderate level of satisfaction felt by residents in Benalmádena may be aligned with the existence of effects that are clearly identified as negative and positive.

We can observe that attitude towards tourism correlates positively with place attachment, satisfaction and the level of studies. This means that residents have a more positive attitude towards tourism in relation to these aforementioned variables (Table 3).

Lastly, we chose to conceptually and empirically separate place attachment and rootedness variables and their link to the attitudes of residents towards tourism. Using the results obtained, these variables were found to behave differently: place attachment correlates positively with attitudes towards tourism; rootedness, on the other hand, has a negative correlation. That is to say, more attachment means a better attitude towards tourism, whereas greater rootedness means a worse attitude towards it. The linear regression also shows us that place attachment predicts attitudes toward tourism while rootedness does not. This distinction has not been made in other similar studies and we believe it is highly important to make this clarification. We also created and used our own indicator in order to measure rootedness, which is the sum of three intersections or conditioning factors of the demographic characteristics of residents. This proposal is especially suitable for tourism areas that have a very small native population, as is the case with Benalmádena. There are no comparative studies for this indicator; however, the results show that the higher the level of rootedness, the less favourable the attitude towards tourism.
References


EXPERIENTIAL COMPONENTS OF TOUR GUIDING IN PACKAGE TOURS.

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Introduction

Tourist experiences can be defined as extra-ordinary events that create positive emotional perceptions during a vacation. According to Pine & Gilmore (1998) experiences are economic offerings and they create a value for the customer. They also categorize experiences under four realms. Educational experiences are supposed to develop customers intellectually, esthetic experiences relate to appreciation of beauty and arts, escapist experiences refer to the desire to breaking-out from daily routines and entertainment related experiences express a state of joy and positive emotions. Cetin and Walls (2016) also stress that functional and physical features of products or services, because they might easily be copied, are not able to create sustained competitive advantage unless these are accompanied with experiences.

Previous studies focusing on tourist experiences were conducted in different service settings such as hotels, cruises, theme parks, museums, restaurants and so on. The variety of services and facilities included in package tours might provide a more holistic representation of tourist experience. Kucukaslan (2009) refer to guided package tour as a social learning activity, that includes visiting and experiencing various places, in a safe and convenient environment at a reasonable cost. The package tour was estimated to make 40% of the market by 2015 (Mintel, 2010). Because these tours are usually guided by locals, they also offer local know-how, efficiency and safety (Cetin & Yarcan, 2017). Thus, tour guides become an important factor affecting package tour experiences. Tour guide representing locals also create an image of the destination (Huang, Chan & Hsu, 2010) and remove most barriers associated with language (Wang, Hsieh & Huan, 2000) and unfamiliarity.

Because package tours are usually conducted in groups and involve various services (e.g. transportation, accommodation) in various different places; a representative of the tour organizer also accompanies the participants. This representative is responsible for coordinating different stakeholders and service providers, making payments on behalf of the tour operator, arranging timing, ensuring group cohesion, knowledge provision, mediation between tourists and the local culture and solving problems. As a mediator of local culture guides might also affect participant experiences in the destination (Morgan & Xu, 2009). Despite their importance in tourism system, tour guides and their impact on tourist experiences have been overlooked. This study aims to explore guides role in creating positive package tour experiences.
Methodology

The primary aim of this study is to identify guide related experiential factors and their impact on positive tourist behaviors in package tours. The first objective of identifying the experiential attributes of a guided tour was accomplished using a qualitative study. In-depth interviews with 32 respondents participating in different package tours were conducted, electronically recorded and transcribed for content analysis. The main enquiry was to find out how tour guides contribute to tourists’ experiences. The data was then coded (inductive approach) and integrated with literature (deductive approach). A total of 58 experiential items were identified. The initial survey including these items on a five point Likert Scale was tested on 31 respondents and based on their feedback and analysis of the data, items that are perceived as irrelevant and with weaker loading were removed from the survey. A total of 26 items were than used in the final version of the survey. Satisfaction level was measured using a single global item. A total of 500 surveys were distributed between May-June 2016 in Istanbul to tourists participating a guided package tour. A total of 151 valid questionnaires were collected. Istanbul can be considered as a suitable context to study guiding experiences as the city offers various heritage sites that are popular among cultural tourists.

Findings

Among the 151 tourists participating in this survey, 60% were female. A majority of them 63% were married 91% were university graduates and 60% of them were above the age of 35. Concerning trip graphics, the length of the package tour was more than a week for 74% of the respondents, the rest joined shorter package tours. Table 1 details the list of items and their importance as perceived by the respondents. Based on the respondent ratings the highest rated items are guide’s knowledge of local life-style, enjoyable personality of the guide, guide making the tour more fun to attend, guides enthusiasm, and learning a lot from the guide. Thus entertainment and educational experiences were rated more important, than escapist and esthetic experiences provided by the guide.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guided package tour experiential Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tour guide was knowledgeable of local’s lifestyle.</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The personality of the tour guide made us enjoy the trip.</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.60**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide made the tour more fun to attend.</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tour guide was enthusiastic about his job.</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned a lot listening to the guide.</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide was able to identify various characteristics of the destination.</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The guide was able to communicate in an effective way.</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided tour was more educational than regular tours.</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.53**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting facts provided by the guide made me learn new things.</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.54**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide told us stories that were both educational and entertaining.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The tour guide behaving like a friend made the tour more enjoyable.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.46**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The guide led us to places that we would not go individually.</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.61**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Guide possessed sophisticated knowledge.                        | 4.38 | 0.58**
Guide’s communication skills were adequate.                   | 4.38 | 0.64**
Guide experience has made me learn something of importance.    | 4.37 | 0.55**
Guide’s language skills were adequate.                        | 4.37 | 0.58**
The Guide was able to represent the locals.                   | 4.37 | 0.61**
Tour guide’s personal appearance was neat and appropriate.    | 4.36 | 0.57**
Guide’s stories and personal tales made me to enjoy the site.  | 4.35 | 0.55**
Guiding tour was entertaining.                                 | 4.34 | 0.38**
Guide’s interpretation made me imagine the history.            | 4.32 | 0.52**
Guide has changed my previous image of the destination.       | 4.31 | 0.53**
Guide interpretation has made me appreciate design details at tourist attraction. | 4.29 | 0.51**
Guide’s interpretation allowed us to see various artistic details. | 4.27 | 0.52**
Guide interpretation raised my curiosity to learn new things. | 4.26 | 0.47**
Guide improved my sense of escape, from the daily routine.    | 4.21 | 0.62**

**Correlation is significant at p<0.01 level (two tailed).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Experiential Items and Their Relationship with Satisfaction

Table 1 also displays each factor’s relationship with satisfaction. All items had a positive correlation with satisfaction on p<0.01 level. Factors with a higher relationship with guided tour satisfaction levels of respondents were listed as; guides communication skills (r = 0.64), guides contribution to sense of escape (r = 0.62), guides representation of locals (r = 0.61), guides ability to show the unseen (r = 0.61), guides ability to create a fun environment (r = 0.61) and guides having an enjoyable personality (r = 0.60). In order to identify which experiential items have a linear impact on satisfaction from the guided tour; a regression analysis was also utilized. As shown below the variance in satisfaction (R² = 0.64), can be explained by five factors out of 26 items. These are guide’s communication skills (β = 0.21), sense of escape from daily routine (β = 0.35), guides interpretation made us see various artistic details (β = 0.24), learned a lot listening to the guide (β = 0.14) and guide made the tour more fun to attend (β = 0.14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential Components</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide’s communication skills were adequate</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide improved my sense of escape from daily routine</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guides interpretation made us see various artistic details.</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned a lot listening to the guide.</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide made the tour more fun to attend.</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.01**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusions and Implications

Package tours are a comprise a significant part of commercial tourism industry. Mediating between the guests, hosts, suppliers and the tour operator, tour guides are responsible for the flow of the tour, information dissemination, group cohesion, coordination, timing and so on. Hence they have an important role in creation of a positive guest experiences and satisfaction. This study using a mix method identified 26 guiding attributes that affect the guest experiences in package tour environment and measured their importance and relationship with satisfaction. Findings confirm importance of guiding attributes on package tour satisfaction.

Communication skills of the guides, their personality, ability to create a sense of escape, representing the locals and showing the unseen were items with larger loadings. Communication skills, ability to create a sense of escape, ability to interpret various artistic details, ability to teach and creating a fun environment were identified as the factors that explain the variance satisfaction levels. These findings have implications into the design of package tours and selection of tour guides. The contents of the package tours would include more authentic items that would make tourists feel that they are in a different place. Guides also need to have extensive and attractive knowledge about the destination. Their personality also gains importance and although intellectual needs are important for participants, entertainment and fun were also mentioned. An enjoyable and humorous personality might also be considered as important guide attributes.

Concerning theoretical contributions this study confirmed that educational, entertainment, escapist and esthetic experience attributes might also be used in a guided package tour environment to measure satisfaction. Yarcan (2007) also discuss sophisticated knowledge and information dissemination as important guide features. Cohen (1979) discuss spending quality time away from daily life as the main motivation for travel which refers to escape. Guides animator role was also mentioned important by Wong and Wang (2009) referring to the entertainment sphere. Finally, aesthetic details and importance of arts and harmony were discussed by Cetin and Dincer (2014).

There are various limitations to this study. The study was conducted in Istanbul, which is a cultural destination. Although majority of guided package tours are designed as cultural tours there might be other motivations involved. For example, in an adventure tour different guide attributes might emerge as more important. Significance of information dissemination and knowledge of local culture might be replaced by path finding and knowledge of nature in a nature based tour package. Future studies would use the experiential items suggested in this study to group them into various groups guide attributes (e.g. inherited, developed) and apply them into different settings.

Table 2. Results of regression explaining the impacts of experiential items on satisfaction.

Note: B: Coefficient; SE: Standard Error; β: Standardized Coefficient; t: t-Value; Sig.: Significance, Dependent Variable: Satisfaction; R = 0.797; R² = 0.635; Adjusted R² = 0.625; Standard Error = 0.422. Insignificant items were excluded in this table.

*Significant at p<0.05 level. **Significant at p<0.01 level.
References


AN ANALYSIS OF TOURISM POLICY DEVELOPMENT IN PETRA: THE ROLE OF THE HOST COMMUNITY IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT.

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Introduction

Petra, Jordan’s the most visited destination, and the most important archaeological site, has been focused of decision makers’ attention in the last decades. Petra is important for the country’s economy and national tourism. according to MoTA 2015, Petra receipts reached 16.5 million JOD in 2009 in percentage of 44 of the national tourism receipts. In 2007 Petra became one of the new seven wonders, this recognition generated the influx of tourists, which, during the absence of effective management and planning, necessitates immediate actions to protect and promote Petra's cultural and natural heritage and upgrade tourism services to meet high visitor expectations. However, this challenge is an all-out effort to protect, upgrade, and promote Petra effectively while constructively engaging local communities to develop the local economy.

The main challenge for the region was the management, one of the main recommendations of the first plan of Petra in 1968 by The United States National Park Service (US/NPS), was to give the site independent governing body.
The figure shows the time line of the administration of Petra Region, in 2009 the Region has given a separate governance body to develop the site and community, Petra Development and Tourism Region Authority (PDTRA). Table 1 shows the number of visitors during the study period, in the year after establishment of the new management we can see the number of visitors increased in percentage of 26, but the political challenges stand between the tourism expectations for the management as Jordan is surrounding by conflicts and wars in Medill East. The Arab Spring impacts helped to decrease the number of visitors nearly the half in one year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of visitors</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of visitors</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of visitors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>93,933</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>337,221</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>393,186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>372,625</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>359,366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>379,226</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>577,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>91,000</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>347,159</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>802,866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>120,338</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>429,644</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>728,839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>102,151</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>481,198</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>918,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>40,889</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>231,203</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>596,032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>58,227</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>158,837</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>599,288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>80,330</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>160,658</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>574,729</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Number of visitors to Petra site in period of 1984-2014
Resource: PDTRA, official website visitpetra.jo

Methods and materials

The main objective of the study is to analyzes the tourism policy in Petra Region, and to recognize the role that the local community and stake holders played in the development of the Region and to examine the main tourism projects and programs related to the tourism development im Petra Region. We used strategies, plans, projects, reports and recommendations have been made for Petra Region as a main source of our study, all documents addressed in the table 5.

This study will provide a methodical analysis of Petra’s tourism policies. The model we will stand on is the model that Hall (1994, p:49) has developed which includes the following headings:

1. Policy demands.
2. Policy decisions.
3. Policy outputs.
4. Policy outcomes.

An institutional approach used to analyses the Petra Region’s tourism policy (Scott, 2011, P 26) and adopted the tourism policy evaluation model developed by Hall (1994). Community based tourism considered as a form of institution theory, which examines the importance of involving the host community and stakeholders in
public policy decision making (Thune and Lawson, 2001). Moreover, Murphy (1985) addressed that the host community should decide how tourism will be developed. As the tourism industry effect the local community, Non-Government Organizations, local institutions and interests groups have major influence on the tourism policy (Greenwood, 1993).

Alananzeh (2015) examined the role of local communities to develop and sustain tourism in Wadi Musa, and they found that there are differences in the roles of the local community involved in development of tourism in Petra linked to the nature of job and level of income. In his study in 2006, Doan, P. L. examined the effect of using two strategies, Tourists Development Strategy that produced by JICA in 1996 and the National Tourism Strategy 2004-2010. The study does not seek to empirically test the Hall’s model, it does seek to use some of model’s components to guide the analysis of Petra’s policies. However, most of policies that formulated for Petra region was concerned about the protection of the archeological site. Local community absented from policies-making process and the human resources development was the major concerning of tourism policies. One of the main challenges to PDTRA is the difficulty to recruit employees from outside the Petra region community, for that reason the human resources development in Petra’s policies was focusing on training of locals to protect the site as a park rangers, these plans are, Petra national park management plan in 1994 and The Petra archaeological park operating plan in 2000.

The establishment of Ministry of Tourism MoTA encouraged by the share of the tourism income in the Jordan’s GDP. Hazbun 2002, addressed that, the share of tourism industry in Jordan in the country’s GDP is 6.1% in 1966. Moreover, the war in 1967 with Israel (6 days war) Jordan have lost Bethlehem and Jerusalem as an important tourism attractions. Create and develop new products in Jordan’s tourism became important after losing these sites (Haddad 2001). At the end of 1970s the tourism infrastructure development has begun.

In 1973 Jordanian government issued the first three-years plan showed the need to develop the new tourism product. followed by the 1977 three-years plan showed the need of “Master-Plan” to clarify the priorities of the development projects, while the plan of 1981 aimed pointed out that should not be longer trapped only in Amman and Aqaba, and the final three-year plan issued in 1986 which focused on the need to building up a tourism data base to proceed the studies on the economic benefits of tourism and localize the tourism markets.

The management of Petra region carried the responsibility to develop the region, the tourists and community activities. In 2016 Petra region witnessed the government’s attention to support PDTRA to develop the region after the decrease of the number of visitors in the last six years while the main PDTRA’s income is depending on tourists’ entrance fees. Chief of PDTRA said that the shortage in arbitrage is 14.2 million Jordanian Dinars (18.6 million EUR) (converted by www.xe.com Jan 2017).

Expanding visitation to Petra is the major challenge to PDTRA management. Tourism sector is the main industry that locals depends on, especially in Wadi Musa, Um Sayhoun and Baidah. In order of tourism planning the management increased the staff numbers to enabled the campaigns of control and strategies have been developed to manage the site and tourism access and local community involvement in the tourism industry.

PDTRA established in 2009 is mandated with managing the entire Petra Region (755 km2) including the Petra Archaeological Park (PAP) which covers (264 km2) of the land. Map (1) shows the borders of PDTRA and each community in these borders.
Petra region contains six built-up areas, and they are as follows; Wadi Musa, Taybeh, Rajif, Dlagha, Um Sayhoun and Baidah. Table 4 shows various information about each of communities.

Local residence in Wadi Musa, Umm Sayhoun and Baidah are depending on tourism for living. According to DoS 2014, more than 1170 employees are working in hotels of Petra. However, the management start 2 years ago, to involve the local community in the region development. In his meeting with Jordan News Agency Dr. Alnwafleh Chief of the commissioners) Alnwafleh said: “we are seeking to strengthen and expand popular participation in decision-making and to consider the members of the Board channels of communication with the parents, to put them in and the circumstances and developments in the work of power” (JNA, 2017). PDTRA management believes that the local involvement in development became important to the future of the tourism development in the region.

Moreover, six tourism and management plans and strategies, from 1986 until 2000, has been involved of developing Petra Region but none of them has been completely elaborated because of the lake of funding and long term planning and elaborated. These plans and strategies are; (the United States National Parks Service (USNPS) plan 1968 (USNPS, 1968), UNESCO Management Plan 1994 (UNESCO, 1994), ICOMOS Management Recommendations 1996 (US/ICOMOS, 1996), and the Operating Plan 2000 (USNPS, 2000). Figure 2 shows the time line of managements and regulations have been made to role the region, including international efforts to develop the region of Petra.
Nowadays, PDTRA implements the recommendations of the Strategic Master Plan for the Petra Region. The purpose of the Petra’s master plan is to locate the appropriate development zones and land uses, sustainable tourism development, motivate the domestic and foreign investment, and improve the socio-economic conditions of the local communities. Emad Hejazeen 2007, in his conclusion of the study he found out that local people are excluded from the planning and management process of development projects. Hejazeen added that the local investors express that the MoTA is not doing enough of foster their investments in tourism.

Petra had many management dilemmas such as frequent rotation of the management and balance the protection of the site and the citizens’ rights concerning to the need of acquisition lands and moving locals used to live in the archaeological park to Um Sayhoun. In figure 3, shows the plans that came acted in Petra region.

**Figure 2. Governance time line in Petra**

**Figure 3. Time line of the plans and strategies of Petra region.**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Scheduler- strategy maker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master Plan for The Protection and Use of the Petra National Park</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>The United States National Park Service (US/NPS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petra national park management plan</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>UNESCO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development plan</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>JICA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Analysis and Recommendations for the Petra World Heritage Site</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>(US/ICOMOS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Development Plan in the HKJ</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>JICA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Petra archaeological park operating plan</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>USNPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Strategic Master Plan for Petra Region</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>ATC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Plans and projects related to Petra region.

The archaeological heritage of Jordan, including Petra, has been protected under the first Antiquities Law since 1924, soon after the establishment of the DoA in 1923. Protection of the heritage continued under the Emirate of Transjordan (1921–46) and later on with the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. Since the Jordanian Law of Antiquities of 1988, the DoA has been the only body responsible for the protection and conservation of the site (law no. 21, art. 5). A protected area for the site of Petra was defined in 1993, with the issue of a justification by-law for the establishment of the park.

In 1995 survey (JICA) of more than 2,000 visitors, about 70% of whom were western European. Seventy-eight percent reported coming to Jordan for its history and culture. While over 80% were pleased with the sites they visited, rating them as good many were disappointed with other aspects of their stay.

PDTRA playing the same role of other managements, but has also financial and administrative independence as it reports directly to the prime minister and has its own legislative set-up. The mandate of the PDTRA encompasses support to the protection of the PAP, tourism management and development, zoning and land use, investment, improvement of the socio-economic conditions of local communities, and sustainable development.

Regulations and policies developed under the Petra Archaeological Park Operating Plan covered infrastructure projects. They will also cover visitor facilities such as park lighting, tourist trails and interpretative signage, restaurants and shops, community recreation areas and businesses, as well as public events and activities within the park.

References
The Jordanian Law of Antiquities is the Jordan’s primary law governing archaeological sites.


CROSS-BORDER TOURISM DESTINATION MARKETING: THE CASE OF VICTORIA FALLS

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Introduction

The theme of cross-border marketing particularly in terms of destination marketing of attractions that are shared between national borders has not been sufficiently explored. Literature available on this topic has been dominated by cross border shopping and tourism destinations (Makkonen, 2016); cross border tourism governance (Medeiros, 2014; Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014; Lim, 2016; Stoffelen; Ioannides & Vanneste, 2017); conservation biodiversity and cross borders (Clement, Moore & Lockwood, 2016); and economics of cross border travel (Chandra, Head & Tappata, 2014). International cooperation in destination marketing has been done in Denmark (Makkonen, 2016), Sweden and Finland (Prokkola, 2008), Russia (Bar-Kolelis, 2012) and Iceland (Frent, 2016), US-Canada (Timothy, 1999), European contexts (Stoffelen and Vanneste, 2017; Ilbery & Saxena, 2011), to mention a few. The Schengen area is also a striking example of cross-border free movement of people, goods, services and capital between 26 different countries (Schengen Visa Information, 2017). Through the Schengen area, borders are said to exist only on maps, as to over 400 million nationals of the 26 member countries have the freedom of travelling without the hassles of passport checks and border controls (Schengen Visa Information, 2017).

Previous research within the context of cross-border settings has indicated that efforts in terms of cross-border structures have largely been unsuccessful (Blasco et al., 2014). The absence of cross border destination marketing initiatives, in Africa in general, leads to growing competition between neighbouring areas (in this case Zambia and Zimbabwe’s Victoria Falls). Lack of cross border destination marketing culminates in numerous duplications of efforts in areas of marketing and infrastructural development (Ioannides, Nielsen, & Billing, 2006; Ilbery & Saxena, 2011; Weidenfeld, 2013; Stoffelen & Vanneste, 2017). These circumstances actually undermine the attractiveness of tourism destinations (Lim, 2016).

Cross border destination marketing is a unique concept not practised in many countries even though it might hold several advantages, for instance, it creates synergy effects, create and multiply incomes that are generated by the tourism and hospitality industry (Studzieniecki & Mazurek, 2007: 37). Additionally, it often results in know-how transfer between tourism regions; preparation of potential products; intensifies promotional activities and amenities improvement (Studzieniecki & Mazurek, 2007: 37). Reduction of border barriers is also another benefit of cross border tourism (Czaika & Neumayer, 2017; Studzieniecki & Mazurek, 2007). Cross border destination marketing is therefore a strategy that tourism destinations can use to attract large numbers of tourists into the region (Makkonen, 2016). Cross-border destination marketing also reduces several problems such as long queues for travellers crossing borders, red tape and...
poor quality services (Studzieniecki & Mazurek, 2007). Cross border initiatives are also a source of destination competitiveness (Jayawardena, White, & Carmichael, 2008). However, Makkoken (2016) notes that the advantages can outweigh the disadvantages such as the need of embracing cross border destination marketing by stakeholders such as destination marketing organisations, local administrators and tourism establishments.

This study will be premised on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks using the general marketing and branding theory. The Victoria Falls, located on the border of Zimbabwe and Zambia is such an attraction that is shared by the two countries but not necessarily shared in tourism planning and marketing efforts. There is a dearth of research with regard to cross border destination marketing in Africa where each country does its own destination marketing. Considering this gap, the purpose of this study is to analyse the cross-border marketing practices of the Victoria Falls as a tourism attraction on an inter-regional level.

The research seeks to answer the following research questions:

- What are the current practices of Zimbabwe and Zambia concerning cross-border marketing of the Victoria Falls?
- What are the marketing challenges and opportunities to improve cross-border destination marketing of the Victoria Falls to the benefit of both countries?
- What are the roles of different stakeholders in improving cross-border marketing practices?
- What are the experiences of tourists regarding this cross-border attraction?

We argue that by means of strengthening the links that exists between cross border tourism literature and destination marketing could help tackle these research questions.

**Methods and materials**

The study will be conducted using both the supply and demand perspectives by means of quantitative and qualitative research methods. Data from the demand side will be collected from tourists visiting the Victoria Falls between May and June 2017, while the supply side data will be collected from the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, the Zambian Tourism Board and the tourism and hospitality players such as hotels and tour operators located in Livingstone and Victoria Falls during the same time.

**Demand side survey**

The demand survey will be a descriptive-exploratory study where it seeks to determine the attitudes and interests of tourists on cross border attractions such as the Victoria Falls. In addition to this, the demand survey seeks to determine the perceptions of respondents towards cross border destination marketing, their experiences and motivations to visit the Victoria Falls as cross-border attraction. Self-administered questionnaires will be distributed by fieldworkers to international tourists visiting the resort town of Livingstone in Zambia and the resort town of Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe (the two resort towns that share Victoria Falls as a tourism attraction) (N=200). The fieldworkers will be stationed at the entrances to the Victoria Falls and at the Bridge that links Zambia and Zimbabwe. Every second international visitor to the Victoria Falls will be asked to complete the questionnaire and the survey will be done during May and June 2017.

**Supply survey**

The supply survey will be both quantitative and qualitative. The qualitative survey will be done with officials (N=50) from the Zimbabwe Tourism Authority and the Zambian Tourism Board while the quantitative survey will be done with tourism establishments that conduct their business in Livingstone and
Victoria Falls (N=100). The focus of both surveys is to explore the current destination marketing practices as well as the status of cross border cooperation between Zambia and Zimbabwe. In addition to this, the supply survey seeks to examine the possible challenges that emanates from cross border destination marketing. This will be done during May and June 2017.

**Research and results**
The findings of this study are crucial in shaping regional destination marketing strategies, especially in Africa as it faces increased global competition for tourists. The results will have wider relevance for other cross border attractions such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The results will only be available after completion of the surveys.

**Discussion**
The study will contribute theoretically as it will be the first of its kind to study cross-border destination marketing of a tourist attraction that is shared by two different countries in the context of African tourism, and even more so in the Zimbabwean-Zambian context. The study will further make a practical significant contribution to the limited existing tourism literature regarding cross border destination marketing of attractions that are shared between borders. This practise can lead to better cooperation between countries and increase their value as tourism destinations.

**References**


SESSION 18

TOURISTS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
BRANDING LITERARY DESTINATIONS: A NETNOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF THE IMAGE OF THE JOSÉ SARAMAGO FOUNDATION, LISBON.

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Introduction

Since the 1980’s, the importance of literary tourism for the promotion and experience of tourism destinations has accompanied its significant growth as a subsector of cultural and heritage tourism (Hendrix, 2014; Hoppen et al., 2014). Given its capacity to recuperate and reconstruct memories linked to represented spaces, literature, in fact, has progressively been seen as a privileged way of constituting and valorising tourism destinations (Butler, 1986; 2005), namely by providing tourists with more complex ways of interpreting their identity and character and by helping counter or expand oversimplified views of locations (Cohen-Hattab & Kerber, 2004), thereby facilitating a more profound inter-cultural understanding. In light of this, Joyce’s Dublin, Kafka’s Prague or Borges’ Buenos Aires can be seen as clear examples of the use of literature not only to promote but also to provide differentiated experiences of destinations, helping establish a more authentic link with local cultures. In the case of Lisbon, the rapid, unprecedented growth of tourism in recent years and the threats inherent to mass tourism have turned its differentiation as a destination into a pressing concern. In this context, the ascertainment of the potential of the work of Nobel Prize winner José Saramago and his Foundation for a new, differentiated experience of the city acquires a new relevance. Considering the World Tourism Organization and the European Travel Commission’s definition of “destination brand” as “what makes a destination distinctive and memorable […] what differentiates the destination from all others” (2009, p. xviii), the present study aims to identify the main elements of the brand image of the José Saramago Foundation and to assess their relevance for the differentiation of Lisbon as a literary and cultural destination.

Theoretical Framework and Background

The World Tourism Organization and the European Travel Commission describe cultural tourism as: “(1) the movement of persons to cultural attractions in cities in countries other than their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs and (2) all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama to cities outside their normal country of residence” (2005, p. vi). Although recent reports confirm its growth in recent decades (UNWTO, 2015), the inevitable relation between tourism and culture is seen as presenting risks as well as opportunities, given the threats derived from mass tourism (Messenger & Smith, 2010) and its impact on the preservation of cultural diversity (Harrison, 2010). As a subsector of cultural and heritage tourism, literary tourism has come to be seen as a privileged
way not only of promoting tourism destinations (Hoppen et al., 2014; Robinson and Andersen, 2002), by attracting both general heritage visitors and genuine literary tourists (Smith, 2003), but also of countering those threats by providing a different window into local cultures and sites, allowing a more complex and profound experience (Cohen-Hattab & Kerber, 2004) namely based on “the transfer of an audience’s imagination – which is by definition virtual – onto the material setting of a house, a park, a landscape or an itinerary” (Hendrix, 2014, p. 25).

Considering Butler’s (1986) original typology of literary tourism – later extended by Busby and Klug (2001) –, an actual location associated with an author, such as his home, may become the pivotal point of a cultural visit. In the case of Lisbon, and although several tours based on José Saramago’s work can nowadays be found, his Foundation has become the focal point of visits by tourists interested in the author’s life and works. Due to its privileged location in Lisbon’s historical district, occupying the upper floors of a 16th century building that is in itself a National Monument, the José Saramago Foundation, in fact, reveals a clear differentiation potential linked to the very history and identity of the city that has yet to be explored.

Indeed, and despite its clear potential for the promotion and experience of destinations, literary tourism remains under-researched in the academic world, and market research on the subject has been relatively limited (Hoppen et al., 2014). The same can be said of branding in the area of cultural marketing (O’Reilly, 2005), with some author’s suggesting that both its theoretical and practical aspects should remain open to scientific research (Baumgarth & O’Reilly, 2014). According to the World Tourism Organization and the European Travel Commission: “A destination brand represents a dynamic interaction between the destination’s core assets and the way in which potential visitors perceive them. It really only exists in the eyes of others. It is the sum of their perceptions, feelings and attitudes towards the destination, based on the way in which they have experienced the destination or on how it has presented itself to them” (2009, p. xviii). Brand analysis and other forms of targeted consumer research are, therefore, essential for the development of adequate destination brands – “a destination’s competitive identity” (2009, p. xviii) – and the creation of related marketing communication strategies.

Given the differentiation potential of the José Saramago Foundation as an unexplored core asset in the development of the brand image of Lisbon, the study’s research question was formulated as follows: “What are the main elements of the brand image of the José Saramago Foundation and how can they contribute to the differentiation of Lisbon as a literary and cultural destination?”

**Methodology**

A netnographic approach (Bowler, 2010; Kozinets, 2015) was used comprising the collection of commentaries of visitors to the José Saramago Foundation posted on TripAdvisor between March 2013 and November 2016 and their subsequent analysis considering the image dimensions of Keller’s (1993) brand equity model (types – namely attitudes, benefits and attributes –, favourability, strength and uniqueness of brand associations). 171 commentaries, in Portuguese, English, Spanish, Italian and French, were considered in the analysis. Latent content of the text was excavated and the interpretation of the underlying meaning of terms and arguments was performed (Seuring & Gold, 2012).
Main Results and Discussion

The analysis of the specificity of the associations revealed the particular character of the Foundation as a tourism destination, already suggested by the attributes of its brand image. Two clear patterns emerge in the analysis of the commentaries. The first is related with Saramago himself, the author (Butler, 1986). In reality, the uniqueness of the location as a destination is inextricably linked to the fact that his ashes lie under the olive tree in front of the building. But also the replica of his office and the personal objects present in the exhibition (Hendrix, 2014), which trigger the most emotional responses and help turn the location into a “truly unique”, inimitable destination. The second is related with the building where the Foundation is housed. In fact, both the 16th-century façade, one of the architectural “pearls” of the city, and the archaeological exhibition on the ground floor, with its Roman and Medieval traces, although usually integrated in visits to the Foundation, are considered attractions in their own right, prompting visits not only by genuine literary tourists but also by general heritage visitors (Smith, 2003).

In fact, most TripAdvisor commentaries about the José Saramago Foundation can be considered as expressing strong and favourable brand associations linked to these specific attributes. These are the aspects that most delight visitors, who feel touched by the authenticity of the environment: the items displayed are seen as telling authentic stories about the author's personal life, about his friends and favourite places, stories that trigger strong, favourable associations of the Foundation brand. This fact should be taken into account by tourism promoters, as visitors demonstrate a great deal of curiosity about the historical component of the author’s personal life, the less visible side of Saramago, a writer known for clearly keeping apart the public and private spheres of his life. The lack of articulation between the spaces of the main exhibition and the historical components of the building, namely the 16th-century façade and the archaeological exhibition, as well as the historic quarter in which it is integrated, should, however, also be considered. The gap, mentioned by several visitors, should be seen as an opportunity for the integration of more elements from the author’s works, hardly present in the exhibition – especially from his historic novels, such as Baltasar and Blimunda and History of the Siege of Lisbon – and the creation of new tourism products, such as guided tours and digital applications in different languages capable of articulating Saramago’s works and vision with the history of the area where his Foundation is located. By providing a different window (Cohen-Hattab & Kerber, 2004) into the history and geography of the city, and considering the relevant work already developed by the Foundation, as well as the uniqueness of the experience its presence allows, such articulation reveals a differentiation potential for the city of Lisbon and for its particular branding as a literary and cultural destination that clearly should not be disregarded.

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Residents’ Perception of Wine Trails Impact on Sustainable Development.

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Introduction

The development of wine trails in destinations engaging in wine tourism comprises an important choice for the qualitative enhancement of major tourism resources and is associated with numerous benefits on an economic, social, cultural, and environmental level. This paper, which is partially based on the research methods adapted by Xu et al. (2016), attempts to investigate the contribution of Achaea’s (Greece) wine trails to the socio-cultural and economic development of the area by recording and analysing the perceptions of the residents. The results of the research indicate that the development of wine trails creates multiple benefits, not only on a personal but also on a community level.

The increasing interest of modern tourists in activities related to wine has led many local communities to the development of products related to wine tourism (Byrd et al., 2016). Despite the great significance of wine trails for the development of destinations engaging in wine tourism, the available literature on this subject is rather limited and focuses mainly on marketing and destination management issues (Xu et al., 2016) or on tourism supply issues (Stavrinoudis, Tsartas and Chatzidakis, 2012). The study of local communities’ opinions about the tourism development of an area is of major importance. It plays a crucial role on the one hand for the planning and effectiveness of tourism-related actions (Dyer et al., 2007) and on the other hand for the assessment of the impact and sustainability of tourism development (Tsartas and Kyriakaki, 2007). A positive attitude of local residents towards tourism and tourism development can improve the tourism experience and attract more tourists. On the contrary, a negative attitude can degrade the quality of the tourism experience and even hinder travelling to a specific area (Almeida-Garcia et al., 2016). The shaping of the above attitudes is influenced by many factors which, according to Fredline and Faulkner (2000), can be classified into two categories: extrinsic and intrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors consist of socio-economic characteristics, the length of residence, the economic reliance on tourism activities, etc. The extrinsic factors refer to the stage of the destination’s life cycle, the tourism’s seasonality, the type of tourists, etc. The attitudes are influenced by perceptions of the tourism impact on different levels (economic, socio-cultural and environmental) as well as by the perceived benefits on a personal and community level (Social Exchange Theory) (Ap, 1992).

According to Gatti and Incerti (1997), a wine trail is defined as a marked route that offers a complete experience of discovering the wine, its products and the wine-related activities in a specific area (region, province, denomination area). According to the technical definition by Hojman and Hunter-Jones (2012), wine trails often consist of little more than some specially designed road signs, a free leaflet and a map, and in some cases, formal or informal agreements between the participating wineries, hotels and travel agents.
The research conducted by Xu et al. (2016) investigated the residents’ perceptions in the Piedmont region in North Carolina (US) and confirmed the positive impact of wine trails on a personal and community level. An even more positive impact is observed with regard to the understanding of new cultures and the opportunity to participate in more recreational activities (on a personal level) as well as with regard to the cultural identity and environmental awareness (on a community level). In the case of the impact on the region of Achaea, the advantages highlighted were the following: the income generated by tourism consumption, the increase of local businesses and job openings, the contribution to the development of cultural activities, the preservation of the cultural inheritance, the strengthening of the community’s identity, the promotion of the natural beauty of various landscapes, the increase of environmental awareness, and the preservation of ecosystems.

**Research Methodology**

The objective of the primary research is to record and analyse the Achaean residents’ perceptions of the impact of wine trails on the area. The research was conducted using a structured questionnaire, the efficiency of which was previously tested (Javeau, 2000). The questionnaire comprised questions regarding the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, their attitudes towards wine tourism, their own personal benefits from wine trails as well as the relevant impact on the broader area. The questionnaire consisted of 19 closed-type questions in order to collect information on the respondents’ opinion on a series of evaluation questions (Javeau, 2000) using a rating scale from 1 to 5 (Aggelis & Dimaki, 2011). It also had few open questions.

The research was conducted between January and February 2017 using simple random sampling. Three hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed, out of which 309 were correctly filled out. With regard to the data analysis, a validity test was carried out using the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient to test the internal coherence of the data. The next step was the processing of the data using measures of descriptive statistics to describe the characteristics of the respondents, followed by a factor analysis to group the large number of variables, as well as a multiple regression to investigate the relations between the independent and dependent variables of the questionnaire.

**Research Results**

3.1 Sample profile

As far as the respondents’ profile is concerned, the group aged 26-35 predominates with 32.7%. 91.6% of total of the respondents have a job. With regard to the educational background, 37.0% of the respondents are university graduates and 8.3% have a Master’s degree. The respondents’ place of permanent residence is mainly Aigio (49.0%) and Patras (18.0%). The length of residence in the area was more than 20 years for 84.7%, between 11 and 20 years for 9.3% and only 5.3% of the respondents have been living in the area between 4 and 10 years.

3.2 Participation in activities related to wine and wine trails

Most respondents (80.3%) knew the wine businesses of the area, 53.3% knew the wine trails of the area while 16.3% stated that they knew the wine trails of other areas. As far as the respondents’ participation in activities related to wine and wine trails is concerned, 49.3% responded positively. More particularly,
11.8% of the respondents spend their vacation in destinations engaging in wine tourism and follow wine-related sites on social media, 9.6% are members or associated with a wine association and 8.6% are members of a wine-related organisation.

3.3 Personal benefits related to wine and wine trails

The main factors concerning the personal benefits related to wine and wine trails of the area were grouped by means of applying a factor analysis and 9 variables. A principal component analysis was carried out with the use of the rotation method varimax with Kaiser normalisation. The adequacy of the data used in the factor analysis was evaluated using the Kaiser Mayer Olkin measure (KMO=0.842, p=.000), since the two factors selected for the variables explain more than 90% of the variance.

The first factor “Personal benefits” accounts for 49% of the variance and comprises 4 variables (M=3.66). The respondents agree that the personal benefits are increased.

The second factor “Residents’ benefits” accounts for 44% of the variance and comprises 5 variables (M=3.80). Most respondents agree that the benefits of the society are significantly increased. In the case of those specific variables, Cronbach’s alpha is 0.839, indicating a high level of internal coherence regarding the scale used for this specific sample. As far as the personal benefits are concerned (Cronbach’s=.713), the respondents agree that more opportunities to participate in recreational activities are offered (M=4.02). The respondents also stated that the above benefits contribute to the strengthening of the cultural perception and interest (M=3.84), enhance sociability (M=3.51), and contribute to some extent to personal improvement (M=3.27). As far as the variables related to the residents’ benefits are concerned (Cronbach’s=.754), the respondents agree that these benefits increase the residents’ interest in the natural resources of the area (M=4.14), they contribute to the cultural exchange between tourists and residents (M=3.98), they increase the residents’ interest in the cultural resources of the area (M=3.98), the awareness level with regard to the community (M=3.74), and finally they strengthen, to a smaller extent, the residents’ perception that the area is the best place of permanent residence (M=3.19).

3.4 Impact related to wine and wine trails in the Achaean region

A factor analysis was conducted using the method of the main components for the correlations of the 25 variables (Cronbach’s=.862). Initially, the adequacy of the data was evaluated using the Kaiser Mayer Olkin measure (KMO=0.867, p=.000) and two factors with eigenvalues equal to or higher than 1.00 were extracted.

The first factor “Positive impact on an economic, socio-cultural and environmental level” accounts for 48% of the variance and comprises 17 variables (M=3.80). Six variables concern the economic level (M=3.88), 8 variables concern the socio-cultural level (M=3.65) and 3 variables concern the environmental level (M=3.65). Thus, it can be concluded that the majority of the respondents agree that the positive impact is increased on all levels mentioned.

The second factor “Negative impact on an economic, socio-cultural and environmental level” accounts for 45% of the variance and comprises 8 variables. Three variables concern the economic level (M=2.71), 2 variables concern the socio-cultural level (M=1.92) and 3 variables concern the environmental level (M=2.44). This fact reveals that most respondents agree that the negative impact is very low on all levels mentioned.
3.5 Socio-demographic characteristics with regard to the impact related to wine and wine trails

Multiple regression was used in order to correlate the social characteristics and the rest of the demographic characteristics of the respondents with the impact of wine and wine trails.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Regression Coefficient β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Background</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>-.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>-.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Residence in the Area (in years)</td>
<td>-.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p value (a=0.05)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Multiple regression: socio-demographic characteristics with regard to the impact of wine and wine trails

It was ascertained that the demographic characteristics of the respondents are related to the total of the perceived socio-economic impacts of wine and wine trails (p=.000). More specifically, the gender, age and educational background indicate a positive correlation with all impact categories, as opposed to the occupation and length of residence in the area, in which case the correlation sign differs in some impact categories.

Conclusions

This study is a first attempt to understand how the Achaean residents perceive the impact of wine trails. The research revealed that the residents of Achaea perceive the impact of wine trails as positive, thus confirming the findings of other researches concerning wine tourism (Xu et al., 2016) or other types of tourism development (Almeida-Garcia et al., 2016). Another important finding is the impact of the respondents’ demographic characteristics on the perception of the tourism development, a fact which has already been pointed out by other researchers (Xu et al., 2016, Fredline and Faulkner, 2000).

The present research is an innovative attempt to study the correlation between the success of wine trails and the opinion of the local population about them. Besides from being scientifically interesting, the findings are also quite important for the shaping of policies, given that the opinion of local communities should be considered in view of a sustainable tourism planning for each destination. Still, the fact that not all residents
knew the wine trails in their own area and/or only a few knew the wine trails in the broader region is an interesting finding. This finding could imply a lack of local and countrywide promotion events and marketing activities for the existing wine trails. Further research to enrich the international literature is needed, especially with regards to:

a) investigating the extent to which various activities of entrepreneurs and institutions contribute to making the wine trails known to local residents, and

b) studying whether or not organised actions focusing on the development and promotion of positive attitudes of the residents’ towards wine trails have taken place.

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Residents’ Apathy Toward Tourism Development; A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract
This study aims to analyse the concept of residents’ apathy in tourism and to define its underpinning dimensions and their influence on residents’ attitudes toward tourism development. To achieve this goal, this study presents and discusses the existing literature devoted to community participation with a particular attention to those describing and referring to a kind of “passive” attitude and behavior of resident toward tourism development. Hence, the paper critically discusses the apathy concept adopting an interdisciplinary approach and also aims at defining a scale that can be used to measure apathy in a tourism-related context. Furthermore, it aims at proposing a conceptual framework to be tested empirically via quantitative study. This study provides academicians and practitioners with information to be used to interpret and analyse residents’ apathy and to understand which main dimensions are shaping it. Meanwhile, the study provides suggestions about the type of actions and operations (e.g. internal marketing and branding) that are needed to make residents more interested and committed toward the tourism phenomenon in their area and to make them more prone to provide their support to tourism development.

Introduction
It is widely acknowledged that the study of host communities’ perception and attitudes toward tourism is essential to empower and involve the local community in the tourism planning and to have their support (e.g. Perdue et al, 1990; Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013; Murphy, 1983). Further, researchers concur that a tourism planning and development that is sensitive to residents’ needs is an integral ingredient of tourism sustainability and is needed to guarantee and sustain quality of life in the local community (Williams and Lawson, 2001).

In the last few decades, many studies have been carried out with the aim of analysing how residents perceive the positive and negative impacts that the tourism development generate from an economic, socio-cultural and environmental point of view (e.g. Pizam, 1978; Brougham & Butler, 1981; Lankford et al, 1994; Woo et al, 2015). Researchers started to discuss about positive aspects of tourism in 70s (Rothman, 1978) and have also been continued studying on negative aspects of it since late 70s and early 80s (Pizam, 1978; Belisle and Hoy, 1980; Brougham & Butler, 1981). It is widely believed that to gain resident support for
further tourism development is essential to have a better understanding of their needs, values, attitudes, opinions and desires (e.g. Perdue, et al, 1990; William and Lawson, 2001).

Accordingly, to achieve a sustainable tourism development it is needed to consider the community involvement and participation. To achieve an actual participation in tourism planning and development it is needed that residents have opportunities, abilities and resources to carry it out; hence, no limitations should exist preventing residents to exert an active role in tourism development (Tosun, 2002).

Tosun (2000) identified many type of barriers to an actual participation of resident in tourism development, namely: operational, structural and cultural. The operational barriers mainly refer to a lack of co-ordination between stakeholders. The structural barriers refer to 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. Finally, the cultural barriers include a sense of alienation of local people, unwillingness of elite to share the benefits of development 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).

Despite apathy has been cited as one of the main type of cultural barriers that prevent resident to play an active role in tourism development in their area, current academic literature has not yet deeply defined this concept, its dimensions and how these dimensions are affecting the resident’s support to tourism. Hence, many questions remain currently none answered. Beyond these questions it could be mentioned to: How could residents’ apathy defined considering its dimensions? How apathy can be conceptualized based on different disciplines? How can it affect residents’ support and involvement in tourism? Which are its main dimensions? When apathy exists how can it be removed or reduced?

This study attempt to provide answers to discussed research questions by presenting and discussing a literature review developed by analysing how in different disciplines apathy has been discussed; based on this, the study will propose a conceptual framework for residents’ apathy in order to investigate which are its main dimensions. Furthermore, it will be aimed to test the influence of residents’ apathy towards resident support to tourism development and their willingness to play an active role in it by acting as brand ambassadorship for their destinations.

**Literature review**

One of the main drivers in tourism development is the attitude the residents adopt towards tourists (e.g., Ap, 1992; Liu and Var, 1986; Lindberg & Johnson, 1997). Under some specific contexts residents reject or stay indifferent to tourism and tourists. The attitude of residents towards tourists has been largely researched in tourism field (e.g. Teye, Sirakaya, & Sönmez, 2002). Nevertheless, these attitudes mostly found positive and there was less focus on passive or apathetic behaviour.

Over the last few years, several studies have focused on community participation and also limits to it in the tourism development (eg., Tosun, 2000, 2002, 2006). Based on current literature some limitations affecting residents’ perceptions, attitudes and their support to tourism could exist. For instance, they may include lack of information, attitudes of professionals, lack of expertise, lack of trained human resources, low level of awareness, apathy (Tosun, 2000) and lack of usage of ICTs and social media in the local community.
(Del Chiappa, Atzeni & Ghasemi, 2016). Among them, it seems that apathy is one of the main limitations that needs to be better analysed to give deep undersetting to researchers and policymakers.

Apathy stems from the ancient Greek apathies, which means ‘lack of feeling’. 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 a cultural barrier to community integration and participation that occurs when local residents have no interest or motivation for being enthusiastically interested/involved in tourism activities (Tosun, 2000).

It could be 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 (Table 1). Therefore, it could be useful to discuss apathy and its constructs in each of these disciplines.

For the purpose of this paper, we discuss the core component of each discipline. Whereas psychology offers the core to understand apathy however, the other aforementioned disciplines introduce some concrete situations that find some similarities with tourism development.

In psychology apathy has been usually analyzed referring to three main dimensions, namely: lack of interest, lack of initiative and emotional blunting. Lack of interest refers to diminished goal-directed cognition, lack of initiative to diminished goal-directed behavior and emotional blunting to the lack of emotional responses (Landes et al., 2001).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Broad definition</th>
<th>Investigated Concepts</th>
<th>Concepts Definitions</th>
<th>references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>1) Apathy is defined as diminished motivation not attributable to diminished level of consciousness, cognitive impairment, or emotional distress (Marin, 1990)</td>
<td>Lack of interest</td>
<td>Refers to diminished goal-directed cognition</td>
<td>Landes et al.(2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2) Apathy is defined as lack of motivation affecting cognitive, emotional, and behavioral domains (Marin et al, 1991; Raimo et al, 2014).</td>
<td>Lack of initiative</td>
<td>Refers to diminished goal-directed behavior</td>
<td>Landes et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) Apathy refers to absence of responsiveness to stimuli (external or internal) as characterized by a lack of self-initiated action (Stuss, Van Reekum, &amp; Murphy, 2000)</td>
<td>Emotional blunting</td>
<td>Refers to the lack of emotional responses</td>
<td>Landes et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Apathy defines as the quantitative reduction of self-generated voluntary and purposeful behaviors. (Levy & Dubois, 2006)

1) Political apathy (or its opposite term political participation), has been generally defined simply as voting (or non-voting) (Dean, 1956)

2) Apathy is defined either as a particular state of mind wherein there is a lack of feeling, passion, or interest or as a type of behavior indicating the lack of participation and lack of action (Di Palma, 1970, p.2)

3) Political interest or apathy is “an important indicator of an individual’s potential for political activity,” and “useful device for estimating the degree to which citizens are psychologically ‘engaged’ in the political process” (Bennett, 1986, p. 37).

4) Political apathy as a clear lack of political interest (van Deth & Elff, 2000).

5) That feeling state rooted in a feeling of powerlessness…political apathy is rooted in a perversion of the manner by which one’s power is given to oneself (Davis, 2009).

1) Alienation is that men pursue goal, and use means in their pursuit, determined either by social entities with which they do not feel intimately identified or by forces which they may be unable to recognize at all.

2) Alienation is defined as having the feeling of powerlessness, normlessness and social isolation.

3) Political alienation involves not only apathy as a response to political powerlessness but also a general distrust of political leaders who are the wielders of this power.

4) Political alienation as feelings of political estrangement and political powerlessness

5) Alienation is the sense of estrangement from a situation, society, group or culture.

1) Political powerlessness is a belief that one has little or no control over input into the political decision making process

2) Powerlessness concerns the devaluing of a person in respect to his or her political subjectivity…the person is revealed to
him or herself as having no significant political power. Those who, having lost altogether or in great measure, any system of values that might give purpose or direction to their lives … those who having lost their ethical goals, having no longer any intrinsic and socialized values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normlessness</th>
<th>Feeling of separation from the group or of isolation from group standards.</th>
<th>MacIver (1950)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social isolation</td>
<td>1) Authoritarianism is favoring complete obedience or subjection to authority as opposed to individual freedom.</td>
<td>Van Snippenburg et al (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarianism</td>
<td>1) refer to social resignation, and a lack of willingness to stand up against authorities, that may eventually lead to political apathy</td>
<td>Van Snippenburg et al (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anomie</td>
<td>1) Apathy has investigated to show the level of public awareness and concern, with some attention to the perception of causes and effects toward environmental issues (Rankin, 1969)</td>
<td>Van Snippenburg et al (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecocentrism</td>
<td>valuing nature for its own sake</td>
<td>Thompson &amp; Barton (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropocentrism</td>
<td>valuing nature because of material or physical benefits it can provide for humans</td>
<td>Thompson &amp; Barton (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental literature</td>
<td>2) Reflects a lack of interest in environmental issues and the belief that environmental issues have been exaggerated (Thompson &amp; Barton, 1994).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>The belief that the things one can do will make a significant difference should be a prerequisite for the willingness to make any personal effort</td>
<td>Heath &amp; Gifford (2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. The meaning of apathy and constructs which discussed along apathy in many disciplines

In politics the concept of apathy has a long history and it has been defined and employed in number of ways. Di Palma (1970) considered apathy as a type of behavior indicating the lack of participation and lack
of action in political affairs. Likewise, Bennett (1986) explained an individual’s interest or apathy through his/her potential for political activity and psychologically engagement.

Finally, in environmental-based literature, Rankin (1969) states that “apathy has investigated to show the level of public awareness and concern, with some attention to the perception of causes and effects toward environmental issues” (p. 566). Further, environmental apathy reflects a lack of interest in environmental issues and the belief that environmental issues have been exaggerated (Thompson, & Barton, 1994). This important branch of research in apathy was investigated in studies devoted to analyse environmental issues mostly with ecocentrism and anthropocentrism. Ecocentrism aims at valuing nature for its own sake; anthropocentrism, aims at valuing nature because of material or physical benefits it can provide for humans. A relationship between ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes and environmentally-relevant behavior have been considered in environmental-based literature. The ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes were found to predict apathy toward environmental issues (Thompson, & Barton, 1994), thus influencing environmental attitude and actual behavior.

There are specific reasons that explain why this research refers to three main disciplines (psychology, politics and environmental-based literature). Psychology can be considered the main discipline helping to define and interpret apathy of individuals. Specifically, the individual aspects of apathy help us to understand what drives residents to express an apathetic attitude and behavior toward visitors in their area and/or, broadly, toward tourism phenomenon. However, given that tourism research has not properly defined and analyzed the concept of apathy, an effort to rely on different disciplines (i.e. politics and environmental-based literature) is desirable to reach a better understanding about how apathy can influence residents’ attitude in social situations. For example, if a community is somehow apathetic toward environment issues and/or political affairs, a community member could act accordingly to this “social rule” replicating an apathetic attitude and behavior toward tourism. Therefore, a better understanding about the main dimensions/constructs shaping residents’ apathy may be useful to act effectively in order to remove/reduce it in the community.

Based on the literature review, this research paves the way to define a conceptual model that can be used to assess how the residents’ apathy may influence residents’ attitude and behavior towards tourism development in destinations.

Results and Conclusions

It is expected that the results of this study will be valuable for both researchers and practitioners On the one hand, it will provide academia with knowledge about the main dimensions shaping of residents’ apathy to tourism and with scales to be used to measure this construct in any tourism destinations. From the dimension, it seems that psychological, socio-political and environmental-based apathy could have relevant role in terms of defining residents’ apathy dimensions. On the other hand, policy makers and destination marketers will be provided with a survey instrument that can be used to measure residents’ apathy in their area and to identify the main reasons of this. This in turn, will allow to plan and to implement interventions aimed at eliminating at the greater extent such a cultural barrier to an effective and actual community integration and involvement in tourism development. Specifically, these interventions are expected to be mainly related to internal marketing and branding operations aimed at empowering residents and make them willing to support tourism planning and implementation. 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.

References


MILLENNIAL GENERATION OUTBOUND TRAVEL MARKET, THE CASE OF OPORTO

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Introduction

At present tourism is characterized by shorter and more frequent trips, spaced throughout the year (Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014), lower spending per tourist and making use of low cost airlines (Castillo-Manzano et al., 2011). Low cost airlines are in the present increasing their quality perceived by passengers (Kim and Lee, 2011).

We witnessed a democratization of the use of air transport (Lohmann e Duval, 2011), traveling who cannot afford this activity in the past and increasing travel the frequency of those who have travelled. This change in travel habits affect the travel industry and hospitality (Fleischer et al., 2011).

In Europe, short city breaks are popular (Dune et al, 2010). Porto was considered the best European tourist destination in 2014 and 2012. It featured significant growth and diversification in the number of visitors, new routes and passenger record at the airport Francisco Sá Carneiro. Porto is currently one of Europe's tourist destinations with the highest growth, which is due mainly to increased demand from tourists for city breaks (Costa, 2014). Recognition is generally as shown in the Lonely Planet magazine that indicated Oporto as the fourth best European destination in 2012 (Lonely Planet, 2012).

Porto Airport is located only 11 km from the city center. It is the second airport in the country in passenger traffic, only surpassed by Lisbon (6,050,094 vs. 15,301,176) (ANA, 2013). In the last 20 years has quadrupled the number of passengers, from 1.6M to over 6M in 2012, especially due to city breaks (Carballo-Cruz, 2014).

In the last decade the internet has exploded with a plethora of online sites that directly sell travel and tourism services and products to consumers. (Salazar et al., 2016). As the exponential growth of online travel retail has been occurring, the natural aging of the Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennials affects the travel and tourism market and its online market channel strategies.

Researchers have recently been focusing on these generational differences especially since the Millennials’ annual spending is expected to be over USD 2.45 trillion. By 2018, Millennial income is estimated to be USD 3.39 trillion annually, which will surpass that of the Baby Boomers (Oracle, 2010).

‘Millennials’ are a large market segment who apparently have special characteristics such as the desire for authentic cultural experiences and who use technology intensively. (ITB, 2017).
Methods & materials

The objective of this work is to answer a set of questions that relate the critical dimensions: travel habits; type of journey; travel motivations and destinations for travel. The data collection method for the study was the questionnaire inquiry. The inquiry contained 22 questions, the majority of them of multiple choice.

140 valid surveys were randomly collected in subjects of Portugal, grouped by District. 67.5% are women. Respondents are aged between 18 and 49 years. It should be also noted that 74% are currently studying at a university level. Upon receipt of the responses, we proceeded to an exploratory data analysis, followed by an inferential analysis.

95% belong to the Millennial generation.

Research and Results

Approximately half of the respondents made their last trip in the year before the survey; 50% of students travel only once a year, mainly in summer season;

About 50% of respondents usually travel with their family;

Most of the students mentioned as motivation of their last trip the Sun and Sea Tourism;

The most wanted services during the trips are lodging, accommodation;

Most respondents spend 5 or 7 days on their journey;

The Hotel is the most requested type of accommodation;

Car and airplane are the preferred means of transport to the destination of the trip; During the stay, most students claim to walk; In general, travel expenses are below 200€; The Internet is the favourite method for organizing the trip; 70% of respondents are planning a trip this year.

To evaluate if the will of travelling again depends on the way the journey is organized or in the amount of money they receive per month, we employed the Chi-square test of independence. A type I error probability (α) of 0.05 was considered in all the inferential analyses.

Table1: Planning a travel – receive pocket Money / How organized the last travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning a travel</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Nº</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receive pocket money</td>
<td>4,452</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How organized the last travel</td>
<td>11,573</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 shows that will to travel again is associated with the way the journey was organized and if respondents got any type of monthly payment.

**Discussion**

It was possible to explore the tourist habits of Portuguese university students. With further inquiries we will be able to understand the evolution of the results presented here.

The questionnaires were applied on paper, but especially on digital platforms, which forces them to formalize issues in a smaller number and require the average response to be concentrated in half a dozen minutes. The digital questionnaires put a range of additional potentialities that we can synthesize into three expressions: "minimized total costs", "broad reach of the respondent universe" and "abbreviated response time" (Nulty, 2008). The subsequent treatment is made easier, since most of the existing platforms (Reja et al, 2003) allow the collection of the responses given by the respondents in files that can be easily processed by analysis in Excel or SPSS.

Porto and North of Portugal is growing as a destination, the number of low-cost travel and passengers at the Sá Carneiro Airport is increasing. Porto's youngsters travel more and to sundry destinies. The presence of a low cost carrier hub has as a consequence that Porto students travel more often.

For further studies we should consider that Young tourism has become an important element of the travel mix of any destination (UNWTO/WYSE, 2011). This segment is based on four major types of travellers: backpackers, leisure travellers, student travellers, and work travellers.

The push and pull motivations model of Crompton is often used to determine why individuals travel and why they do to specific locations. (Pesonen et al., 2011). The motivation push explains the desire of the individual to travel and the pull motivation deals with the attraction to specific locations. Five travel motivations were also identified: "Sense of romance", "experience once in a lifetime"; "Being at home, away from home"; "Feeling of comfort"; "Do something you really like" (Pesonen et al., 2011).

We will extent this survey in order to cover this items.

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SESSION 19

BUSINESS AND DIGITAL MEDIA (PORTUGUESE SESSION)
A NOVAÇÃO NA OFERTA TURÍSTICA COMO FACTOR DE SUSTENTABILIDADE: “LISBOA ESTÁ NA MODA”

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Introdução

“Lisboa está na moda”. A capital portuguesa como destino turístico internacional e o seu impacto europeu e mundial, tem originado o surgimento de novos conceitos de negócio na cidade com vista a dar resposta a uma procura cada vez mais exigente e informada. Estes novos negócios deliberada ou indeliberadamente suportam-se no conceito de inovação que alimenta esta investigação.

Perceber como determinadas empresas inovam e se estabelecem no sector do Turismo em Lisboa é o ponto de partida para esta investigação exploratória na sua essência. Ainda que exploratório este estudo assume contributos relevantes sobre a inteligibilidade do conceito de inovação, ao por via da análise de entrevistas a empresários e entidades públicas expurgar o grau de inovação e familiaridade com o tema, como suporte ao sucesso do seu desempenho no mercado.

Contextualização

Há muito que o Turismo em Lisboa deixou de se restringir apenas a pastéis de Belém, Jerónimos, Fado, Elétrico 28 e a grandes cadeias hoteleiras portuguesas; outros aspetos e mais-valias da cidade são cada vez mais percecionados enquanto oportunidades de negócio, dando resposta a uma procura cada vez maior, diversa, atenta e exigente. Com o contínuo crescimento e desenvolvimento do Turismo na cidade de Lisboa, o tecido empresarial estendeu-se e renovou-se com novos negócios que têm vindo a permitir um autêntico rebranding do destino turístico a novos segmentos e públicos, melhorando e adaptando a experiência turística de portugueses e estrangeiros.

A realidade turística em Lisboa tem sido marcada por um bater de recordes em linha com a tendência nacional. A procura pela cidade e pelo país sempre existiu, contudo, os últimos anos foram marcados por um abruto crescimento da importância do setor para o país. De acordo com a The World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2015), o os dados comparativos entre Portugal e as médias na Europa e no Mundo referentes ao ano 2014, referem que a percentagem do setor para o Produto Interno Bruto (PIB), em que Portugal (6%) quase dobra as médias europeia (3,4%) e mundial (3,1%), passando pela elevada percentagem de emprego (15,7%, 9,2% e 9,8% respetivamente) em relação ao emprego total, e acabando na percentagem de exportações do setor do turismo, responsáveis por um quinto da totalidade das
exportações portuguesas (quase quatro vezes mais que as médias europeia e mundial - 19,7%, 5,6% e 5,7% respectivamente), são claros exemplos da notória importância atual do turismo para o país.

O desenvolvimento do Turismo em Lisboa, apesar de mensurável por alguns indicadores económicos ou resultados de diversos inquéritos, acaba por ter a sua principal aclamação em prémios e referência nos Media estrangeiros que passaram a ver e divulgar a cidade com outros olhos.

O principal tema desta investigação foca-se na Inovação e todos os conceitos que serão abordados neste estudo relacionam-se direta ou indiretamente com esta. Dadas as várias áreas onde este conceito foi estudado, com maior incidência nas áreas da Economia e Psicologia, há a clara necessidade em enquadrar o conceito de inovação em termos gerais e históricos (desde logo os principais autores e teorias inerentes ao mesmo), posteriormente adaptando-o ao setor dos serviços, e por último estruturar a sua aplicação no Turismo.

Revisão de literatura


O processo de inovação introduzido por Schumpeter (1983) foi marcado pela triologia Invenção-Inovação-Difusão, conhecida como o primeiro Modelo Linear de Inovação (Greencare et al., 2012) e servindo de base para adaptações lineares do processo de inovação, sobretudo em Investigação e Desenvolvimento (I&D). A etapa de invenção, que pode ser entendida como a ideia para um novo produto ou processo, o primeiro passo para a inovação que corresponde ao processo de comercialização dessa mesma ideia (Fagerberg, 2006), seria então marcada pela primeira demonstração da ideia. Na inovação dar-se-ia a aplicação comercial de uma invenção no mercado. Por fim, iria ocorrer a difusão de novos produtos e processos por todo o mercado (Greencare et al., 2012).

A inovação, no que respeita à sua tipologia, na literatura é transversalmente dada uma maior importância a dois tipos de Inovação: a de Produto e a de Processo (Sundbo, 1998; Swann, 2009; O’Sullivan & Dooley, 2008). A primeira referindo-se à criação de um novo ou melhorado produto para venda, e a segunda destinando-se à forma pela qual um produto é produzido, podendo-se complementar (se um novo método de produção alterar a composição de um produto) ou ser puras, não havendo qualquer influência entre
ambos (Swann, 2009). Muitos são os autores e empresas que têm classificado os vários tipos de inovação consoante outros termos. Porém, e tendo em conta o contributo das indicações do Olso Manual da OCDE (2005) nesta investigação é essencial apresentar a forma pela qual são classificados os vários tipos de inovação segundo o mesmo, já que será através destes que as empresas em estudo serão enquadradas: (i) Inovação de Produto: Introdução de um bem ou serviço novo ou significativamente melhorado; (ii) Inovação de Processo: Implementação de um método de produção ou distribuição novo ou significativamente melhorado; (iii) Inovação Organizacional: Implementação de um novo método organizacional nas práticas de negócio da empresa, organização do trabalho ou relações externas; e (iv) Inovação de Marketing: Implementação de um novo método de Marketing que tenha resultado em alterações significativas no design ou embalagem do produto, distribuição/colocação do produto, promoção ou preço.

O estudo sobre Inovação em Serviços apresenta predominantemente duas dificuldades analíticas: o facto da teoria sobre inovação ter sido desenvolvida com base na análise de atividades industriais, e a natureza das características específicas das atividades de serviços que as torna difíceis de analisar (Gallouj & Weinstein, 1997). Tais factos levaram a que grande parte da teoria tradicional de inovação não tenha tido particular interesse no setor dos serviços, levando a que a inovação no setor de serviços tenha sido tratada como uma extensão de teorias de Marketing (Sundbo, 1998).

Antes de introduzir o que a evidência indica sobre o impacto da inovação no turismo, importa desde logo esclarecer o conceito de produtos turísticos e aquilo que estes englobam. Considerando a presença de elementos tangíveis e intangíveis, num destino turístico podem ser identificados numerosos fornecedores turísticos como hotéis, restaurantes, empresas de entretenimento, guias turísticos, entre outros, onde as empresas proporcionam apenas componentes de um produto turístico total que é consumido no curso de uma experiência turística (Kachniewska, 2013). Uma eficaz definição de Turismo partiu de Reid (2003) citado por Kachniewska (2013, p.39), que referiu ser “a soma do fenómeno e relações que emergem da interação entre turistas, fornecedores de serviços, governos, comunidades locais, universidades, e organizações não-governamentais, no processo de atração, transporte, acolhimento e gestão dos turistas e outros visitantes”.

Com base na taxonomia utilizada por Soete & Miozzo (1989) na categorização de empresas no setor de serviços, as empresas ligadas ao Turismo seriam consideradas empresas com domínio de fornecedores. Assim, é possível desde logo identificar que é a partir dos fornecedores que vários fatores levaram à Inovação no Turismo, nomeadamente com a incorporação de novas tecnologias que tiveram como consequência o desenvolvimento de novas competências, novos materiais, novos serviços e novas formas organizacionais (OCDE, 2005), sobretudo a nível de criação de bases de dados e marketing digital.

Existem essencialmente cinco características apontadas pela literatura (Hall & Williams, 2008; Shaw & Williams, 2002) que diferem o caráter da Inovação no Turismo da natureza geral presente no setor de Serviços: a Clusterização de atividades, a Sazonalidade, a Espacialidade, a Relação de turistas e indústria turística, e a Relação entre turistas e comunidade. Consequentemente, os produtos e processos turísticos acabam por estar em constante modificação, evidenciando alterações relacionadas em padrões complexos de Inovação que afetam o Transporte, Entretenimento e Alojamento turístico, em escalas também elas distintas (nível individual, organizacional, destino e turismo nacional). Ainda assim, registar-se que o estudo sobre Inovação no Turismo encontra-se na sua infância, tendo sido um tema com pouca atenção por parte de autores e investigadores (Sundbo, Orfila- Sintes & Sorensen, 2007; Hall & Williams, 2008).
Metodologia

Nesta investigação foram abordados vários intervenientes com importância e responsabilidade para a temática, utilizando uma metodologia de recolha de dados específicos sobre inovação, enquadrando-os através de um aprofundamento de informações de forma qualitativa.

A recolha de dados foi realizada através de 30 empresas participantes no inquérito e 30 entrevistas a 24 empresas, 4 responsáveis de entidades e 2 responsáveis por espaços criativos. A amostra utilizada nesta investigação foi do tipo intencional (ou por julgamento), tendo sido analisado e avaliado um conjunto de empresas que pelas suas caraterísticas e conceitos, adquiriram notoriedade e reputação nos Media (Time Out Lisboa, Expresso, Lisboa ConVida, e Revista Turismo Lisboa) e plataformas sociais (LisbonLux, LisbonLovers, Lifecooler, Zomato, TripAdvisor, Booking, Best Tables, e Facebook). Além deste, existiram 4 caraterísticas essenciais na escolha de empresas: a sua área de atividade (importância de obter empresas do Alojamento, Restauração, Comércio e Animação Turística); a localização (na cidade de Lisboa); a data de criação (foram apenas consideradas empresas surgidas desde 2008 até 2015); e a estrutura (a escolha recaiu em empresas de pequena e média dimensão, excluindo grandes cadeias de Hotelaria e Restauração).

Para os inquéritos foi utilizada uma abordagem de Assimilação (empregando um método transversal a todos os setores e áreas de atividade) na realização do questionário com vista à obtenção de dados sobre Inovação em empresas ligadas ao Turismo em Lisboa. Deste modo, foi feita uma adaptação ao Inquérito Comunitário à Inovação – CIS 2012 (baseado nas diretrizes propostas pela OCDE no Oslo Manual) que permitisse a recolha de dados relacionados com a Inovação junto das empresas de forma menos exaustiva, garantindo uma maior abertura e taxa de conclusão por parte dos inquiridos.

Foi apenas levada em conta uma variável independente que permitisse obter comparações entre as várias áreas de atividade presentes em estudo, já que dada à dimensão da amostra, questões como o número de empregados ou dimensão da empresa (assim como outras caraterísticas utilizadas no Inquérito Comunitário à Inovação) não teriam relevância, já que nos próprios critérios de seleção de empresas foram valorizadas aquelas de pequena ou média dimensão, data de criação, entre outros.

A nível da tipologia de variáveis dependentes, o questionário incluiu diversas questões para caracterizar as atividades de Inovação realizadas pelos inquiridos, utilizando para tal escalas de medida nominais (variáveis nominais), sendo importante referir que algumas dessas questões eram de escolha múltipla.

Por outro lado, foi medida a percepção das empresas no que diz respeito à sua própria natureza inovadora, bem como à importância do Turismo e das várias tipologias de inovação no seu negócio, utilizando escalas tipo Likert de cinco pontos, cujas opções de resposta variavam entre “Totalmente em Desacordo” e “Totalmente de Acordo” (variáveis ordinais).

As entrevistas realizadas centraram-se nos dois públicos com incidência neste estudo, o tecido empresarial e as entidades. Desde modo, as empresas analisadas através de entrevista foram as mesmas onde se realizou o inquérito, ainda que em menor número dada a indisponibilidade de alguns inquiridos, tendo havido no entanto um cuidado em obter um número considerável de entrevistas por área de atividade.

Quanto às entidades abordadas, a investigação optou pela recolha de opiniões a nível local, nomeadamente na Câmara Municipal de Lisboa e na Associação de Turismo de Lisboa, assim como a nível nacional com o Governo (Secretaria de Estado do Turismo) e o Turismo de Portugal. Foram elaborados pela investigação seis guiões de entrevista que fossem ao encontro dos vários públicos em análise no estudo, podendo então
ser consideradas enquanto entrevistas estruturadas, maioria-riamente de forma presencial mas também realizadas por correio electrónico.

O presente estudo assumiu um cariz exploratório, onde se pretendeu abordar uma temática pouco desenvolvida, de forma maioria-riamente qualitativa, analisando a perceção que um conjunto de empresas e entidades têm sobre o desenvolvimento de atividades de inovação no turismo em Lisboa, de modo a obter conclusões que pudessem servir de base para estudos que aprofundem as várias questões levantadas e numa tentativa de comparação entre dimensões, nomeadamente nas diferentes características e perspetivas entre as várias áreas de atividade abordadas (Alojamento, Restauração, Comércio e Animação Turística).

A adequação e aceitação do presente estudo regista-se pelo fato de ir ao encontro do objeto da investigação, na medida que relaciona dados extraídos do questionário tratados estatisticamente, com entrevistas que visaram aprofundar questões que garantiram uma maior perceção dos públicos em análise. A apresenta-ção do questionário foi feita através da plataforma Typeform, tendo este sido editado e customizado de modo a ser o mais apelativo possível aos inquiridos, sendo acessível através de computador, tablet ou smartphone.

**Resultados**

Dentro das várias tipologias de inovação, a nível geral todas as empresas da amostra mostraram ser inovadoras, tendo desenvolvido atividades de inovação no último ano. A inovação em termos de produto (bens ou serviços) e marketing foram as que obtiveram maior destaque por parte dos inquiridos, sendo aquelas que acabam por ser exteriorizadas para o público de forma mais visível, acabando por existir uma natural relação entre ambas já que todas as vertentes de inovação de marketing se centraram na promoção, diferenciação e colocação do produto.

Observou-se uma grande concordância por parte dos inquiridos na perceção geral da importância da inovação, assim como do próprio caráter das suas empresas. Se for tido em conta que o impacto direto no volume de negócios na tipologia de inovação de produto foi em muitos casos de 25% ou mais (no grupo de inquiridos que inovou a nível de produto e soube prever um valor), a investigação regista que o impacto da inovação descrito no enquadramento teórico se justifica efetivamente neste ponto.

Com base no enquadramento teórico, nomeadamente a nível das várias abordagens que são feitas à Inovação no Turismo, concluiu-se dar-se a sua existência na presente amostra. Ao nível do empreendedorismo, as pequenas e médias empresas em estudo demonstraram conseguir estabelecer conceitos de negócio inovadores; a nível das TIC’s (Technological Pull), o papel das plataformas sociais foi largamente mencionado por empresas e entidades quanto à maior facilidade de divulgação e promoção de produtos, empresas e destino turístico; e por fim, ao nível da adequação e personalização de serviços ao cliente (Demand Pull), as empresas mostraram ter cada vez mais uma maior perceção de oportunidades de negócio em mercados ainda não explorados, procurando dar uma resposta em casos onde a procura encontrava pouca ou nenhuma oferta na cidade.

**Conclusões e implicações estratégicas**

A Inovação no Turismo em Lisboa, foco principal desta investigação, revelou estar presente na totalidade de empresas analisadas, assim como no papel das várias entidades no dinamismo e divulgação da cidade (e país). Apesar dos obstáculos existentes, as empresas e empreendedores têm sabido responder eficazmente
a um crescimento exponential do Turismo em Lisboa, nomeadamente no desenvolvimento de conceitos que os diferenciam da concorrência, seja através do empreendedorismo, na melhoria na qualidade de serviços, na adaptação de modelos de negócio internacionais, na resposta a nichos de mercado, na chegada de novas profissões ao turismo, ou na reinvenção de produtos tradicionais.

Desde a introdução de novos bens e serviços no mercado, passando por alterações no processo de produção e distribuição do produto, mudanças na estrutura organizacional na empresa, ou em novas técnicas de divulgação e promoção, a inovação tem assumidamente um papel central no Turismo de Lisboa, onde problemas têm sido encarados como desafios pelas empresas, e onde a oferta turística aumenta e se desenvolve com ideias e projetos novos que não são apenas novos para a empresa e cidade, mas também no país e no Mundo.

A diferenciação registada entre as áreas de atividade presente no Turismo, por si só uma medida disruptiva na investigação já que o Turismo é em muitos estudos e estatísticas limitado a Hotelaria e Restauração, concluiu em alguns casos a existência de uma notória diferenciação nas atividades de Inovação presentes na Restauração, Comércio, Alojamento e Animação Turística, registando-se a existência clara de uma heterogeneidade no tecido empresarial do setor do Turismo que tem impacto na própria segmentação e diferenciação de turistas.

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**Implicações do Sistema All Inclusive na Fidelização de Clientes: Caso de Estudo em Hotéis do Concelho de Albufeira**

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**INTRODUÇÃO**

A indústria hoteleira é um dos componentes mais relevantes do Turismo, dado que complementa e dá estrutura à indústria turística. Em Portugal, é responsável por um contributo direto de 5,8% do produto interno bruto (PIB), 7,2% do emprego direto e uma receita total na ordem dos 9,624,4 mil milhões de euros (Turismo de Portugal, 2015). No Algarve o Turismo foi responsável em 2014 (até Novembro de 2014) por 36% do total de dormidas no País, registando 16008,1 milhões de dormidas, mais 1,617 milhões dormidas face ao primeiro semestre de 2013, suportadas não só pelo mercado externo que obteve um crescimento de 11,2% em comparação com o período homólogo, como também através da recuperação das dormidas de residentes, que cresceram 19,3% (Turismo de Portugal, 2015).

Neste contexto surge a motivação para a investigação do tema, “Implicações do sistema all inclusive na fidelização de clientes: caso de estudo em hotéis do concelho de Albufeira”, que pretende centrar-se na identificação dos principais fatores que determinam por parte dos hóspedes a escolha desta tipologia “férias”, através da seguinte pergunta de partida “O sistema all inclusive é uma forma eficaz de fidelização de clientes?”. A crescente procura dos operadores por este tipo de produto no Algarve, dado que é um produto desenhado para consumo ilimitado a um preço pré estabelecido e liquidado no ponto de partida, predominantemente em destinos de Sol e Mar, ideal na perspetiva destes para períodos de forte contracção económica, reenquadra os hotéis da região numa nova dinâmica conferindo uma atualidade relevante à investigação, dado que as taxas de ocupação mais elevadas ao longo do ano não significa necessariamente mais receitas. No decorrer da investigação, pretendemos averiguar quais os atributos do regime AI que mais relevância têm na satisfação dos clientes, a direcção dessa relação de dependência (positiva, neutra ou negativa) e a sua intensidade intervariável, adotando para esse objetivo o modelo conceitual ECSI (European Customer Satisfaction Index). McDougall e Lévesque (2000) referem a qualidade de serviço e o valor percebido como sendo ambos indicadores da satisfação de clientes, consequentemente a satisfação dos mesmos tem uma relação com as intenções de (re)compra o que sugere uma relação direta entre satisfação e fidelização de clientes.

**Revisão da Literatura**

O conceito all inclusive (AI)

O conceito AI pode ser descrito como a aplicação dinâmica dos conceitos de Marketing e política de preços...
onde todos os serviços no hotel como pequeno almoço, almoço, jantar, serviço de quartos, serviço de bar com bebidas nacionais e importadas, atividades desportivas, animação e o serviço de baby sitting estão incluídas no pacote (Ciftci et al., 2007), assim como as viagens, transferes e excursões com guia turístico com um preço pré-pago na origem (Sheldon & Mak, 1987; Heung & Chu, 2000). O conceito surge como uma inovação do produto no contexto do Turismo Internacional em alternativa aos sistemas preços existentes na hotelaria, como sejam Regime de Pequeno Almoço, Meia Pensão e Pensão Completa (Poon, 1998). É geralmente aceite que este conceito coaduna com a ideia de estar protegido dentro de um resort da sua aplicação estar mais associada a destinos de Sol e Mar, predominantemente nas Caraíbas (Corcoran et al., 1996; Falzon, 2003; Issa & Jayawardena, 2003; Rayna & Striukova, 2009).

**Enquadramento histórico**

De forma a compreender o sistema de funcionamento do regime AI tal como o conhecemos, torna-se pertinente um enquadramento histórico. O primeiro pacote foi organizado pela empresa Thomas Cook para Inglaterra em 1841, sendo este operador o primeiro a organizar as férias neste formato (Ozyurt et al., 2012). No entanto, os primeiros exemplos com expressão surgem nos anos 30 em alguns campos de férias localizados na zona balnear de Inglaterra e EUA (Rayna & Striukova, 2009). Nos anos 50 surge o Clube Mediterrané (Club Med), cuja capacidade de implementar o conceito em larga escala em destinos de Sol e Praia, de forma consistente, com uma qualidade aceitável e a um preço acessível tornou-o um exemplo a seguir. O objetivo era simples, eliminar os custos extras decorrentes dos modelos de férias já existentes de forma a maximizar o usufruto das mesmas sem qualquer tipo de preocupação económica e com o mínimo manuseamento de dinheiro possível (Clark, 2000), filosofia apelativa na época, dado que se vivia num período de pós 2ª guerra mundial. Assim, expandia-se o conceito de férias a um público cujos rendimentos não eram muito elevados. A meia da década de 60, o Club Med já era líder na categoria de Clubes de Férias, dado que o seu alvor e enquadramento eram as férias para jovens solteiros com um espírito de aventura e diversão constantes. Naturalmente a competição ao longo dos anos forçou a um reenquadramento do público alvo do Clube Med, passando assim a posicionar o seu produto para o segmento Famílias. Deste modo a diversificação do produto, bem como a sua inovação e consistência, ditaram a sustentabilidade empresarial do conceito, aliada à perceção de que, a partir dos anos 90, para os turistas, os destinos Sol e Praia já não eram suficientes, forçando intrinsecamente ao foco na inovação das atividades disponibilizadas (Chon & Singh, 1995). Desde o seu aparecimento o conceito de férias Club Med foi implementado na Europa, Ásia, África e Caraíbas (Issa & Jayawardena, 2003). Ao contrário do verificado noutros sistemas de preços como a meia pensão ou a pensão completa, cuja conceção é global e estandarizada, o conceito AI difere de país para país, de região para região e até de hotel para hotel, dado que a parametrização e composição dos produtos e serviços incluídos não segue regras ou leis. Assim, diferentes níveis de luxo originam diferentes classificações dentro do posicionamento All Inclusive, Ultra, Mega, Imperial, Primeira Classe (Rayna & Striukova 2009).

Um dos concorrentes mais relevantes para a oferta hoteleira AI, são os cruzeiros, uma vez que oferecem um produto muito similar à oferta AI. Contudo, uma das suas fraquezas, reside no facto de alguns serviços serem pagos à parte, tais como as bebidas alcoólicas a bordo. De acordo com a investigação desenvolvida por Clark (2000), o foco desta foi analisar os três maiores Resorts AI e as três maiores companhias de cruzeiros com escala nas Caraíbas, concluindo que:

Os resorts em terra geralmente ofereciam mais amenities no preço base, mas custavam 12% a 200% mais que os cruzeiros;

O preço dos cruzeiros é mais volátil que o dos Resorts em terra, o que se revela particularmente vantajoso para os turistas que usufruem de alguma flexibilidade nas datas, uma vez que podem vir a usufruir de descontos muito significativos;

A bordo de um navio de cruzeiro, extras como bebidas alcoólicas, excursões em terra, gratificação obrigatória e por vezes em navios novos, os restaurantes de assinatura e as atividades exclusivas podem significar um desvio no orçamento do turista na ordem das centenas de dólares.
As razões para a adoção do regime AI nos hotéis

As companhias hoteleiras começaram a usar o regime AI de forma a aumentar substancialmente as taxas de ocupação, e, a venderem com mais facilidade os seus produtos e serviços. O regime AI é geralmente aceite e solicitado como ferramenta de marketing por turistas cujo objetivo é ter tudo preparado, acessível através da tecnologia valorizando por norma métodos de reserva e composição da oferta o mais simples possível. De acordo com Corbaci (2004) explicitam-se em seguida as principais razões que levam algumas companhias a optar por este regime:
- Marketing mais simples e focado;
- Aumento das vendas por forma a atingir o máximo potencial de rentabilidade operacional;
- *Yields* mais competitivos face à sua concorrência;
- Apresenta aos clientes uma oferta diferenciada;
- Custos operacionais substancialmente mais baixos, devido à mitigação do fator de imprevisibilidade da procura, dado que as taxas de ocupação são confirmadas com mais antecedência;
- Foco na publicidade da estrutura do hotel;
- Controlo mais eficiente dos custos de Pessoal, Produtos e Serviços;
- Maiores taxas de ocupação reforçam a imagem da Companhia;
- Produto de composição mais simples, consequentemente mais simples de vender às agências e tour operadores;
- A compra em massa reflete-se no preço de venda final;
- O pré-pagamento dos pacotes AI resulta em planos de investimento, financeiros, económicos e operacionais mais sólidos.

As desvantagens para o turista, são o desencorajamento para explorar o meio envolvente, dado que o abandono do hotel pressupõe um acréscimo de custo por parte do turista (Issa & Jayawardena, 2003). Este fator combinado com o facto de o sistema poder sofrer oscilações na oferta de hotel para hotel, pode potencialmente conduzir à insatisfação do turista.

**MOTIVAÇÕES E INFLUÊNCIAS RELACIONADAS COM A ESCOLHA DE PACOTES AI**

Ainda que exista algum volume de literatura sobre a motivação dos turistas em geral, existe ainda um caminho a percorrer relativamente ao que os move, no que concerne à escolha de um formato de viagem em detrimento de outras alternativas. Apesar de vários trabalhos descritivos sobre os diferentes tipos de viagens, nomeadamente, Becken e Gnoth (2004), existe ainda uma lacuna relativamente ao tipo de viagem AI. Neste contexto propõe-se uma revisão das teorias de motivação geral relacionadas com o comportamento no turismo, como base teórica para as motivações relacionadas com a escolha do modo AI de viajar. A literatura mais aproximada para o enquadramento teórico dos pacotes de viagens AI é neste momento a literatura sobre os pacotes de viagens em geral, cuja importância para identificar o tipo de visitante e os seus atributos são muito relevantes.

**Base teórica para a motivação do regime AI**

Muitos autores consideram a motivação como fator fundamental e explicativo para o comportamento do turista (Mansfield, 1992; Gnoth, 1997), entre outros. No século XXI, autores como Sirakaya et al., (2003), Pearce e Lee (2005), também consideram a motivação como o ponto de partida para compreender o comportamento do turista, como sendo fator nuclear para determinar as decisões relativamente ao tipo e forma de viagem. Como sugere Gnoth (1997), a motivação pode ser definida como a força condutora de natureza cognitiva, observável e objetivamente mensurável, o que indica uma preferência específica por determinado objeto, ou por Pearce e Lee (2005), para quem a motivação é uma rede global integrada em
forças biológicas e culturais que proporcionam valor e direção às escolhas das viagens, comportamento e experiência.

Existem diversas teorias que explicam as motivações dos turistas. As mais citadas incluem, viajar para explorar o mundo (Mansfield, 1992), Push and Pull (Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994), a Hierarquia das Necessidades (Ryan, 1998), Travel Career Ladder (TLC) (Pearce & Lee, 2005), Dictomias (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Hyde & Lawson, 2003) e a Perspetiva do "velho e novo turista" (Corcoran et al., 1996). No entanto, as primeiras duas teorias concentram-se na motivação intrínseca dos turistas para viajarem e as características do destino que satisfaçam uma necessidade. Consequentemente o seu foco não é inteiramente o turista e as suas motivações para escolher certo tipo de viagens, logo não poderão ser tidas em conta para entender a motivação específica dos turistas AI.

A TLC, cujo modelo foi emprestado pela Hierarquia das Necessidades de Maslow, contribui para um avanço. Assim, a TLC enfatiza o leque de motivações que contribuem para a procura de experiências de férias que consistem em 5 níveis de necessidades: descontração, segurança pessoal e do meio envolvente, relacionamentos e auto-estima, desenvolvimento, atualização e realização pessoal. Como demonstram os estudos de Quiroga (1990), Wickens (2002) e Wong e Kwong (2004), a segurança pessoal e do meio envolvente é uma das razões pelas quais os turistas escolhem pacotes de viagens AI. Neste contexto a teoria TLC assume utilidade e relevância para compreender as motivações de escolha dos pacotes AI.

O entendimento do modo como os turistas escolhem o seu estilo de viagem, também foi explicada pela teoria da Dicotomia, na qual, as escolhas individuais podem resultar da busca do equilíbrio entre duas forças motivacionais, mas não necessariamente antagonísticas. Mayo e Jarvis (1981) descrevem duas forças, necessidade de complexidade e consistência e o desejo pela novidade/descoberta e rotina / familiaridade. A escolha dos pacotes AI poderá estar relacionada com a perspetiva de consistência, na qual os turistas preferem minimizar a sua exposição ao meio pouco familiar, dado que pela natureza do pacote AI está tudo planeado, definido e pago no ponto de origem, restando, por isso permanecer no resort e usufruir do período de férias.

Motivação para a escolha dos pacotes AI

Os turistas têm diferentes motivações para escolhem pacotes de viagens e diversos estudos explicitam-nas com base no perfil dos turistas e nas características do mercado. De acordo com o relatório do Tourism Intelligence Internacional (2000), as principais motivações para os turistas ingleses que viajariam no ano 2005 em pacotes AI seriam: 57% Value for Money, 42% saber premeditadamente quanto iriam gastar, 39% ser apropriado para famílias e por fim 37% pelas instalações, equipamentos e entretenimento.

Enoch (1996) sugere que os PT são uma forma segura e eficaz de viajar para países com culturas muito diferentes das do país de origem onde os transportes são pouco confiáveis e os padrões de higiene duvidosos. Com o objetivo de evitar preocupações acrescidas com os diferentes aspectos que compõe as férias, minorar imprevistos relativamente a problemas de saúde e assegurar os cuidados apropriados em caso de ocorrerem situações imprevistas, os turistas procuram a orientação humana fornecida no destino para se sentirem seguros (Shuchat, 1983; Quiroga, 1990; Buhalis, 2000; Wickens, 2002; Wong & Kwong, 2004). Wickens (2002) conclui que toda a experiência da viagem ocorre na fronteira entre a segurança pessoal e a segurança do meio envolvente.

No que diz respeito às relações e interações Quiroga (1990) e Wong e Kwong (2004) advogam que os package tourist’s beneficiam da facilidade de conhecer outras pessoas através daquilo que classificam ser o contacto social. A segurança que é constatada pelos pais, relativamente a toda a organização dentro de um resort AI, faz com que exista mais latitude na supervisão das crianças, promovendo assim o contacto social com os seus pares. O apoio encontrado no grupo para enfrentar as diferenças culturais, prevenindo
assim conflitos ou incompatibilidades.

No contexto AI os fatores tempo e dinheiro assim como economia de recursos, são considerados como determinantes. É consensual afirmar-se que, geralmente, as viagens compradas num pacote são mais econômicas em termos de tempo, dinheiro e recursos que se adquiridas com todas as componentes de forma independente, revelando assim a economia de escala conseguida com uma escolha, através de um único interlocutor para todo um objetivo, as férias (Sheldon & Mak, 1987; Enoch, 1996; Buhalis, 2000; Wickens, 2002; Wong & Kwong, 2004).

Os atributos do turista e da viagem, associados aos pacotes de viagens

As teorias motivacionais ajudam-nos a compreender a dimensão básica do processo de decisão do turista, quando tais decisões são formadas por atributos particulares, uma vez que estes conferem a dimensão e as razões necessárias para escolher um produto turístico em detrimento de outras opções. A escolha dos pacotes AI tem estado associada a diversos fatores, incluindo por um lado os atributos do turista, como sejam, idade, gênero, nível de escolaridade, ocupação, rendimento anual, nacionalidade, estado civil, entre outros, e os atributos da viagem, por exemplo, dias de estadia, número de pessoas a viajar, experiências passadas, objetivo da viagem.

Um dos mais importantes atributos do turista é o fator idade, dado que este fator é determinante para a definição da motivação para escolher o modo independente ou o modo estruturado e definido dos PT. Como relata Anderson e Langmeyer (1982), os turistas com idade superior a 50 anos, preferiam os PT devido a razões de segurança. Foster (1986), demonstra que turistas com idade superior a 50 preferem os PT por considerar que estes lhes libertam da preocupação envolvida na organização de toda a viagem devido à multiplicidade de entidades envolvidas na mesma, quer seja ao nível da viagem, bagagem ou na estadia, bem como na articulação entre elas em caso de emergência, (Sheldon & Mak, 1987). Já no século XXI Horneman et al., (2002) mencionam que o turista sénior prefere um pacote de viagem fiável por forma a minorar os fatores imprevisíveis decorrentes da natureza de uma viagem, e assim reforçar o sentimento de segurança, e potenciar a sua experiência de férias.

As mulheres apresentam um interesse cada vez mais relevante nas viagens organizadas. Sheldon e Mak (1987) e também Wickens (2002), referem que as mulheres solteiras preferem viajar neste formato para reforçarem o seu sentimento de segurança. Enoch (1996) refere que muitos dos consumidores do PT são os turistas estreantes, motivados essencialmente pelo não domínio do idioma do país de destino. O mesmo autor refere ainda que o enquadramento sócio-económico que prevalece é a classe média alta, uma vez que se encontram muito ocupados com a sua vida profissional e não têm tempo para seleccionar a multiplicidade dos atores integrantes numa viagem preferindo assim uma solução integrada, com apenas um interlocutor, para potenciar a economia de tempo e recursos (Shuchat, 1983).

Sheldon e Mak (1987), avançam os atributos que influenciam o modo de férias que se escolhe, como o número de dias e destinos que se pretende visitar durante a viagem. Os turistas estreantes num determinado destino geralmente precisam de mais informação acerca do mesmo que os turistas repetentes, consequentemente explica-se a anterior preferência destes turistas por este tipo de pacote de férias. Wickens (2002), também constatou que turistas estreantes no destino são mais recebem aos PT, que os turistas repetentes.

A SATISFAÇÃO DE CLIENTES

Sendo a satisfação um tema central na literatura do Turismo (Girish, 2008), e dado que a escolha de potenciais clientes de um determinado destino depende em muito deste indicador (Huh, Uysal & McCleary, 2006), existe uma relação direta entre a performance económico financeira do destino e o nível global de
satisfação dos seus visitantes (Korzay & Alvarez, 2005). Globalmente, pode afirmar-se que a satisfação é o resultado que pelo menos iguala ou excede as expectativas (Engel et al.,1995). No entanto, Chi e Qu (2008), definem a satisfação como simplesmente o resultado da percepção do cliente relativamente à qualidade percebida. Meng (2008) conclui que existem nove teorias relativamente à Satisfação de Clientes: a expetativa e desconfirmação, assimilação ou dissonância cognitiva, contraste, assimilação contraste, igualdade, atribuição, nível de comparação, negatividade generalizada e percepção de valor. Na literatura do Turismo existem duas abordagens que são mais consensuais no que se refere à medição da satisfação do turista, a teoria da expetativa e desconfirmação e a teoria da percepção de valor com base na performance dos atributos (Fallon & Schofield, 2003; Wang & Qu, 2006). A primeira requer a comparação entre a expetativa inicial e a performance percebida de cada atributo, assim, a satisfação verificar-se-á se a performance do atributo for superior às expectativas iniciais em relação ao mesmo. Porém, o processo de comparação faz com que a teoria da expetativa e desconfirmação se torne complexa no contexto da medida da satisfação do cliente. A teoria da percepção do valor com base na performance dos atributos, consiste no somatório das avaliações de cada atributo (Kozak, 2003), assim quanto maior for a satisfação com os atributos, maior será a satisfação geral com o produto. Em suma, de um ponto de vista prático, esta última teoria abordada confere menos complexidade do que a teoria da expetativa e desconfirmação, podendo ser melhor indicador da satisfação global do cliente (Wang & Qu, 2006; Fallon & Schofield, 2003). Em conformidade com esta premissa alguns estudos têm tentado identificar os atributos do destino que satisfazem ou não os turistas durante as suas férias em destinos de Sol e Praia, como é o caso do destino desta investigação, o concelho de Albufeira. A aplicação de um instrumento de medida, com base nos atributos da satisfação de clientes com o destino foi avançado por Kozak et al. (2004), que incluída a quantidade e a qualidade dos quartos, a informação turística, os restaurantes, o grau de limpeza das praias, o estado das estradas, a existência de passeios ou não à beira mar bem como o seu estado, a qualidade da água potável, o tráfego automóvel e o estacionamento. Já Kau e Lim (2005), empregaram um instrumento de medida com base nos atributos do Destino que compreendia 52 itens, agrupados em 9 fatores, como sejam, atrações e atividade, atitudes/qualidade de serviço/hospitalidade, comida e acomodação, nível de preços, compras, a comunicação em idioma estrangeiro, o ambiente, o aeroporto e a rede de transportes locais. Mais recentemente Chi e Qu (2008), enquadraram a (in)satisfação dos clientes com o destino em 7 domínios da atividade turística: acomodação, refeições, compras, atrações, atividades e eventos, ambiente e acessibilidade

A FIDELIZAÇÃO DE CLIENTES

A importância da fidelização contínua de clientes como fim estratégico de sustentabilidade das empresas em geral e dos hotéis em particular, apresenta uma importância nuclear que merece o enquadramento e o foco adequado. Assim, Kozak & Beaman, (2006) advo gam que a satisfação do turista com o destino é um indicador de fidelização em relação ao mesmo. No entanto, será o mesmo argumento válido para a fidelização para com um determinado hotel com sistema AI. A multidimensionalidade da definição do conceito fidelização evidencia a sua explicitação, assim, e, de acordo com Kozak, Huan e Beaman (2002), os autores referem que existem diferentes tipos de fidelização de clientes no contexto do Turismo, como sejam, a fidelização ao Operador, à Agência de Viagens, ao Hotel e ao Destino, assumindo este último uma importância crucial na sustentabilidade do Destino, dada a concorrência global presente na indústria.

A compra recorrente de determinado produto representa em si uma forma de fidelização, referem Lee,Grafe e Burns (2007), existindo assim o compromisso das empresas em considerar as necessidades dos consumidores e em as produzir, enquadrando assim o seu posicionamento na fidelização do serviço (Kamdampully & Suhartunto, 2000). De acordo com investigações anteriores, a fidelização é aferida por variáveis, como: número de compras do produto, a intenção de continuar a comprar o mesmo produto, a vontade de recomendar positivamente a outros, considerar como primeiro escolha no futuro e aumentar o volume de negócios com a empresa no futuro (Kozak, 2002; Kamdampully & Suhartunto, 2000).

Na literatura do Turismo é amplamente aceite que a satisfação de clientes, tem um efeito direto na sua fidelização com um determinado destino turístico (Kozak, 2003; Chen & Tsai, 2007), por exemplo, diversos apontam para a tendência da satisfação influenciar positivamente a recomendação passa palavra (Chi & Qu, 2008). No entanto Kozak (2002), demonstra que a satisfação com o destino não é por si só, garantia do regresso dos turistas ao mesmo. Apesar da literatura evidenciar diversas relações entre a satisfação com o destino e a fidelização ao destino, o mesmo não se verifica com a fidelização com o sistema AI praticado por alguns hotéis, cujas vantagens competitivas (atributos) carecem de uma clarificação, para se aferir se constituem ou não um sistema de fidelização sustentável, independentemente da satisfação global com o destino Albufeira.

**O MODELO PAISI (PORTUGAL ALL INCLUSIVE CUSTOMER SATISFACTION INDEX).**

Com o objetivo de aferir o grau de associação, magnitude e a direção de associação, entre os diversos atributos que influenciam o nível de satisfação dos clientes e posteriormente determinam a sua fidelização no regime AI dos hotéis de 4 estrelas do concelho de Albufeira, foi elaborado após a revisão da literatura e com base no modelo conceitual de satisfação de clientes ECSI, a seguinte representação modelar:

**FIGURA 1. Modelo de Satisfação de Clientes PAICSI com Hipóteses**

*Fonte:* Os autores, com base no modelo ECSI, adaptado de Juhl et al. (2002).

O modelo conceitual ECSI constitui a base de conceção do modelo proposto, no entanto, procedemos a uma reclassificação dos atributos do modelo original por forma a aproximar a análise conceitual da realidade AI. Assim, o atributo *Perceived Quality* foi reclassificado em Grau de Concretização das Expectativas, *Perceived Value* no atributo Performance Média das Secções do Hotel (PMSH) e *Customer Satisfaction* em
Satisfação Global com o Hotel. Introduzimos uma nova correlação para investigação do atributo PMSH com a Fidelização de clientes, por forma aclarar a relação ou não do contributo da performance das secções do hotel na fidelização de clientes.

**METODOLOGIA**

O método, na investigação científica, propõe o estabelecimento de uma estratégia de ação ajustada ao objeto de estudo, por forma a orientar o objetivo proposto (Pardal & Correia, 1995). Neste contexto optamos pelo inquérito por questionário, que se caracteriza por ser um instrumento de observação que permite medir o que um ou mais indivíduos, sabem, gostam, pensam (Quivy & Champenhoudt, 2003). A medição permitida pela aplicação do inquérito por questionário é essencial, uma vez que permite elaborar estimativas, descrever a população e verificar as relações intervariaveis de entre os atributos identificados no modelo conceitual proposto.

**A recolha de dados**

Depois de analisada a bibliografia existente sobre o tema, procedemos à formulação dos quesitos orientadores da investigação. Sendo o problema a averiguar a eficácia do sistema AI como um sistema de organização da oferta hoteleira no que concerne a fidelização de clientes.

O questionário está estruturado em grupos. O primeiro grupo é sobre o enquadramento sociodemográfico do hóspede (pergunta 1 a 9.3), o segundo grupo pretende aferir as expectativas iniciais com o hotel, os motivos da escolha do hotel e do regime AI, o comportamento de consumo no destino (10 a 20); o terceiro grupo de questões foca a performance aferida em diversos parâmetros das secções do hotel e a satisfação global com o hotel (21 a 22), o quarto grupo diz respeito à dimensão reclamação, (23 a 24), o quinto e último grupo refere-se à fidelização e às expectativas finais dos inquiridos ( 25 a 27). A escala de Likert 5 pontos (1 discordo totalmente a 5 concordo totalmente) foi utilizada para medir o nível de concordância/discordância dos inquiridos relativamente às afirmações constantes na pergunta 21 do questionário, por forma a determinar a performance média das secções do hotel.

A aplicação do questionário decorreu entre o dia 19/8/2013 e 24/8/2013. A escolha para considerar estadias de 5 dias ou mais, prende-se com o facto de entendermos que uma percepção mais ponderada acerca da experiência AI decorrerá, após uma experiência enquadrada com a dinâmica do regime AI, permitindo assim derivar uma observação crítica sobre as experiências do sistema.

**População e Amostra**

A população é o conjunto de todas as unidades de análise em estudo e a amostra o subconjunto da população (Pardal & Correia, 1995). A determinação população para a realização do estudo empírico obedeceu aos seguintes princípios:
- Categoria do alojamento em concordância com objeto de estudo-;
- Sistema AI em exclusivo na unidade hoteleira implementado há 5 ou mais anos,
- Localização na freguesia Albufeira e Olhos de Água-;
- Taxa de ocupação média anual quarto-.

Em conformidade com os critérios acima enunciados, determinamos a forma de calculo da população a considerar através da seguinte fórmula:
FORMULA 1. Calculo da População

\[ N = AB \left[ \frac{O}{N^\circ\text{UHO}} \right] \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{12} X_i + \sum_{m=1}^{12} X_i}{12} \right] = 839,0,681.2 \left[ \frac{(2,844 + 3,577)}{12} \right] = 611 \]

Fonte: Elaborado pelos autores

A interpretação da mesma, deve ser acompanhada da seguinte legendagem: N representa a população; A o numero total de quartos dos hotéis AI selecionados; B a taxa de ocupação média efetiva, para estadias mínimas de 5 dias, no período de administração do questionário; O traduz a ocupação em quantidade; N\ºUHO espelha o numero de unidades de habitação ocupadas; i é o mês de referencia; n representa o ano civil e o X simboliza a taxa de ocupação média mensal.

Determinada a população procedemos aos cálculos da amostra representativa da mesma com recurso à fórmula de variável qualitativa (nominal ou ordinal) e população finita:

FORMULA 2. Calculo da Amostra

\[ n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot \hat{p} \cdot \hat{q} \cdot N}{d^2(N-1)+Z^2 \cdot \hat{p} \cdot \hat{q}} = \frac{1,96^2 \cdot 0,5 \cdot 0,5 \cdot 611}{0,09^2 \cdot (611-1)+1,96^2 \cdot 0,5 \cdot 0,5} \approx 100 \text{ aprox.} \]

Fonte: Pocinho, 2009

No guia interpretativo da formula 2., Z espelha a abcissa da normal padrão; N o tamanho da população; \( \hat{p} \) a estimativa da proporção; \( \hat{q} \) é igual a 1 menos a estimativa da proporção e o d é o erro amostral.

Na análise dos dados, deverá ser assumido um nível de significância alfa de 5%, um intervalo de confiança de 95% e um erro amostral de 9%.

APRESENTAÇÃO E ANÁLISE DE RESULTADOS

Caracterização sóciodemográfica dos inquiridos

De um total de 100 inquiridos selecionados dos hotéis de 4 estrelas com o regime AI do concelho de Albufeira constatou-se que, as mulheres representam 65% e os homens 35% respetivamente. Mais de 50% dos inquiridos são casados, seguindo-se os solteiros com 15%, os divorciados e os viúvos com 12% cada e os inquiridos em união de facto que perfazem 9%.

No que respeita ao grau académico, tem-se 35% dos inquiridos com o grau de Licenciatura, seguidos de 32% com o Ensino Secundário, Pós-graduação e Mestrado representam 16% e 13% respetivamente, por fim os inquiridos com o Doutoramento representam 4%.

Relativamente à variável idade conclui-se que 72% dos inquiridos tem idade igual ou superior a 46 anos, as mulheres representam 48%, o dobro da representatividade dos homens para esta faixa etária. Quanto à ocupação profissional dos inquiridos esta é destacada pelos trabalhadores por conta de outrem com 26%, seguida por funcionários públicos e empresários com 24% cada, desempregados com 8% e apenas 2% são estudantes.
Quanto aos rendimentos anuais dos agregados familiares constatou-se que 33% dos inquiridos obtêm no mínimo 40.001 euros por ano, seguidos de 29% que o auferem entre 20.001 e 40.000 euros e 24% totalizam mais de 60.000 euros por ano, perfazendo 86% do total dos inquiridos.

Na amostra constatou-se que o número de viagens com o objetivo de fazer férias se situa em três ou mais viagens por ano em 51% dos inquiridos, acompanhados (80%), maioritariamente pelos amigos (58,8%) e em grupos de pelo menos 5 pessoas (65%).

No que se refere à variável Nacionalidade, verifica-se que 28% dos hóspedes são Britânicos seguidos de 20% de hóspedes Portugueses, 36% repartidos equitativamente entre as nacionalidades Alemã, Holandesa e Irlandesa, 8% de nacionalidade Espanhola, 4% de nacionalidade Francesa e 4% de nacionalidade Brasileira. Constata-se que para 44% dos inquiridos esta não foi a primeira viagem ao concelho de Albufeira, verificando-se em 72,8% (34) dos casos que já haviam estado pelo menos duas vezes.

A organização da viagem é predominantemente assegurada pelas agências de viagens (72%), com uma antecedência até 30 dias antes da chegada em 68% dos casos.

**Performance Média das Secções do Hotel**

**TABELA 1. Performance Média das Secções do Hotel (PMSH); n=100**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secções</th>
<th>Média</th>
<th>Moda</th>
<th>Desvio Padrão</th>
<th>Mínimo</th>
<th>Máximo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cozinha</td>
<td>4,0800</td>
<td>4,57</td>
<td>0,54647</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurante</td>
<td>4,3250</td>
<td>4,50</td>
<td>0,47937</td>
<td>3,25</td>
<td>4,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bar</td>
<td>3,2314</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>0,32091</td>
<td>2,71</td>
<td>3,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entretenimento</td>
<td>4,5371</td>
<td>4,57</td>
<td>0,22530</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>4,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andares</td>
<td>4,5314</td>
<td>4,71</td>
<td>0,29985</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>4,86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receção</td>
<td>4,5914</td>
<td>4,83</td>
<td>0,23399</td>
<td>4,14</td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geral</td>
<td>4,4267</td>
<td>4,33</td>
<td>0,36416</td>
<td>3,83</td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMSH</td>
<td>4,2461</td>
<td>4,36</td>
<td>0,14911</td>
<td>3,95</td>
<td>4,55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Fonte: Elaborado pelos autores*

A interpretação dos resultados das medidas de tendência central constantes na Tabela 1. deve ter conta a seguinte escala de desempenho:

1-2 - Totalmente insatisfatório;
2-3 - Insatisfatório;
3-4 - Satisfatório;
4-5 - Muito Satisfatório.

Tendo em conta a Tabela nº1 e a escala de desempenho correspondente, verificamos que as 3 secções que mais se destacam em termos de índice de desempenho médio são: Receção (4,5914), Entretenimento (4,5371) e Andares (4,5314), traduzindo-se num desempenho muito satisfatório. Num contexto mais amplo, verifica-se que todas as secções do hotel atingem índices acima de 4, com exceção da secção bar que alcança
o índice 3,2314, o mais baixo de todos, que se traduz num desempenho satisfatório, afer-se também que esta secção registá o índice Mínimo de 2,71, o mais baixo entre todas as secções (desempenho insatisfatório), e o índice Máximo igualmente mais baixo 3,86 (desempenho Satisfatório), o que se reflete na Moda da secção que encerra um índice 3 (desempenho satisfatório). O indicador PMSH obtém um índice médio de 4,2461, enquadrando o hotel num desempenho global muito satisfatório.

**Verificação Sistematizada do modelo PAICSI**

**FIGURA 2. Modelo de Satisfação de Clientes PAICSI verificado**

![Diagrama do Modelo de Satisfação de Clientes PAICSI](image)

*Fonte:* Elaborado pelos autores

A figura nº2 resume os resultados das correlações de forma sistematizada. Podemos constatar que o modelo proposto é adequado, como base de reflexão, acerca dos atributos mais relevantes, para determinar e potenciar a fidelização de clientes consumidores do sistema AI, dado que demonstra a magnitude e a direção de associação entre as variáveis no contexto AI da população investigada.

**CONCLUSÃO**

Conclui-se que, o produto turístico AI no concelho de Albufeira é um sistema de fidelização eficaz, uma vez que para a população considerada neste estudo expressou um elevado índice de Satisfação Global com o Hotel (72%).

Apresenta-se como uma alternativa às ofertas hoteleiras tradicionais, alavancada por uma disponibilidade de consumo quase ilimitado (20 horas por dia) de gastronomia, entretenimento, entre outras ofertas sem um acréscimo de custo para o consumidor e com um desempenho operacional percecionado pelo hóspede como muito satisfatório (92%).

Para responder aos objetivos do estudo, definiu-se uma estratégia assente na realização de inquéritos *in situ* por forma a eliminar tanto quanto possível, opiniões e preconceitos de players alheios à experiência AI. Em conformidade, foi realizado um estudo sobre o grau de satisfação do cliente AI. A importância do estudo da satisfação é evidenciada pela revisão da literatura e pelo modelo conceitual adotado nesta investigação, tendo em conta o papel central que desempenha na prossecução da fidelização dos clientes.

O estudo da satisfação do cliente é relevante na medida em que tem uma relação direta com as intenções de recompra do produto AI, o que contribui para o sucesso da organização através da consistência da sua quota
de mercado por via da fidelização de clientes (Lumsden et al., 2008).

Neste contexto, quanto aos atributos conceituais mais relevantes que determinam a satisfação dos clientes, conclui-se que as Expetativas Iniciais o Hotel, o Grau de Concretização das Expetativas e a PMSH assumem um lugar de destaque, dado que a determinação do Grau da Satisfação com o Hotel é explicado de forma relevante (mínimo 71%) por estes atributos.

A maioria dos hóspedes (51%) visita o concelho de Albufeira pela primeira vez, com o objetivo de fazer férias em 88% dos casos. As nacionalidades inglesa e portuguesa representam 48% dos hóspedes. A faixa etária predominante é a de mais de 46 anos de idade em 72% dos hóspedes, sendo 65% são do sexo feminino. As ocupações profissionais mais caracterizadoras são: trabalhho por conta de outrem (26%), funcionários públicos (24%) e empresários (24%). O rendimento anual do agregado familiar situa-se no mínimo em 40.001 euros em 57% dos hóspedes e o número médio de viagens por ano com o objetivo de fazer férias é de 3 ou mais em 51% dos casos. O modo de organização preferencial da viagem é através da agência de viagens com uma antecedência mínima de 15 dias, para 52% dos hóspedes.

Quanto às expetativas iniciais apenas 28% dos hóspedes classificam como altas ou muito altas. Caracterizam como determinantes para a escolha do hotel as experiências positivas em regime AI noutros destinos, a relação preço/qualidade, a reputação online e a curiosidade. As determinantes para a escolha do regime AI são o preço competitivo, a transparência da composição do pacote AI, a qualidade dos quartos e a qualidade e variedade do programa de entretenimento do hotel.

No que se refere à interação do hóspede AI com o destino, verifica-se que apenas 12% de hóspedes nunca saírem do hotel com o objetivo de descobrirem o concelho de Albufeira. Despendem no mínimo 76 euros por pessoa em 72% dos casos, nas categorias lembrações, serviços de spa, compras e excursões.

No que diz respeito às secções do hotel, 92% dos hóspedes classificam como muito satisfatório o seu desempenho. Apenas 16% dos inquiridos reclamaram durante a sua estadia. A taxa de hóspedes que consideram repetir a experiência AI no mesmo hotel é de 52%, o preço do pacote AI e a qualidade dos produtos e serviços, são os fatores que mais motivam a mudança e/ou de regime. O grau de concretização de expetativas com o regime AI, situa-se nos 44%.

As interrogações sintetizadas no modelo PAICSI proposto, conduziram à averiguação da sua (des)confirmação, através dos métodos de inferência estatística adequados à natureza de cada atributo. A relação direta entre a satisfação com os atributos e a satisfação global do cliente não é nova, os estudos de Hsu (2003), Chi e Qu (2008) e Ozdemir et al., (2012), demonstraram-na.

Aferimos que, a conceptualização de Kozak e Beaman, (2006), faz sentido quando aplicada, na averiguação do grau fidelização do cliente AI tendo em conta a sua satisfação, dado que, constatamos uma relação forte e positiva entre a Satisfação Global com o Hotel e a intenção de voltar ao mesmo (P3).

A verificação de relação forte e positiva entre as Expetativas Iniciais com o Hotel e o Grau de Concretização das Expetativas, consubstanciada na Performance Média das Secções do Hotel, sugere uma triangulação de associações muito fortes, onde a performance média das secções do hotel, desempenha um papel determinante no reforço de expetativas iniciais positivas em índices de qualidade percebida relevantes, ou, a correção de expetativas iniciais muito baixas numa experiência marcante. O KCSM (Kish Customer Satisfaction Model) de Miremadi (2012), também verificou a triangulação entre expetativas (iniciais e concretizadas) e a performance operacional do hotel, dado que obteve no estudo empírico dirigido aos visitantes da ilha Kish no Irã, resultados de associação similares.

Com base nestes resultados, os hotéis que pretendam implementar o regime AI, devem focar-se não só numa análise linear custo/benefício, mas também na avaliação ponderada das fraquezas/limitações e da potenciação das oportunidades e mais valias das suas unidades, uma vez que o desempenho operacional do hotel assume um papel fundamental tanto na satisfação do cliente, como na sua fidelização.

Uma das limitações do estudo, é o facto deste não permitir fazer generalizações para outros locais, embora os seus resultados sejam valiosos para estudos comparados. A época de realização do estudo (Agosto 2013) constitui uma limitação dada a sazonalidade do concelho de Albufeira.

A principal valia deste estudo é o seu contributo para a caraterização específica do cliente AI para a freguesia de Albufeira e Olhos de Água, das suas expetativas em relação ao hotel e ao regime AI, bem como a forma como interage com o concelho de Albufeira e, por fim, como avalia a sua experiência.

Com base neste estudo, é possível projetar estratégias de marketing mais focadas para captar potenciais consumidores deste produto, interpretar os resultados de performance operacional do hotel e analisar os seus impactos efetivos na satisfação do cliente e na sua posterior fidelização. Contribui ainda para a definição de planos de atuação preventivos, dinâmicos e coerentes no âmbito da gestão de reclamações.

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GRAMADO E BENTO GONÇALVES, NA SERRA GAÚCHA BRASILEIRA, E A DIVULGAÇÃO E PROMOÇÃO DO TURISMO NAS MÍDIAS DIGITAIS.

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Introdução

A Serra Gaúcha brasileira é caracterizada por um patrimônio natural com morros, colinas, vales e rios, localizada no Estado do Rio Grande do Sul, extremo sul do Brasil, com formação cultural constituída, principalmente, pelas imigrações alemã e italiana. Estas características culturais não são uniformes, em toda a região, o que se observa nas evidências arquitetônicas, gastronômicas e dos atrativos turísticos caracterizados pelos traços culturais alemães em Gramado, e municípios vizinhos, e essencialmente italianos no município de Bento Gonçalves e municípios limitrofes.

A serra gaúcha por ser uma formação da topografia regional não apresenta de forma conclusiva a quantidade de municípios circunscritos em sua extensão territorial. Historicamente, os alemães habitaram a região denominada por “região das hortências”, que corresponde a região formada pelos municípios Gramado, Canela e Nova Petrópolis. Os italianos, povoaram a região denominada por “pequena Itália” que corresponde aos municípios Farroupilha, Carlos Barbosa, Garibaldi, Bento Gonçalves, Flores da Cunha e Caxias do Sul. Este estudo está concentrado nas características culturais evidenciadas por meio dos atrativos turísticos, apresentados como símbolos da cultura local em Gramado, cultura alemã, e Bento Gonçalves, cultura italiana.

McKercher & du Cros, 2002, esclarecem que no debate a respeito do patrimônio cultural e turismo há uma vertente de discussão que os coloca como competidores e não como colaboradores. Para o autor esta situação ocorre frequentemente, ou tem potencial de ocorrer no turismo cultural. Na prática, os ativos culturais são apresentados como produtos turísticos comercializáveis e de fácil consumo pelos visitantes. Há lacunas no desenvolvimento do turismo de um destino quando as atividades do turismo são consideradas prejudiciais à conservação do patrimônio cultural.

Os autores Hausmann & Weuster (2017), acentuam o desafio do turismo em trabalhar com o patrimônio cultural de forma colaborativa ao incluir a discussão a respeito do avanço tecnológico e seus desdobramentos. O surgimento e a crescente prevalência das tecnologias da informação e da comunicação (TICs), como mídias sociais, aplicativos móveis, serviços baseados em localização ou realidade aumentada, têm grandes impactos nas empresas e stakeholders no turismo cultural e patrimonial.

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5 É importante ressaltar que os nativos destas terras, os índios, povoaram estas regiões antes da imigração alemã e italiana. Entretanto, esta discussão não está circunscrita neste estudo.
No que diz respeito ao lado da demanda, as TICs capacitaram os turistas com mais informações e conhecimentos que os ajudam a controlar muitos aspectos de sua viagem (Hausmann & Weuster, 2017). O compartilhamento das experiências e impressões sobre os sites que visitaram, dos materiais de divulgação e promoção e as avaliações ou comentários que escrevem a respeito dos destinos e seus atrativos turísticos influenciam fortemente o processo de tomada de decisão de outros. (Archer, Cooper, Ruhanem, 2005).

Estes desafios são pertinentes aos organismos oficiais do turismo, designados de Organizações de Marketing de Destinos (OMD) ou Destination Marketing Organizations (DMO). A OMD tem como objetivo desenvolver o turismo de forma sustentável com desenvolvimento de estratégias promovidas pelo setor público e pelo setor privado. (Rafael & Almeida, 2014)

O objetivo deste estudo é exatamente apresentar as evidências de um marketing de destino turístico nas regiões italiana e alemã, na Serra Gaúcha, no Estado do Rio Grande Sul, no Brasil, que por meio das informações em blogs, sites, Youtube e Tripadvisor promovem os atrativos culturais em espaços de responsabilidade do setor público e privado.

Procedimentos metodológicos

A pesquisa foi realizada sob a abordagem da pesquisa qualitativa de cunho exploratório, com a utilização da análise de conteúdo das mídias sociais selecionadas a partir do objetivo deste estudo. (Creswel, 2007). O método empregado para análise dos conteúdos disponibilizados nas plataformas digitais de mídias sociais como Youtube, Blog, Tripadvisor e web sites (Torres (2009); Gabriel (2010); Safko & Brake (2010); O’Connor, Höpken & Gretzel (2008)), foi a análise de conteúdo sob uma perspectiva qualitativa, por meio de um roteiro estruturado com o objetivo de identificar os atrativos culturais apresentados pelas plataformas, e se eles eram apresentados com indicativos que remetessem aos aspectos culturais tipificados como alemã e italiana. Na sequência foram investigados os conteúdos dos sites dos atrativos com o objetivo de verificar informações mais específicas dos locais, assim como confrontar sua veracidade. Por último, as pesquisadoras visitaram os locais a fim de compreender a inspiração cultural proposta pelos informativos.

As etapas da análise de conteúdo seguiram como preconizadas por Bardin (2006). A pesquisa de conteúdos a respeito de Gramado e Bento Gonçalves no site de busca Google utilizou como filtro o termo blog no endereço virtual (URL), o mesmo ocorreu no Youtube, Tripadvisor.

A visitação ocorreu no período de 10 a 19 de julho de 2017, com a presença de mais três pessoas, além do pesquisador, as quais, sem conhecimento da avaliação realizada previamente, apresentaram suas observações dos equipamentos visitados. Esta prática aproxima-se do recomendado por Wan (2002), para minimizar possíveis interpretações de cunho pessoal.

A partir dos dados coletados fez-se a caracterização e análise, resultando em resposta ao objetivo deste estudo. Na fase de análise e discussão realizou-se a validação dos resultados sob a perspectiva da literatura apresentada como base à construção do conhecimento objetivo deste artigo.

Resultados

No presente estudo observou-se as evidências do marketing de destino turístico nas regiões, italiana e alemã, na Serra Gaúcha, no Estado do Rio Grande Sul, no Brasil, que por meio das informações em blogs, sites, Youtube e Tripadvisor divulgaram e promoveram os atrativos histórico-culturais.
Em relação ao primeiro passo do roteiro estruturado, a ação adotada para este objetivo foi procurar indicativos que remetessem aos aspectos culturais tipificados como alemães italianos nas cidades Gramado e Bento Gonçalves respectivamente. A análise dos 10 blogs e dos 10 vídeos do Youtube, a respeito da serra gaúcha (Gramado e Bento Gonçalves) indicaram atrativos turísticos visitados pelos turistas que os sugeriam aos futuros viajantes.

Na sequência foram pesquisados os 10 atrativos com melhor avaliação no TripAdisor, sendo 10 em Gramado e 10 em Bento Gonçalves. A verificação entre os atrativos que constavam nas indicações dos blogueiros e youtubers em relação às avaliações no TripAdisor contribuiu para que 8 equipamentos turísticos de Gramado e 10 de Bento Gonçalves fossem selecionados para a fase de análise dos conteúdos, nos respectivos sites. Para tanto, os sites foram avaliados com duas premissas: “site próprio”, “conteúdo histórico-cultural”. O quadro abaixo apresenta uma síntese dos resultados.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atrativos</th>
<th>Web site próprio</th>
<th>Conteúdo histórico-cultural</th>
<th>Atrativos</th>
<th>Web site próprio</th>
<th>Conteúdo histórico-cultural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lago Negro</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Resumido</td>
<td>GIORDANI Turismo (inclui Maria Fumaça e Epopeia Italiana)</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igreja de São Pedro</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Resumido</td>
<td>Vinicola Casa Valduga</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Le Jardín Parque Lavanda</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Vinicola Casa Miolo</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casa dos Colono</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Resumido</td>
<td>Caminhos de Pedra</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gramado Zoo</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Casa da Ovelha</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini Mundo</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Casa do Mate Ferrari</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Resumido</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rua Coberta</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Resumido</td>
<td>Vale do Vinhedos</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pórtico via Nova Petrópolis</td>
<td>Não</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Vinicola Pizzato</td>
<td>Sim</td>
<td>Sim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quadro 1. Resultado da pesquisa
Fonte: As autoras, 2017.

O quadro ilustra que nem todos os atrativos turísticos de Gramado apresentaram conteúdos que oferecessem a confirmação a respeito da divulgação dos aspectos histórico-culturais da imigração alemã. No Parque Temático Mini-Mundo, a cultura alemã está na arquitetura europeia com forte influência alemã. A casa do Colono oferece produtos artesanais de colonos alemães e italianos, mas não tem site próprio e as explicações histórico-culturais são mínimas. A Rua Coberta, um dos cartões postais da cidade, não se apresenta como um símbolo da história e da cultura alemã.

Em contrapartida, no município de Bento Gonçalves, a cultura italiana está registrada em todos os atrativos selecionados, com exceção da Casa Erva Mate Ferrari, cujo produto principal, a erva-mate, tem sua origem na cultura indígena que os gaúchos adotaram como uma bebida regional típica. Os demais nove atrativos são estabelecimentos que mantêm arquitetura, ambientação familiar e gestão de seus negócios concentrados
na história de seus antepassados. Os equipamentos turísticos expõem, em seus sites, os membros da família que imigraram ao Brasil e sua história até os momentos atuais.

Na ocasião da visita aos locais selecionados foi possível experimentar as sensações e emoções propostas pelos atrativos turísticos, em destaque nesta pesquisa. Ao chegar em Gramado o visitante tem a sensação que está na Europa. A arquitetura local, a organização do trânsito e dos estabelecimentos, os nomes dos equipamentos turísticos, a paisagem local é uma experiência memorávelmente do norte da europa, especificamente alemã, com influências austríacas, características do Estado Bavaria, na Alemanha.

Ao primeiro olhar, Bento Gonçalves revela-se como uma cidade brasileira comum. Entretanto, na primeira visita ao Vale dos Vinhedos ou no passeio de Maria Fumaça a cultura italiana invade o âmago do visitante que fica com a sensação de estar em uma “pequena Itália”, em território brasileiro, degustando um vinho das parreiras próprias e saboreando a culinária típica.

As pesquisadoras mantendo a neutralidade em relação ao objeto em análise, mesmo com a sensação de encantamento, buscaram a validação desta percepção junto aos outros visitantes que, como assessores externos, com o objetivo de minimizar possíveis interpretações de cunho pessoal à pesquisa, validaram estas perspectivas.

Conclusão
A inovação tecnológica por meio das plataformas digitais possibilitou uma aproximação interativa entre o turista e o atrativo turístico. Em relação ao debate a respeito dos organismos da destinação turística nos municípios de Gramado e Bento Gonçalves confirma-se que estas localidades implementaram, a partir das heranças histórico-culturais, atividades que propiciaram um contato estreito com a cultura alemã e italiana. O território é brasileiro, mas há uma atmosfera europeia, alemã e italiana, nessa região do país.

A sustentabilidade dos espaços culturais e turísticos está concentrada nos equipamentos, tipicamente de iniciativa privada, com preservação e conservação dos símbolos histórico-culturais. No Lago Negro, em Gramado, as pessoas transitam em um ambiente natural limpo, agradável, tranquilo e saudável, mesmo na iminência de um turismo desenvolvido e estruturado. O mesmo percebe-se na Rota dos Caminhos de Pedra, em Bento Gonçalves. Os estabelecimentos prezam por organização e atenção ao turista, na expectativa de fortalecer uma marca cultural em sua memória.

Nesse contexto, as plataformas digitais e as mídias sociais contribuíram com a divulgação e promoção dos locais. Os blogs ofereceram conteúdos, em maioria, conteúdos a respeito dos organismos da destinação turística e contribuíram ao planejamento da viagem. Os vídeos do Youtube clarificaram, por meio de imagens e narrativas, a idealização dos roteiros planejados. As avaliações no TripAdvisor têm uma função preponderante na decisão, na escolha, ao indicar por meio de uma lista, os locais de melhor avaliação, por aqueles que estiveram nestes locais. Os web sites próprios ampliaram as potencialidades, e fragilidades, com conteúdos mais completos e explicativos.

A pesquisa aponta, por fim, que é possível ter um turismo cultural em sintonia com a população local desde que o turismo esteja em consonância com as práticas socioeconômicas, políticas e culturais da sociedade construída no destino turístico. A busca pelo conhecimento, neste caso, passa pela compreensão de quem habita e como habita o lugar no qual se está visitando. Para além do turismo, é necessário conhecer o outro
que o receberá e preparar-se ao encontro. É necessário ser hospitalheiro no espaço do encontro entre os atores envolvidos na atividade turística.

Referências bibliográficas


SESSION 20

TOURISTS AND STAKEHOLDERS (PORTUGUESE SESSION)
CUSTOMER ORIENTATION AND EMOTIONAL LABOR IN TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS: THE EFFECTS ON BURNOUT AND PERFORMANCE

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Introdução

Na atividade turística constata-se um interesse crescente pela dinâmica das emoções nos contextos de trabalho, particularmente nas funções de contacto direto com o cliente. A perspetiva de uma filosofia de trabalho que tem na sua génese a crença que o sucesso das organizações se atinge através da satisfação dos clientes é fulcral para as organizações turísticas (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2006). Nos episódios de prestação de serviços a satisfação dos clientes resulta das experiências ocorridas nos processos interativos (Oliver, 1997). Em particular, prestações de serviços afetivas relacionam-se com a satisfação dos clientes através da percepção da qualidade do serviço (Barger & Grandey, 2006). Tanto a qualidade do serviço como a satisfação dos clientes são largamente determinadas pelos empregados de contacto, tendo estes de responder às expectativas dos clientes bem como às exigências da gestão (Lovelock & Wright, 2007).

Durante o serviço de atendimento, a exibição emocional do empregado de contacto pode mudar o estado emocional do cliente que será tanto mais influenciado quanto maior for o grau de autenticidade (Grandey et al., 2005; Pugh, 2001; Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011; Van Dijk, Smith & Cooper, 2011). Na atividade turística espera-se que os empregados de contacto demonstrem emoções positivas como forma de gerar e manter sentimentos positivos por parte dos clientes (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). A apresentação das emoções apropriadas num determinado tipo de interação incorpora o conceito de trabalho emocional (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), e pressupõe três situações: (a) existência de uma interação, presencial ou à distância; (b) produção, por parte do empregado, de um estado emocional noutra pessoa e (c) controlo, por parte da organização, sobre as atividades que os seus empregados exercem, através de regras, supervisão e formação (Hochschild, 1983). Um dos aspetos importantes da investigação do trabalho emocional tem sido perceber que estratégias de trabalho emocional os empregados adotam para a apresentação das emoções organizacionalmente desejadas. Alguns autores sugerem que para os empregados apresentarem as emoções desejadas têm, por vezes, de esconder e falsificar as emoções sentidas e/ou tentar experimentar as emoções desejadas. Outros autores consideram que a concentração exclusiva nestas duas formas de operationalizar o trabalho emocional ignora a possibilidade de os empregados poderem genuinamente experimentar e apresentar as emoções desejadas (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

O estudo do trabalho emocional revela-se importante uma vez que faz parte de qualquer situação que requeira interações entre empregados de contacto e clientes, com especial incidência na atividade turística.
Contudo, pode ter repercussões positivas e negativas. Se, por um lado, a exibição de emoções adequadas se relaciona com melhores desempenhos e interações mais eficazes com os clientes, por outro, a experiência emocional subjacente pode ter associados efeitos negativos como o stresse e o burnout (Grandey, 2000, 2003).

O esforço empreendido na apresentação das emoções apropriadas e a necessidade de exibir repetidamente as emoções que precisam ser reguladas podem levar a situações de desgaste físico e psicológico dos empregados de contacto. O burnout pode ser definido como uma tensão emocional crónica que envolve a exaustão emocional, a despersonalização e a falta de realização pessoal (Maslach, 1993). Esta dimensão é um fator chave nos serviços de atendimento ao cliente uma vez que pode afetar tanto o equilíbrio emocional do empregado de contacto como a qualidade e a eficácia do trabalho de atendimento (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2000).

Os estudos realizados têm destacado a importância da expressão afetiva dos empregados na qualidade das prestações de serviços, de onde se espera a criação e manutenção de emoções positivas nos clientes (Grandey, 2003; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Para isso, os empregados deverão apresentar emoções positivas e transmiti-las aos clientes no sentido da convergência emocional entre os interlocutores (Pugh, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2002). No presente estudo analisa-se o desempenho funcional da prestação do serviço através da sua prestação afetiva. A prestação afetiva do serviço refere-se ao grau em que as interações com os clientes são baseadas na expressão de emoções positivas, ou seja, o grau em que o empregado se relaciona com o cliente com sinceridade, simpatia, entusiasmo e cortesia (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Grandey, 2003).

A literatura tem-se debruçado em perceber os fatores que influenciam as estratégias de trabalho emocional. Observa-se, no entanto, a pouca atenção dada à valorização do cliente como fator influenciador desta dimensão. A inclusão da orientação individual para o cliente, como possível influenciador do trabalho emocional, pode ajudar a compreender até que ponto os fatores disposicionais podem afetar as atitudes e os comportamentos dos empregados de contacto e, bem assim, a exibição emocional durante as interações com os clientes. Nas organizações de serviços, em particular na atividade turística, a orientação para o cliente é operacionalizada através dos empregados de contacto, durante as interações com os clientes (Donavan et al., 2004).

A orientação individual para o cliente corresponde à contribuição de cada empregado, interpretada pela permanente valorização do cliente e expressa em atitudes e comportamentos centrados no apoio e na satisfação dos clientes (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). A qualidade do desempenho é considerada um dos principais efeitos dos comportamentos orientados para o cliente. Estudos realizados têm demonstrado que as interações orientadas para o cliente afetam positivamente o desempenho dos empregados e o relacionamento com os clientes, com consequências positivas tanto para os próprios como para as organizações (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Keillor, Parker & Pettijohn, 1999; Lee, OK & Hwang, 2016; Lings & Greenley, 2010; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

Convictos da relevância que o trabalho emocional e a orientação para o cliente têm no quotidiano laboral das atividades de prestação de serviços, parece ser pertinente a análise da relação entre estes dois conceitos até porque se verifica que o trabalho emocional tem sido alvo de pouca investigação no contexto da atividade turística em Portugal.
Neste sentido, o objetivo do presente estudo foi examinar a influência da orientação individual para o cliente sobre estratégias de trabalho emocional e o efeito das estratégias de trabalho emocional sobre o burnout e a prestação afetiva do serviço.

**Metodologia**

O estudo foi realizado através de uma amostragem de conveniência constituída por empregados de contacto oriundos de unidades hoteleiras e agências de viagens localizadas em todas as regiões de Portugal. De um universo de 64 organizações e 741 empregados de contato, obteve-se uma amostra de 283 empregados de contacto.

As dimensões do modelo proposto foram avaliadas por meio de um questionário composto por 6 medidas e um total de 54 itens.

**Resultados**

A orientação individual para o cliente tem um efeito positivo e significativo na representação profunda e na expressão de emoções genuínas. Verifica-se que a representação superficial tem uma influência significativa e positiva na exaustão emocional e na despersonalização. A expressão de emoções genuínas tem um impacto significativo e positivo tanto na realização pessoal como na prestação afetiva do serviço.

**Conclusões e implicações**

A inclusão de uma dimensão referente à valorização do cliente, como a orientação individual para o cliente, poderá contribuir para um melhor conhecimento sobre o que poderá influenciar as estratégias de trabalho emocional adotadas pelos empregados de contacto e as vantagens que ela proporciona na prestação de um serviço autêntico, em situações de contacto directo com o cliente.

A análise da expressão de emoções genuínas, juntamente com as estratégias mais frequentemente mencionadas na literatura da especialidade (representação superficial e representação profunda), consolidou-se o lugar proeminente que a expressão de emoções genuínas ocupa na apresentação de emoções apropriadas, de acordo com a literatura, que apontou a utilidade desta dimensão como uma estratégia de trabalho emocional.

Por fim, considera-se que futuras investigações neste tema poderão contribuir para a consolidação de políticas e práticas de recursos humanos conducentes ao fortalecimento da qualidade das relações entre empregados de contacto e clientes. Por outro lado, poderá oferecer pistas para a definição de perfis de competências baseados nas exigências emocionais das funções de atendimento ao cliente, em conformidade com a exibição emocional projetada pela organização com vista à integração de indivíduos com potencial para funções de atendimento ao cliente.

**Referências**


RAZÕES PARA A FALTA DE ATRATIVIDADE DA PRÁTICA DO GOLFE EM ALUNOS DO ENSINO SUPERIOR

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Introdução

Dentro das novas modalidades de turismo caracterizadas por diversos autores (Cohen, 1972; Pearce, 1985 e Yiannakis e Gibson, 1992; Smith, 2012), o turismo desportivo, no qual se encontra o Golfe, tem tido uma procura crescente por turistas mais exigentes (Bouchet et al., 2004) que procuram uma oferta cada vez mais diversificada. Atualmente, calcula-se que haja cerca de 52 milhões de praticantes de golfe em todo o mundo, onde o maior número se verifica nos Estados Unidos (26M), Japão (14M) e Europa (6M), respectivamente.

Portugal, hoje em dia, é um dos melhores destinos para quem procura a prática do golfe. Além da diversificada oferta em tipologia de campos, a natureza e o clima são, entre outros, dos factores mais convidativos à deslocação de turistas desta modalidade para Portugal durante todo o ano. Atualmente existem em Portugal 75 campos de golfe distribuídos pelo Algarve (30), Área Metropolitana de Lisboa (21), Região Norte (13), Região Centro (5) e regiões autónomas da Madeira e Açores (6), num total de 179 clubes nacionais 6.

O Golfe não pode, nem deve, ser caracterizado apenas como uma modalidade turística. Cada vez mais se tem assumido no contexto da Meeting Industry, uma vez que se posiciona como um excelente recurso para a criação de networkings onde os executivos, dos diferentes sectores, se reúnem para jogar uma volta de golfe potenciando o surgimento de novas oportunidades de negócio (Dobrian, 2002; Nice, 2004), ainda que esta prática só coexista se o hábito de jogar golfe for inculcado desde a juventude.

Juventude que cada vez menos revela motivação para jogar golfe ainda que as práticas desportivas abundem e façam parte do seu quotidiano. Este estudo realizado com alunos do ensino superior em Portugal, pretende identificar os motivos que justificam a menor atratividade deste desporto, num destino que é considerado como um dos melhores destinos de golfe do mundo.

Contextualização

Apesar de Portugal ter sido distinguido pela World Golf Awards, pela terceira vez consecutiva, como o melhor destino mundial para a prática de Golfe, é notória uma taxa reduzida de jogadores portugueses, onde apenas existem dois no European Tour.

Em 2016, a Federação Portuguesa de Golfe promoveu diversas ações onde 14.000 crianças tiveram contato com o golfe em ações de divulgação e 3.000 participaram nas escolas no circuito piloto Drive Challenge onde estiveram envolvidas 60 escolas do 1º ciclo. 1.600 crianças inscreveram-se no desporto escolar onde 82 escolas têm na sua oferta em desporto escolar Grupo/Equipa de Golfe. Existem atualmente 4 centros de formação do desporto escolar onde 234 professores de educação física tiveram formação acreditada em golfe. 27 municípios receberam workshops de golfe para professores do 1º ciclo com uma participação de 380 professores.

Notória é a grande quantidade de escolas de golfe cujo nome surge em língua estrangeira, maioritariamente em inglês, de modo a captar a atenção de mais jovens e futuros clientes estrangeiros, respondendo assim ao facto do maior número de praticantes em Portugal serem estrangeiros, posicionando assim as suas estratégias de marketing para o seu maior potencial cliente-alvo, praticantes da modalidade estrangeiros.

Atualmente, o desporto escolar em Portugal tem como visão a prática de atividades físicas e desportivas regulares e de qualidade, tendo como missão contribuir para o sucesso escolar, um estilo de vida saudável e para o desenvolvimento de valores sociais e morais, importantes para a vida em sociedade, nomeadamente solidariedade, respeito, responsabilidade, espírito de equipa, tolerância e dedicação. As modalidades, mais habituais, opcionais no desporto escolar são o futsal, basquetebol, andebol, voleibol e atletismo. O golfe, como modalidade integrante do desporto escolar português, teve o seu início muito recente, pelo que o número de alunos inscritos nesta modalidade é muito reduzido. A iniciação de jovens no golfe através do desporto escolar/universitário torna-se cada vez mais importante para a captação de novos praticantes, tendo em conta o reduzido, quase nulo, número de praticantes jovens universitários em Portugal.

Revisão de literatura

Nos países onde o golfe é um desporto com relevância desportiva e financeira, os governos normalmente apoiam os investimentos na criação e manutenção de campos e escolas ao contrário dos países onde a prática é reduzida, onde cabe aos privados o suporte dos investimentos, sendo estes normalmente com fins de natureza turística. Nas últimas décadas, o aumento significativo do reconhecimento do golfe como modalidade desportiva e fonte de receita para Portugal (assim como nos países do sul da Europa como França, Espanha e Itália) refletiu-se no grande aumento de entusiastas que viajaram para férias de golfe e na aquisição de casas de férias construídas dentro de comunidades de golfe e resorts de golfe (Hudson & Hudson, 2010).

A importância do golfe não pode ser só reconhecida ao nível económico mas também ao nível turístico, onde a sua prática, como produto com uma sazonalidade claramente oposta à do sol e praia, torna-se um excelente instrumento para a promoção de uma distribuição mais equitativa da procura turística ao longo do ano (Correia & Tão, 2014).

A satisfação de um turista resulta da combinação entre a performance do produto e as expectativas e desejos da sua realização. Na teoria da atitude relacional, as intenções comportamentais constituem elementos de
previsão no que respeita a comportamentos futuros (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), pelo que a necessidade de melhoria constante, por parte dos gestores, da qualidade da performance do destino de prática de golfe, tenderá a um aumento da satisfação dos jogadores aumentando assim o potencial número de visitantes e consequentemente o aumento de receitas adicionais (Baker & Crompton, 2000).

Num estudo realizado em 2014 (Completo & Gustavo, 2014), os autores, considerando por um lado, o equilíbrio entre a oferta de campos de golfe e golfistas profissionais e, por outro lado, a sua dependência excessiva em termos de modelos de desenvolvimento das suas empresas satélites (turismo e imobiliária), apresentaram, como possibilidade de tornar viável o abastecimento existente e garantir Portugal como um destino de golfe competitivo e sustentável em níveis económicos e sociais, dois possíveis cenários para o desenvolvimento do golfe em Portugal:

(i) Portugal como ponto de golfe internacional como uma atividade eminentemente turística.
(ii) O Golfe como um desporto de lazer português.

Metodologia

Relativamente à metodologia utilizada neste estudo, foi elaborado um questionário estruturado em seis secções: (i) caracterização sociodemográfica; (ii) factores situacionais quanto à prática de Golfe; (iii) factores que pudessem tornar mais divertida/apelativa a prática do Golfe; (iv) factores considerados fundamentais para a prática do Golfe; (v) factores desencorajadores para a prática do Golfe; e (vi) questões sobre desportos que atualmente pratica, aplicado, de forma presencial, a 1336 estudantes inscritos em Licenciatura e Mestrado, nos diferentes anos, da Universidade Europeia de Lisboa, obtendo-se, dessa forma, uma amostra não probabilística com 100% de taxa de resposta.

Para a análise de resultados, começamos por agregar os factores situacionais quanto à prática do Golfe numa variável dicotómica, 0 – Nunca jogou e 1 – Já jogou/Praticou por forma a ser utilizada como variável endógena nos modelos de regressão logística binária. Recorremos a medidas descritivas para a caracterização sociodemográfica da amostra, aplicámos uma análise de clusters em dois passos (TwoStep Clusters Analysis), em cada secção, para obtermos indicadores da importância dos possíveis preditores e por fim utilizamos uma regressão logística binária para avaliarmos as razões para a falta de atratividade da prática do Golfe em alunos do ensino superior.

De acordo com a metodologia apresentada, serão considerados três modelos de regressão logística binária tendo, sempre, como variável endógena os factores situacionais quanto à prática do Golfe (0 – Nunca jogou e 1 – Já jogou/Praticou). O Género (S), a Faixa Etária (FE), o Ciclo de Estudos que frequenta (CE), o Ano em que está matriculado (A), o Turno que Frequenta (T) e o número de Desportos que atualmente pratica (S6) (0, 1, 2 ou mais) são variáveis consideradas para todos os modelos. No primeiro modelo serão consideradas, adicionalmente, as variáveis correspondentes às hipóteses de resposta da secção 3 (tratadas como Dummy), no segundo modelo, adicionalmente, são consideradas as variáveis correspondentes às hipóteses de resposta da secção 4 (tratadas como Dummy) e, por fim e de maior importância, no terceiro modelo serão consideradas, também, as variáveis correspondentes às hipóteses em avaliação na secção 5, também tratadas como Dummy.
Análise dos resultados

Assim, o estudo incidiu sobre 1336 estudantes da Universidade Europeia de Lisboa, dos quais 794 (59,4%) do sexo Feminino. Do total, 43 (3,2%) têm idade inferior a 19 anos, 947 (70,9%) entre os 19 e os 23 anos, 233 (17,4%) entre os 24 e os 30 anos, 110 (8,2%) entre os 31 e os 54 anos e 3 (0,2%) mais de 54 anos. Pelas percentagens das faixas etárias podemos perceber que a maioria está inscrita em Licenciatura, 1227 (91,8%) e os restantes em Mestrado, 109 (8,2%), sendo que 489 (36,6%) frequentam o 1º ano, 407 (30,5%) o 2º ano, 420 (31,4%) o terceiro ano e 20 (1,5%) o 4º ano. A maioria, 1044 (78,1%), frequenta o ensino Diurno e os restantes (21,9%) o ensino Noturno.

Aplicando a *TwoStep Cluster Analysis* à secção 3, factores que tornariam mais divertida/apelativa a prática do Golfe, foram obtidos 3 clusters óptimos com *Average Silhouette* igual a 1 (Bom), indicando a existência de uma distância de separação boa entre os clusters, considerando-se que todos os itens dentro dos mesmos são estaticisticamente significativos (p-value < 0,05). Pelo critério da importância do preditor, os factores considerados mais importantes são “Ter amigos próximos que pratiquem Golfe” e “Ter familiares que pratiquem Golfe” (Figura 1).

![Figura 1: Número óptimo de clusters e importância dos, possíveis, preditores](image)

Quando aplicamos a regressão logística binária, nas condições descritas anteriormente, obtivemos um modelo (em 4 passos) revelando que as variáveis,

- **Sexo (S)** (βS = 0,679; $\chi^2_{Wald}(1) = 24,72; p\text{-value} = 0,001$ e Odd rácio = 1,972),

- **Ciclo de Estudos (CE)** (βCE = -0,751; $\chi^2_{Wald}(1) = 11,78; p\text{-value} = 0,001$ e Odd rácio = 0,472),

- **Ter amigos próximos que pratiquem Golfe (S3_b)** (βS3_b = 0,450; $\chi^2_{Wald}(1) = 9,36; p\text{-value} = 0,002$ e Odd rácio = 1,569), e

- **Não conhecer ninguém que pratique Golfe (S3_c)** (βS3_c = 0,981; $\chi^2_{Wald}(1) = 6,139; p\text{-value} = 0,013$ e Odd rácio = 2,668)
apresentam um efeito estatisticamente significativo sobre o Logit da probabilidade de Já jogou/praticou Golfe de acordo com o modelo Logit ajustado ($G^2(4) = 47,58$ e $p$-value < 0,001; $\chi^2_{\text{Wald}} (3) = 2,212$; $p$-value = 0,530; $R^2_{CS} = 0,035$; $R^2_{N} = 0,054$).

A Tabela 1 resume os coeficientes do modelo e a sua significância:

Tabela 1: Coeficientes Logit do modelo de regressão logística da variável Fatores situacionais quanto à prática do Golfe em função do Sexo, Ciclo de estudos, Ter amigos próximos que pratiquem Golfe e Não conhecer ninguém que pratique Golfe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% C.I.for EXP(B)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S(1)</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>24,721</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1,972</td>
<td>1,509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE(1)</td>
<td>-.751</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>11,776</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3_b(1)</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>9,362</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>1,569</td>
<td>1,176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3_c(1)</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>6,139</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>2,668</td>
<td>1,228</td>
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<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2,017</td>
<td>.454</td>
<td>19,702</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nestas condições, a probabilidade de ter jogado/praticado Golfe (Y=1) aumenta exponencialmente com o género (em particular quando se trata do género masculino) e com o facto de se ter amigos, ou conhecidos, que já pratiquem Golfe, diminuindo com o ciclo de estudos em que está matriculado (possivelmente devido à idade, ao status, à condição perante o trabalho e, até, a disponibilidade de tempo (menor quando se frequenta uma licenciatura devido à carga horária).

Relativamente à secção 4, fatores considerados fundamentais para a prática do Golfe, foram obtidos 4 clusters óptimos com Average Silhouette igual a 0,4 (Razoável), indicando a existência de uma distância de separação razoável entre os clusters, considerando-se que todos os itens dentro dos mesmos são estatisticamente significativos (p-value < 0,05). Pelo critério da importância do preditor, os 4 factores considerados mais importantes são “Reduz o stress”, “Contacto com a natureza”, “Boa forma de passar o tempo com os amigos e/ou família” e “Bom para os negócios” (Figura 2).
Quando aplicamos a regressão logística binária, obtivemos um modelo (em 4 passos) revelando que as variáveis,

**Sexo (S)** ($\beta_S = 0,642$; $\chi^2_{Wald (1)} = 22,05$; p-value $= 0,001$ e Odd rácio $= 1,900$),

**Ciclo de Estudos (CE)** ($\beta_{CE} = -0,733$; $\chi^2_{Wald (1)} = 11,20$; p-value $= 0,001$ e Odd rácio $= 0,480$),

**Carrinhos de Golfe (S4_j)** ($\beta_{S4_j} = 0,402$; $\chi^2_{Wald (1)} = 4,11$; p-value $= 0,043$ e Odd rácio $= 1,495$), e

**Aprendizagem (S4_k)** ($\beta_{S4_k} = 0,441$; $\chi^2_{Wald (1)} = 4,627$; p-value $= 0,031$ e Odd rácio $= 1,554$) apresentam um efeito estatisticamente significativo sobre o Logit da probabilidade de Já jogou/praticou Golfe de acordo com o modelo Logit ajustado ($G^2(4) = 43,75$ e p-value $< 0,001$; $\chi^2_{Wald (5)} = 7,049$; p-value $= 0,217$; $R^2_{CS} = 0,032$; $R^2_{N} = 0,050$). A Tabela 2 resume os coeficientes do modelo e a sua significância.

Tabela 2: Coeficientes **Logit** do modelo de regressão logística da variável Fatores situacionais quanto à prática do Golfe em função do Sexo, Ciclo de estudos, Carrinhos de Golfe e Aprendizagem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>B</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% C.I. for EXP(B)</th>
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<td>Lower</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S(1)</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>22,045</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1,900</td>
<td>1,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE(1)</td>
<td>-.733</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>11,202</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4_j(1)</td>
<td>.402</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>4,111</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.043</td>
<td>1,495</td>
<td>1,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4_k(1)</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>.205</td>
<td>4,627</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>1,554</td>
<td>1,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1,649</td>
<td>.327</td>
<td>25,375</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Deste modo, a probabilidade de ter jogado/praticado Golfe (Y=1) aumenta exponencialmente com o género (de novo, e em particular, quando se trata do género masculino), por haver Carrinhos de transporte do material necessário à prática do Golfe e pelo facto de envolver aprendizagem (a resolução de novas situações em cada nova jogada será um desafio), diminuindo, tal como na secção 4, com o ciclo de estudos em que está matriculado (pelas, possíveis, razões apresentadas anteriormente).

Relativamente à secção 5, e fundamental, Razões para a falta de atratividade da Prática do Golfe em alunos do Ensino Superior, foram obtidos 2 clusters óptimos com Average Silhouette igual a 0,4 (Razoável), indicando, também, a existência de uma distância de separação razoável entre os clusters, considerando-se que todos os itens dentro dos mesmos são estatisticamente significativos (p-value < 0,05). Pelo critério da importância do preditor, os 4 factores considerados mais importantes são “Preço do jogo/campos”, “Preço do equipamento”, “Tudo” e “Ausência de amigos na prática de Golfe” (Figura 3).

Figura 3: Número óptimo de clusters e importância dos, possíveis, preditores

Quando aplicamos a regressão logística binária, obtivemos um modelo (em 5 passos) revelando que as variáveis,

Género (S) (βS = 0,625; $\chi^2_{Wald} (1) = 20,59$; p-value = 0,001 e Odd rácio = 1,868),
Ciclo de Estudos (CE) (βCE = -0,818; $\chi^2_{Wald} (1) = 13,61$; p-value = 0,001 e Odd rácio = 0,441),
Preço do Jogo/campos (S5_a) (βS5_a = 0,682; $\chi^2_{Wald} (1) = 23,494$; p-value = 0,001 e Odd rácio = 1,977),
Ausência de comunicação/informação (S5_j) (βS5_j = 0,519; $\chi^2_{Wald} (1) = 4,056$; p-value = 0,044 e Odd rácio = 1,681),
Tudo (S5_n) (βS5_n = 1,002; $\chi^2_{Wald} (1) = 8,680$; p-value = 0,003 e Odd rácio = 2,725)
apresentam um efeito estatisticamente significativo sobre o Logit da probabilidade de Já jogou/praticou Golfe de acordo com o modelo Logit ajustado ($G^2(5) = 66,98$ e p-value < 0,001; $\chi_{Wald}^2(5) = 1,167$; p-value = 0,948; $R^2_{CS} = 0,049$; $R^2_N = 0,076$).

A Tabela 3 resume os coeficientes do modelo e a sua significância:

Tabela 3: Coeficientes Logit do modelo de regressão logística da variável Fatores situacionais quanto à prática do Golfe em função do Sexo, Ciclo de estudos, Preço do jogo/campos, Ausência de comunicação/informação e Tudo.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 5</th>
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<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% C.I.for EXP(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S(1)</td>
<td>.625</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>20,586</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1,868</td>
<td>1,426 - 2,446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE(1)</td>
<td>-.818</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>13,609</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>.286 - .682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5_a(1)</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>23,494</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1,977</td>
<td>1,501 - 2,604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5_j(1)</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>4,056</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>1,681</td>
<td>1,014 - 2,785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5_n(1)</td>
<td>1,002</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>8,680</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>2,725</td>
<td>1,399 - 5,308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2,547</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>30,463</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Deste modo, verificamos que a probabilidade de ter jogado/praticado Golfe (Y=1) aumenta exponencialmente com o género (variável presente em todos os modelos), pelo preço do jogo/campos, pela ausência de comunicação/informação e por todos os factores considerados na questão, diminuindo, tal como nas restantes situações consideradas, com o ciclo de estudos em que está matriculado.

Conclusões e implicações estratégicas

Os resultados ainda que exploratórios confirmam investigações anteriores. O golfe é um desporto altamente masculinizado (Reis e Correia, 2013), eminentemente social (Correia e Kozak, 2012), percebido como um desporto pouco acessível em termos económicos (Correia e Kozak, 2012) que carece de mais e melhor promoção (Pereira, Correia e Schultz, 2014), elementos, que a serem revertidos, podem tornar este desporto mais atrativo aos jovens.
Referências Bibliográficas


**Motivações de escolha de um Festival de Música**

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**Introduction**

O turismo é o maior causador de riqueza e empregabilidade a nível mundial, sendo este o motor económico das economias desenvolvidas e em desenvolvimentos no mundo (Rita, 2000).

Quando o turismo e os eventos musicais se associam, Connell e Gibson (2004) afirmam que o turismo relacionado com a música, estratifica um tipo de turista, sendo estes, segundo Forga e Valiente (2014), um tipo de turista mais exigente e experiente, que tem em conta características relativamente aos produtos culturais, que satisfazem os seus interesses e as suas necessidades particulares, que não acontece quando se trata de turismo massificado.

Segundo o (INE, 2016), no ano 2015, Portugal registou 28.466 sessões de espetáculos ao vivo, totalizando 12,5 milhões de espectadores com uma receita de 59,6 milhões de euros. Dentro deste leque de espetáculos ao vivo, os concertos de música rock/pop registaram o maior número de espectadores (2,4 milhões) e consequentemente originaram o maior número de receitas (25,4 milhões de euros). Contudo, os estudos relativamente à exploração do mercado dos concertos de música e dos festivais é escassa (Oakes, 2003). A parte organizadora dos eventos tem de se esforçar mais para perceber os motivos dos visitantes, com vista a projectar melhores produtos e serviços, isto porque a satisfação está intrinsecamente ligada a estes motivos, que por sua vez influenciam a decisão final (Crompton e McKay, 1997). Oakes (2003) explica também que este aumento no investimento da investigação, proporciona uma maior visibilidade por parte dos patrocinadores, facto que tem vindo a ser cada vez mais importante para o financiamento dos eventos e que naturalmente trará um aumento significativo no que toca ao crescimento da diversidade, sendo que, consequentemente, trará também o aumento do nível de competição (Nicholson e Pearce, 2000), em particular quando os eventos são organizados ou expandidos para promover o turismo e como tal, impulsionar as economias locais (Daniels, 2004).

**Literature Review**

Existem variados conceitos em relação à conceitualização do termo Festivais de Música. Uma das definições mais abrangentes é explicada por Janiske (1980) como períodos formais ou projetos de atividades, entretenimento, de caráter festivo, que por sua vez celebram publicamente um acontecimento, facto ou conceito. Falassi (1987) considera que os festivais são uma celebração da própria comunidade, representando valores fundamentais para a mesma, respeitando a identidade social e a tradição histórica, cingindo o conceito de Manning (1983) que os considera uma performance de símbolos culturais. Dada a importância da comunidade e dos seus símbolos, Turner (1982) defende que a construção da identidade local pode também ser ela aliciada aos festivais, i.e., os festivais podem ser considerados mais uma ferramenta de construção de identidade social, visto que estes são uma celebração social em grupo que pode
constituir um momento de comemoração da própria comunidade. Devido a esta preocupação histórica e cultural, o sucesso dos festivais prende-se mais ao entusiasmo das comunidades locais e da capacidade da organização, do que à riqueza natural e construções feitas no local onde este se realiza (Getz, 1997). Todavia, Berland (1992) explica que devido à desmaterialização e desterritorialização da produção, distribuição e consumo de certo tipo de culturas, a organização de artes performativas, depende em muito de espaços e locais particulares, mesmo que organizada numa perspetiva nacional, embora com frequências cada vez mais internacionais. Contudo, a escolha do local pode não ser sempre a mais estratégicamente indicada, visto que segundo Fernández (2010), uma das formas de apoio do governo local a este tipo de eventos como forma de gerar riqueza e desenvolvimento à região, além de apoio financeiro, aparece através da cedência de espaços, divergindo assim o foco estratégico do local do festival. Relativamente à duração dos mesmos, Abreu (2004) diz que se concentram num espaço de tempo reduzido, geralmente delimitado com uma vasta programação musical. Estes festivais apresentam-se de diferentes formas no que respeita ao tipo de evento, i.e., podem possuir um carater sagrado e profano, privado ou público, tradicional ou inovador, onde se propõem a um conjunto de experiências nostálgicas e a celebração da experiência das mais variadas artes performativas (Falassi, 1987).

É de enaltecer que o embora os festivais sejam organizados numa perspetiva nacional, estes captam cada vez mais as atenções dos visitantes internacionais (Berland, 1992), justificando assim o crescimento significativo que tem existido no turismo musical (Gibson & Connell, 2007). Como exemplo, nos EUA, 17% da industria do turismo é baseada na música (Gibson & Connell, 2007), sendo que os festivais de música em particular auferiram uma força perante o público nunca antes vista, atraindo milhares de fãs (Schwartz, 2013).

Getz (2012) explica que o turismo de eventos (incluindo o turismo musical), é uma área de estudo globalmente significativa para a economia, onde um ano mais tarde, o autor (Getz, 2013) conclui que este tem de ser então estudado por referência ao lado da perspetiva da oferta. Getz (2012) define assim o turismo de ventos ao nível do destino como um desenvolvimento e comercialização de eventos planeados com atrações turísticas, catalisadores, animadores, criadores de imagem e impulsionadores do comércio local. Pondo isto, a licitação, facilitação, criação de eventos e a gestão de portfólios de eventos passam a ser ativos do destino. No que toca a eventos individuais, o turismo de eventos passa a tomar uma orientação de marketing como estratégia de captação de turistas ao local, sendo por vezes um segmento adicional ou, em alguns casos, o core business da organização. Quando o core business são os turistas, são criados assim os “destination events”, que quando analisado do lado da procura, o turismo de eventos passa a referir-se à propensão de viajar para participar em eventos, sejam eles turistas que viajam com vista a um evento específico ou turistas que aproveitam o facto de estar a viajar, para participar num evento (Getz, 2013).

Getz (1991) explica que o crescimento do turismo de eventos tem suscitado algum interesse, embora insuficiente, mas emergente, sobre os frequentadores de eventos. O mesmo autor, no contexto da motivação, explica que embora se tenha escrito muito sobre necessidades humanas básicas, existe uma necessidade de explorar também a motivação que leva alguém a frequentar eventos. Lundberg (1990) realça o problema da reduzida importância que se tem dado ao tema, apesar do seu papel central estar diretamente ligado ao processo de decisão e às razões pelas quais as pessoas viajam com determinado objetivo.

Crompton e McKay (1997) identificam três razões inter-relacionadas pelas quais o estudo da motivação nos eventos é importante: i) é uma ferramenta para a conceção de melhores produtos e serviços; ii) está intrinsecamente ligada à satisfação; iii) é um indicador essencial para entender a tomada de decisão dos visitantes.
Crompton (1979) constrói um modelo conceitual à volta de sete domínios sociopsicológicos motivacionais: Novidade; Sociabilidade; Prestígio; Descanso; Educação; Reforço de relações; Nostalgia.

Methodology

O presente estudo adota uma metodologia quantitativa, por suporte a um questionário aplicado a uma amostra por conveniência da população portuguesa, com o objetivo de perceber as motivações que levam o turista musical a preferir um determinado festival de música em comparação aos demais existentes em Portugal. Os resultados do estudo pretendem caracterizar e categorizar as motivações presentes no adepto de festivais de música como fator de escolha preferencial de um festival.

São várias as vantagens da amostra de conveniência, sendo elas a facilidade da realização da mesma, embora com algumas regras administrativas na recolha dos dados; O custo e o tempo necessários para a realização da amostra de conveniência é relativamente pequeno comparativamente com aos métodos de amostragem probabilística; Utilizando a amostra de conveniência, é possível a recolha de dados uteis e informações, onde a técnica de amostragem probabilística não seria capaz de atuar.

As desvantagens passam pela probabilidade de uma sub-representação ou uma sobre representação de grupos em particular dentro da amostra e devido à mesma não ser escolhida ao acaso, onde consequentemente o próprio preconceito da amostra decorre de uma improbidade da amostra ser representativa da população em estudo.

Relativamente à recolha e tratamento de dados, o questionário foi desenvolvido com o objetivo de recolher dados de turistas musicais em Portugal com vista a compreender as motivações como fator de escolha de um festival de música. Criado no programa online Google Forms, programa este que apresenta todas as ferramentas para a recolha, gestão e controlo dos dados, além da sua simplicidade.

O questionário foi divulgado através do Facebook, em páginas temáticas sobre festivais de música e música em geral. Além disso, foi divulgado através de contacto direto via mensagem privada na mesma plataforma. Através desta rede social foram recolhidos 906 questionários.

A aplicação da ACP ao conjunto de dados disponível foi analisada pela observação da estatística de Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin, (KMO) e pelo teste de esfericidade de Bartlett onde é testada a hipótese nula da matriz. De forma a ajudar a interpretação das componentes retidas procedeu-se à sua rotação. O método de rotação eleito é o Método Varimax. Após a análise dos pesos da matriz de componentes rodadas, foi atribuída uma designação às dimensões obtidas, tendo por base os atributos com peso mais distinto em cada dimensão. Dimensões que foram posteriormente submetidas a um conjunto de testes não paramétricos para avaliar a heterogeneidade das percepções em função do perfil sociodemográfico da amostra.

Quanto à caracterização da amostra, a mesma compreende 906 observações que refletem as características dos residentes. Liderada sobretudo pelas mulheres (69,2%), apresenta-se uma amostra principalmente residente em Lisboa (40,5%), em Coimbra (20,8%) e no Porto (9,2%), com um grau académico superior (74,5%) e majoritariamente estudante a tempo inteiro (42,5%).
Results
Com este estudo pretende-se derivar os fatores motivacionais que influenciam o comportamento de compra de festivais, por forma a clarificar o conceito turístico de festival. Utiliza-se nesta primeira fase análises exploratórias de dados com o objetivo de perceber o arquétipo motivacional que modera a decisão do turista musical.

Conclusion and Implications
Este estudo pretende por um lado contribuir teoricamente para a percepção dos elementos que facilitam a ida a festivais e posicionar este produto como um elemento diferenciados na animação turística dum local assim como perceber as motivações que levam um festivaleiro a comprar um determinado festival de musica.

References
Getz, D., (1997); Event management and event tourism, Cognizant Communication, Nova Iorque.


