Tourism engagement: co-creating well-being

Proceedings of the 6th Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference, Joensuu, Finland, 8.-10.9.2015
Preface

The 6th Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference (ATMC) takes place in Joensuu, Finland, on September 8-10, 2015. Hosted by University of Eastern Finland it features the latest research on tourism marketing with special focus on engaging consumers in the co-creation of well-being. ATMC aims to bring together researchers, PhD candidates, policy makers and practitioners to provide a forum for the discussion and dissemination of themes related to marketing travel and tourism, and to critically evaluate how they may contribute to advancing knowledge and practices in the field.

The conference theme “Tourism engagement: co-creating well-being” is based on two widely held convictions that have emerged as the practice of tourism matures in the 21st century. Firstly, the wellbeing of tourists, destinations, and operators is paramount. The management of a destination’s competitive advantage must become sustainable, while the tourist deserves the best memorable experiences possible.

Secondly, tourists are maturing and becoming more assertive. They create their own experiences by activating their own networks and resources. They easily find their way around to and from their destination, and have become savvy decision-makers. Smart and Internet technology allow tourists to rebalance the traditional information asymmetry between operator and tourist. Instead, they now turn up at destinations and often know more than the operator, about opportunities, prices, facilities, and competitors.

The first challenge therefore is, what is wellbeing, how is it constructed as a process and a state, for tourist, destination and operator? How does it relate to quality, satisfaction, recreation and happiness? And what does this mean for the development of sustainable practices in the development and management of comparative and competitive advantages?

The second challenge asks, what can tourism operators do to assist tourists in their creation of experiences and how can they become co-creators of value? In other words, how can operators and destination become a valuable and valued part of tourists’ experiences? What are the challenges beyond merely functional facilitation? Although memorable experiences of recreation, self-consolidation, flow, learning and happiness have been identified as the most important benefit of holiday tourism, what is the operator’s role in their construction? For only with true engagement can value be created and shared.

Besides co-creation of well-being, the conference will cover a wide range of topics in tourism marketing from, innovation and service development, to tourist behavior and experiences, from quality management, marketing and branding to e-commerce and ICT, SMEs and community issues. The present proceedings provide a comprehensive overview of current research conducted in the field of tourism marketing.

Altogether 119 submissions were received for the conference. The papers were double-blind reviewed and 72 papers will be presented at the conference. We are grateful for all the authors as well as all the members of the review board, scientific board, local organizing committee and all the partners for helping us to make this conference happen. Support from the Federation of Finnish Learned Societies, Cities of Lieksa and Joensuu, PKO, the Foundation for Economic Education, Josek, and the Foundation of University of Joensuu has helped tremendously in organizing ATMC 2015. This conference would not have been possible without each piece of the puzzle. We hope that everyone enjoys the conference and the visit to Joensuu.

Juho Pesonen & Raija Komppula, Juergen Gnoth & ATMC Scientific Board

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Adventure Campers, Fairy Tale Glampers, and Authenticity

Christie S. Ahn
Michael S. W. Lee
The University of Auckland Business School, Department of Marketing
Auckland, New Zealand
msw.lee@auckland.ac.nz

Introduction
Tourism is a trillion dollar industry that produces substantial economic and employment benefits, increasing the well-being of both host and tourists, in tourism sectors, and related areas such as construction and telecommunications (http://www2.unwto.org/content/why-tourism).

Camping, which involves living in a temporary shelter outdoors, is a popular tourist activity. However, a recent trend, ‘glamping’ (glamorous camping), differs from conventional camping and provokes mixed opinions. It is admired as the perfect combination of nature and luxury, but also criticised as diminishing the authentic values of traditional camping.

Glamping is interesting due to its juxtaposition of the natural and luxurious. In discussing glamping, we also deal with the notion of authenticity since glamping minimizes the rugged outdoorsy features of camping and therefore may be construed by some camping enthusiasts as being ‘inauthentic’. As such, this study aims to understand campers and glampers’ experience of authenticity.

Literature review
Authenticity is the degree to which one is true to one’s internal world (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). It is a multidimensional construct that can be applied in various contexts, which makes it a contentious subject. What is consistent across the literature is that authenticity can be broadly defined as something or someone being ‘real’, ‘genuine’ and ‘true’ (Ewing, Allen, & Ewing, 2012; Grayson & Martinec, 2004).

Consumer researchers have explored authenticity in different contexts, such as wine (Beverland, 2005), biker’s community (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995), white-water rafting (Arnould, Price, & Otnes, 1999), green consumption (Ewing et al., 2012), tourism (Wang, 1999), and camping (Brooker & Joppe, 2013; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Consumers search for authenticity and enhance their personal well-being by resisting the market through events like mountain man rendezvous (Belk and Costa 1998) and Burning Man (Kozinets, 2002). Overall, consumers desire authenticity due to the phoniness prevalent in marketing practices (Grayson & Martinec, 2004), and authenticity is now regarded as a socially constructed concept which can be subjective to individual consumers (Grayson & Martinec, 2004; Rose & Wood, 2005).

Since MacCannell (1973) explored tourist motivations and experiences, authenticity has been a fundamental element in tourism studies (Wang, 1999). Traditionally, authenticity was object-related, with strict and absolute standards determining whether an experience was authentic or not. So, even when tourists believed their experiences were authentic, their experiences could still be considered inauthentic if the toured objects were not original (MacCannell, 1973). In contrast,
socially constructed authenticity argues that it is no longer important if a toured object is “objectively” authentic or not; it is authentic when it corresponds to the tourist's constructed beliefs of what is authentic. In this view, authenticity is not evaluated by objects, but by activities. Many researchers further explore and develop the concept of existential authenticity (Wang, 1999), which is now accepted as the most significant conceptualisation of authenticity in tourism literature (Lew, 2011; Olsen, 2002; Kim & Jamal 2007; Steiner and Reisinger 2006).

Even though camping is a highly co-creative form of tourism that has the potential to enhance the well-being of all those who partake in the activity, it has not yet been studied in relation to authenticity.

**Methods**

Primary data was derived from semi-structured interviews conducted at an office within a large metropolitan University. All interviews (lasting 90-120 minutes) were recorded and transcribed. Fifteen interviews were conducted before reaching theoretical saturation.

The interviews started with a general discussion of the participant's camping (or glamping) trip, and the interviewer probed to gain further information (Neimeyer, Anderson, & Stockton, 2001). Visual props (photos or comments on websites) were used to drive some conversations. Online data from 21 web pages, including various travel review websites were used to compliment primary data.

Thematic analysis was conducted using NVivo 10. Generated themes were then discussed with two qualitative researchers to ensure trustworthiness (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001).

**Results**

Figure 1 summarises our findings. First, campers and glampers are not two distinct groups, but rather, consist of outdoorsy holiday makers occupying a continuum from extreme bush craft enthusiasts to extravagant glampers. Second, nature and escapism are two vital elements in campers’ and glampers’ experiences of authenticity. Third, their differing relationships with nature lead to contrasting modes of escapism, and therefore two pathways to authenticity. As figure 1 indicates, campers experience nature as “interactors” and escape through an “adventure”, while glampers do so as “spectators”, escaping through a “fairy tale”.
FIGURE 1.
SEARCH FOR AUTHENTICITY IN CAMPING AND GLAMPING

EXPERIENCING NATURE as an INTERACTOR

“ADVENTURE” ESCAPISM

SELF-DEVELOPMENT
AUTONOMY
CHALLENGING

PRIMITIVITY
RELAXATION
SIMPLICITY

AUTHENTICITY
BROADER PERSPECTIVE
TRUE TO SELF

LUXURY

“FAIRY TALE” ESCAPISM
EXCLUSIVITY
ENCHANTMENT

CAMPING

Continuum

GLAMPING

EXPERIENCING NATURE as a SPECTATOR

Discussion and Conclusions

Campers: Experiencing nature as an interactor

Campers experience nature as a co-creative participant; they are fully immersed in nature and are not afraid to experience the good and bad aspects of nature. For them, even the rugged side of nature adds to their experience.

“Adventure” Escapism

Being close to nature leads campers to two outcomes: Self-Development and Primitivity. Through their experience, campers escape their everyday life in an “Adventure” like fashion. They are fully immersed in nature and face challenging experiences in a co-creative quest for authenticity.

Self-Development

Many interviewees spoke about self-development in camping. Campers are independent, making decisions; from planning, getting to the destination, pitching the tent, preparing meals and so on. Through these activities, campers attain a sense of autonomy. Compared to glamping where the itinerary is often pre-determined.

Through decision making and organising, campers become self-reliant and independent. Being away from the comforts of everyday life provides opportunities for challenging experiences. Thus, by camping in a traditional way and ‘interacting’ with nature, campers achieve a sense of self-development, resulting in an authentic experience.

Primitivity

Traditional camping is based on the quest for primitivity (Canniford and Shankar, 2013). Being close to nature and pursuing primitivity allows respondents to enjoy a simpler and more relaxed lifestyle. One of our interviewees (Beth) suggests that primitive nature forces her to ‘detach’ or escape from her hyper-connected everyday life, thus, allowing her to ‘be’ rather than ‘do’.

Beth: I think that’s one of the beautiful things about it, there’s no pressure to do anything. You just kind of, be. .. When I am around the internet and I’m around my phone, I’m attached to it and it is kind of nice to have that forced detachment...

Glampers: Experiencing nature as a spectator

One important difference between glamping and traditional camping is luxury. With luxury added, glampers differ in the way they perceive and experience nature. Compared to campers who are “interactors”, glampers are “spectators” of nature. Glampers appreciate nature just as campers do; except glampers desire the spectacle of nature without the hardship. This arrangement is only possible with the addition of luxury, as indicated by Figure 1. Such luxury enables glampers to have “front row seats” as authentic “spectators” of nature.

“Fairy Tale” Escapism

Glampers experience authenticity by escaping everyday life and being pampered like royalty. Glamping embodies a fantasy world; it is a perfect place with great scenery, delicious food, discerning service, and comfort. They become VIPs who have access to the best viewpoint; without exposure to the harsher elements of nature. Therefore, glampers experience nature through a kind of “Fairy Tale” escapism.

Exclusivity

As a result, glampers achieve an authentic sense of exclusivity from a glamping trip, as evidenced by the following quote where glampers were kept separate from ordinary tourists.

Liz: Everyone else gets picked up from the airport on the coach which takes them to the hotel, but if you’re glamping, they pick you up in helicopter and they fly you there...the people (staying at the resort) who go to the dinner got coach but people
who are glamping will ride the camel, so you are kept separate... you don’t mix with the poor people (laughs).

**Enchantment**

In addition to exclusivity, another important aspect of glamping is enchantment. Glamping revolves around a fantastical scenario where the raw spectacle of nature is magically transformed, via luxury, into a more palatable and accessible experience. In this regard, those seeking a glamping experience are both protected from the negative aspects of nature and mainstream tourism, and also privy to an enchanted experience analogous to floating on Aladdin’s magic carpet, being transported in a magical pumpkin coach, or residing in Princess Elsa’s mystical ice castle. This Disneyesque sub theme situates glampers’ experiences within the realm of mythic fairy tales, where the protagonist often encounters a sense of enchantment.

**Escapism and Authenticity**

Many interviewees suggest that their “escape” from everyday life gives them a meaningful and “authentic” experience. Away from the mundane, they have time to relax and reflect about their lives. In choosing a voluntary experience that is in line with their desires and ideals, both campers and glampers have an authentic experience that is “true to self”. Furthermore, being away from what they are accustomed to and experiencing the grandness of nature helps both groups to see things in a “broader perspective”. This is also an authenticity experience as their attention extends from a micro self-centred focus to a macro global one.

Overall, this research explores how campers and glampers find authenticity through their experiences. First, nature is an important element for both campers and glampers, as it distinguishes them from other type of tourists. Second, escaping into nature, and away from everyday life, enables campers and glampers to have authentic experiences. However, despite these similarities, campers and glampers experience two very different types of escapism. Traditional campers escape their mundane life and embark on a quest for authenticity through an adventure like interactive tale of self-development and primitivity; whereas glamper’s long for an exclusive and enchanted fairy tale escape that is facilitated with the help of luxury.

**References**


Image analysis of a tourist destination: Malaga, Spain

Fernando Almeida-García
Janire Domínguez-Azkue
University of Malaga, Spain
falmeida@uma.es

Introduction

The destination image is multidimensional in nature and the knowledge the individuals have of the destination and also their personal traits and opinions play an important role in it. Therefore, it is a complex construction in which the different information sources are decisive. Thus, the destination image plays a key role in both marketing and tourism location.

The city of Malaga, located in Southern Spain, lies on the Costa del Sol (Coast of the Sun), a tourist area largely identified with seaside tourism. In recent years Malaga city has been trying to distance itself from the “sun and sand” tourism segment and it has chosen to position itself as a cultural destination (Diario Sur, 2014; The New York Times, 2015). In this regard, the effectiveness of the image of Malaga differentiated from a seaside destination image is analysed in the present study.

The main objective of this research is to perform an analysis of the current image of the city and of the target one. A detailed study of the obtained results will enable us to take a close look at the tourists’ attitudes towards Malaga city and it will provide us with information to improve or design new differentiation strategies. This is the first academic study on Malaga’s destination image.

Malaga is a Spanish municipality in Andalusia and it is located, as already mentioned, in the Costa del Sol, beside the Mediterranean Sea. The city had 566,913 inhabitants (2014) and an accommodation supply of 9,598 bed places and nearly one million of tourists (2013). We decided to focus the research on Malaga city, on the Costal del Sol, Spain, a traditionally touristic place which in the recent years is trying to specialize in urban and cultural tourism.

Literature review

Since mid-1970s destination image has been studied but it still remains open to a further study and debate. The assessment and analysis of the destination image has been studied in academic literature and it has contributed to the understanding of tourist behaviour (Beerli & Martin, 2004). The complexity of the destination image concept has been studied from diverse scientific fields, such as psychology (Hanyu, 1993), anthropology, sociology, geography or marketing (Gallarza, Gil&Calderón, 2002), besides tourism (Baloglu&McCleary, 1999). The study of destination image has been a significant contribution to understanding the behavior of tourists (Beerli&Martin, 2004), and Hunt (1975) was one of the first to demonstrate its importance due to its ability to increase the number of tourists visiting a destination. According to a recent literature review carried out by Zhang Fu, Cai and Lu (2014), most of the studies on destination image have focused on the cognitive image, but at the same time, in recent years the number of studies focused on the affective image is increasing. In addition, some authors (Bosque&Martin, 2008; Morais&Lin, 2010) believe that both cognitive and affective components are equally important and influential in creating a destination image, so they have decided to focus their researches on a model that brings together both components, as it is made in the present research.
The hypotheses proposed in the current research are the following:
H1: The preconceived image of the tourist destination is a multidimensional concept composed of several dimensions, including cognitive and affective assessments.
H2: Individuals who have been to Malaga have a more positive image of the city compared to those who have not travelled to Malaga.
H3: Rest and relaxation are the main reasons for travelling to Malaga city rather than cultural or social motivations.
H4: Malaga does not have a distinguished image from the “sun and sand” tourism segment associated with the Costa del Sol.

Methods and materials
In the current research a descriptive and inferential analysis of the results has been made, as well as a comparative analysis between two groups – nationals and foreigners – in order to enable a comparison of the different opinions among them. Moreover, a factor analysis of the cognitive and affective components of the destination image has been conducted.

This study is based on the questionnaires on the destination image previously developed by other authors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; San Martín, 2005). The survey is addressed to those who have visited Malaga before and to those who have never been to the city and, as stated previously, sample of foreign nationality has been collected: from America and from other European countries. These respondents have not been randomly selected but by incidental sampling. The surveys were undertaken over a short period of time – from 14 April to 28 April, 2014 – and were distributed both on paper and online for those geographically dispersed. 301 valid responses were achieved.

The questions in the survey were divided into four categories: (i) questions on socio-demographic variables, (ii) questions on the cognitive component of the destination image, (iii) on the affective component and (iv) on the motivational component. A 61-item self-report questionnaire has been designed and all items were measured by a five-point Likert-type scale. We have used SPSS v.20 to process and analyse the data collected. First, a descriptive analysis of the variables and the result has been contacted. After that, an inferential analysis has been carried out using the non-parametric test of Mann-Whitney and finally, a factorial analysis with VARIMAX rotation and Kaiser Normalization.

Results
According to data obtained these are the main results of the research:

Descriptive analysis
(i) The visit to the city. This question is important to create the profiles of the visitors and tourists and we found out that 49.5% of respondents have travelled to Malaga. (ii) The sources of information (graphic 1) from which respondents have obtained information about the city or about tourist products related to the city. Most respondents claim to have no information about the city of Malaga and those who do have some kind of information they obtain it from family and friends and from the Internet in third place. This statement could respond to a weak positioning of the destination, especially in America.
(iii) **Tourism products associated with Malaga.** Respondents associated the city of Malaga with the “sun and sand” tourism, followed some way behind by gastronomic and wine tourism and even further by cultural and heritage tourism. The comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney Test) only points out a statistically significant difference between those who have travelled to the city and those who have never been to Malaga, for the “sun and sand” segment: those who have been to the city associate even more the city with this segment than those who have never travelled to Malaga.

**Analysis of the components of the image**

The cognitive and affective components of the target image of the city of Malaga have been analysed. To that end, we have followed the steps used before: a comprehensive descriptive analysis and a comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney test).

(i) **Cognitive component.** The climate in Malaga is highly appreciated by respondents, (graphic 2) as well as the nightlife and the hospitality of the residents. The lowest scores are for the non-polluted environment and for seeing Malaga as a city in fashion or a city which transmits modernity.

![Figure 1. Average rating for the sources of information](image)

![Figure 2. Average rating for the attributes of the cognitive component](image)

After application of the Mann-Whitney test, statistically significant differences are revealed. Travellers who have visited Malaga have a more positive assessment of almost all the attributes of the city that those who have not travelled to the city before.
(ii) Regarding the **affective component**, measured by a semantic differential based on a five-point Likert-type scale (graphic 3), the results show that all factors are evaluated more positively than negatively. Malaga is considered, in the first place, as a pleasant destination and the consideration of Malaga as an exciting city has obtained the lowest results. The Mann-Whitney test has been applied again in order to verify the differences between the two groups already mentioned. A significant difference has been found in the “boring-amusing” variable and in the “unpleasant-pleasant” one. In both cases respondents who have already travelled to Malaga have given a higher score compared to those who have never been to the city.

![Figure 3. Affective component](image)

Then, a factor analysis of these components (cognitive and affective) has been conducted, in order to identify possible underlying dimensions of perception in the set of attributes. This factor analysis of the components is used to reduce the large amount of data, by grouping together those attributes related to each other under the same dimension. For this purpose, the VARIMAX method of rotation with Kaiser Normalization has been used. Once the rotation is completed, the significant factors which explain at least one variable have been selected. Thus, among the 24 displayed attributed (Table 1), we have obtained five different factors which explain 53.42% of variance using factor analysis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C12 Malaga is a great place to</td>
<td>0,354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>go shopping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C15 Malaga is the perfect</td>
<td>0,536</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>place for hosting meetings or</td>
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<td>workshops</td>
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<tr>
<td>C16 Malaga is a place that</td>
<td>0,750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>transmits modernity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C17 Malaga has good accommodation</td>
<td>0,594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infrastructures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C18 Malaga is a trendy place</td>
<td>0,640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C19 Malaga has a good</td>
<td>0,676</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>development of the general</td>
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<tr>
<td>infrastructures (transport,</td>
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<td>access roads, connections,</td>
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<td>health, security, etc.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C20 Malaga has a wide variety</td>
<td>0,595</td>
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<tr>
<td>of scheduled events and</td>
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<td>activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>C2 Malaga has an attractive</td>
<td>0,737</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>local cuisine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C3 Malaga has a diversity of</td>
<td>0,601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>attractions close to the city</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C4 Malaga has very interesting</td>
<td>0,687</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>historical and cultural places</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C6 Malaga has an unique tradition</td>
<td>0,478</td>
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<td>and way of life</td>
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<td>C11 Malaga has an interesting</td>
<td>0,515</td>
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<td>urban landscape</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C14 Malaga offers cultural</td>
<td>0,674</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>activities of great interest</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>A1 Boring_ amusing</td>
<td>0,561</td>
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<tr>
<td>A2 Stressful_ relaxing</td>
<td>0,695</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3 Depressing_ exciting</td>
<td>0,688</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>A4 Unpleasnat_ Pleasent</td>
<td>0,677</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C1 Residents in Malaga are</td>
<td>0,466</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>hospitable and friendly</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C9 Malaga has an attractive</td>
<td>0,648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>nightlife and entertainment</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C10 Malaga has a good</td>
<td>0,683</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality-to-price ratio</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C13 Malaga has a good weather</td>
<td>0,690</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C5 Malaga has an unpolluted /</td>
<td>0,686</td>
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<tr>
<td>non-congested environment</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C7 Malaga offers personal safety</td>
<td>0,548</td>
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<tr>
<td>C8 Malaga presents</td>
<td>0,646</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>proper cleaning and general</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hygiene</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Variance</td>
<td>13,293</td>
<td>13,256</td>
<td>9,483</td>
<td>9,384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Accumulated</td>
<td>13,293</td>
<td>26,549</td>
<td>36,032</td>
<td>45,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α Cronbach</td>
<td>0,805</td>
<td>0,808</td>
<td>0,694</td>
<td>0,671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of items</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One the analysis has been conducted, we observe that the indicators that demonstrate the validity of the analysis (Bartlett test and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin coefficient) show satisfactory results. Factor 1 groups the attributes associated with infrastructure and fashion, Factor 2 brings together the attributes related to the cultural environment and the particularity of the destination, Factor 3 is the one which includes the 4 attributes that form the affective image, Factor 4 includes attributes related to lifestyle and day to day aspects and the last one, Factor 5, refers to the atmosphere of the destination that the individuals perceive. This shows that the destination image is multidimensional and that it is formed by a cognitive component,
which can be divided into different dimensions, including clearly a cognitive and an affective component.

(iii) **Motivational component.** This component addressed the factors that would motivate respondents to travel to Malaga. In this latest analysis (graphic 4) significant differences between the two groups are shown. According to the results obtained, people who have already visited Malaga would be more willing to return to the city than those who have never been there. The main reasons which would make them go back to the city would be for relaxing, for adventures or for social grounds. On the other hand, they would not be so willing to return due to reasons related to knowledge, adventure nor to attend special events.

![Figure 4. Motivational component](image)

**Discussion and Conclusions**

The four initial hypotheses are demonstrated.

**Hypothesis 1:** The factor analysis, as well as the other analysis carried out, highlights the multidimensional character of the image of destination.

**Hypothesis 2:** The comparative analysis (Mann-Whitney Test) highlights the different behaviour of the two groups surveyed: Travellers who have visited Malaga have a more positive perception of the destination.

**Hypothesis 3:** The descriptive analysis shows that rest and relaxation is the main reason for travelling to Malaga instead of cultural reasons.

**Hypothesis 4:** The descriptive analysis indicates that the city of Malaga is still identified as a “sun and sand” destination, despite the significant investments made by the destination in the cultural offer.

The results obtained in the current study show that the destination image is a multidimensional phenomenon composed of several dimensions. These dimensions are of a cognitive and affective nature, and even if it is the first one that contributes most to the generation of the overall image of the destination, the affective component emerges clearly as a primary factor in the formation of the image, and the cognitive component also plays an important role when choosing a destination. Therefore, we can say that the perception of the destination is made by the cognitive assessments of the individuals on the characteristics of the destination and, at the same time, by their feelings and motivations for this place. These dimensions of perception will be used by tourists to discriminate between tourist destinations and to help them when choosing a place to visit. This statement is consistent with the opinion of those authors who opt for something more than the cognitive component concerning the destination image, since the perception of individuals plays a key role (Baloglu, 2000).
References
Profile of residents: Attitude towards tourism in Benalmádena (Costa del Sol, Spain)

Fernando Almeida-García
Rafael Cortés-Macías
María Ángeles Peláez-Fernández
Antonia Balbuena-Vázquez
University of Málaga, Spain
falmeida@uma.es

Introduction

Tourism development and evolution along the time causes multiple impacts. Based on characteristic profiles of resident, these impacts may be assessed differently. The attitude of residents and the identification of profiles is a tool that allows to asses the status of destination and propose future strategies for improving the destination. This study aims to analyse the role of residents regarding the perception of tourism.

Benalmádena is a Spanish municipality in the province of Málaga, in Andalusia region. It is located on the Costa del Sol, about 22 km southwest of the provincial capital. Benalmádena belongs to the metropolitan area of Málaga and the Costa del Sol. Benalmádena had 66,939 inhabitants in 2014. It is the eighth largest city in the province.

Literature review
The term "impact of tourism" has gained importance in the tourist literature. The assessment of these impacts can be done through the review of residents. In recent years numerous studies have examined the attitudes and perceptions of residents of the impact of tourism development in their community. The main reason for the growing interest in this type of study has been to consider that tourism development has positive and negative effects in local levels (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Lankford & Howard, 1994). Likewise, there are other reasons for this growing interest in understanding the attitudes of residents to the impacts of tourism (Akis, et al., 1996; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Chen, 2000; Gutiérrez, 2010; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Landford, 1994; Liu & Var, 1986; Long et al., 1990; Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012); some of these reasons are: negative attitudes among residents which could be a handicap in the development and sustainability in tourism destinations (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Butler, 1980; Diedrich & Garcia, 2009; Harrill, 2004; Sirakaya et al., 2002). The success of this industry depends on the attractions and hospitality of local residents (Gursoy, et al., 2002). This behaviour could be a factor to restrain the tourism sector, through hostile behaviour towards tourists; or otherwise a friendly attitude could support tourism development. Generally, tourists tend to be reluctant to visit places where they do not feel welcome, that is, there is nothing more important for travellers than the way how they are treated by residents; and if not accepted, they will avoid visiting such places (Diedrich & García, 2009).

The study of the attitudes of residents in relation to the impacts of tourism development has been investigated reaching some consensus that groups them: economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts (Andereck et al., 2005; Diaz, 2010; Gursoy et al, 2002; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004). Some research has focused on analysing these categories in relation to the attitude of residents and other studies such as this one focus on the search for a set of variables that help identify a profile of the resident.

To the best of knowledge, no studies have yet explored the profile of residents in Benalmádena and their attitudes towards tourism and its impacts on economy, environment, and culture using a large stratified and representative sample. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the characteristics of residents and their perception of environmental, socio-cultural and economic impact of tourism Benalmádena.

**Methods and materials**

We have designed a 39-item self-report questionnaire. All items were measure on five-point Likert-type scale. Prior to the main survey, a pilot survey was conducted with 50 residents to avoid ambiguity and enhancing survey clarity. The questionnaire included socio-demographic questions (e.g. age, gender, place of birth, marital status, years of residents, having children, education level, social participation and type of work) and an attitude scale consisting of series of items that asses the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental impacts of tourism (Table 1). The items of attitude scale were prepared based on the literature on resident's attitudes towards the impacts of tourism. We have used Pearson Correlation and SPSS, v.19.0 to analyse questionnaire data. Pearson’s correlation and ANOVA tests were conducted.

We carried out a case study for the city of Benalmadena, Costa del Sol. This town is representative of a mature tourist destination. The main data come from interviews and statistical sources of national and regional tourism.

The sample consisted of 770 residents in Benalmádena. Participants were selected using stratified random sampling. The Benalmádena population was stratified proportionally according to: population composition (native or immigrant), gender, and age, on basis of a population of 63,788 in 2011. After classification of population by strata, the sample was affixed in each of them.
Table 1. Questionnaire items corresponding with measured impacts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic impacts</th>
<th>Positive aspects</th>
<th>Negative aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism is the main economic activity in Benalmádena</td>
<td>Tourism increases the price of housing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More roads and urbanizations are constructed</td>
<td>Tourism increases the cost of living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism increases employment opportunities</td>
<td>Tourism generates employment instability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Socio-cultural impacts

|                   | Tourism improves the quality of life in Benalmádena | Tourism increases drugs and alcohol |
|                   | There are more theaters, exhibitions with the tourism | Tourism causes more crime |
|                   | Tourism improves public services (health centers, sports, etc.) | Tourism produces more congestion, accidents and parking problems |
|                   | Tourism stimulates our festivals and traditions (Easter, fairs, ...) | Tourism generates loss or change of our festivals and traditions |
|                   | I relate to people who speak Spanish | |
|                   | I relate to Spanish people who speaks my language | |

Environmental impacts

|                   | There are more public gardens and parks due to tourism | Tourism increases pollution, noise, garbage, etc. |
|                   | Tourism has improved and protected the environment | Tourism deteriorate the natural environment |
|                   | | There are too many people in Benalmádena |

Results

According to preliminary analysis these are the main results of research:

Descriptive statistics


Correlations were computed between tourism attitude dimensions and socio-demographic variables (Table 2).

Table 2. Correlations between characteristics of residents, and tourist impact variables
Effects of socio-demographic factors on attitude towards tourism ANOVA tests showed a significant main effect of Age on Environmental Impact ($F_{(3,770)} = 4.21, p < .05$). Attitude towards the effect of tourism on local environment improves progressively with age, with seniors (older than 65) having the best attitude, and youngest residents (under 20) having the worst attitude. Also a significant main effect of Age on Economic Impact was found ($F_{(3,770)} = -2.75; p < .05$). Population under 20 was the age group with better attitude towards the economic impact caused by tourism, whereas those between 45 and 64 showed the worse attitude.

A main effect of Civil status on Socio-cultural Impact was found. Married residents (vs. non-married) reported better perception on the effects of tourism on social life and culture ($F_{(1,770)} = 3.98; p < .05$).

It was found a significant main effect of having children on total attitude ($F_{(3,770)} = 4.52; p < .05$). Residents with children showed a better attitude towards tourism compared to those with no kids.

It was found a significant main effect of Level of studies on Total attitude ($F_{(3,770)} = 8.18; p < .01$). Attitude towards all effects of tourism improves progressively with the level of studies.

ANOVA analysis showed significant differences of Type of work on Economic Impact ($F_{(3,770)} = 3.07; p < .05$). Residents working in induced employment of tourism had the best perception of the impact of tourism on local economy. Those who work in jobs indirectly related to tourism presented the worst perception. ANOVA analysis showed also significant differences ($F_{(3,770)} = 3.16; p < .05$) on Socio-cultural Impact. Post-hoc t test showed that residents working in jobs indirectly related to tourism were the ones with better attitude regarding the tourism impact on social life and culture, whereas those working in non-tourism-related employment had the worst attitude.

Social participation had a significant main effect on Total attitude towards tourism ($F_{(2,770)} = 3.78; p < .05$), with residents participating occasionally in social associations having the best attitude towards tourism and those participating regularly having the worst attitude.
Native condition had a significant main effect on Total attitude towards tourism ($F_{(2,770)} = 11.41; p < .01$), with natives having the worst attitude towards tourism and foreigners having the best attitude.

Years of residence had a significant main effect on Total attitude towards tourism ($F_{(2,770)} = 14.73; p < .01$), with those living for more than ten years in Benalmádena having the worst attitude towards all effects of tourism and those living for less than five years having the best attitude.

A significant interaction of Native condition X Years of residence on Total Attitude was found ($F_{(12,770)} = 4.67; p < .01$), with native residents living in Benalmádena for more than 10 years having the worst perception of all the effects caused by tourism, and foreigners living in Benalmádena for less than five years having the best perception.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Natives and those who have been living more than 10 years in Benalmádena are the residents perceiving more adversely the impact of tourism. Similar results were found in the study by Davis et al. (1988). It is possible that residents in cities with high tourism development with time come to perceive the negative impacts of tourism rather than positive impacts, as they have lived with the problems created by tourism growth such as overcrowding, noise, and environmental degradation (Yoon et al., 1999).

Attitudes towards tourism improve with educational level. Natives and non-native residents who have spent more than ten years living in Benalmádena, and whose level of education is low, show a more negative view of tourism. Therefore, this profile of residents is the group that should receive more attention from planning and tourism policies, with the aim of improving their relationship and attitude to tourism. It would be necessary to invest in specific programs intended to educate residents on the benefits of tourism in mature touristic areas, whose first income comes from tourism. Education on the effects of tourism with native residents and residents living in the city for more than ten years would encourage a more positive attitude toward tourism issues (Stylidis, 2014). For example, special events such as 'Native Day' might be helpful in promoting more favorable attitudes toward tourism (Davis et al., 1988). In addition, it could be of great interest to involve residents in decisions related to tourism development and management. The involvement of residents in these decisions would help them understand the importance of tourism in their towns and, once they feel part of the decision making, they would be more prompted to accept the inconveniences that come from tourism.

Therefore, it is necessary to know the opinion of residents in the planning process and governance of destinations. This fact must be taken into account from a technical point of view during the implementation of tourism plans (Liu et al., 1987) and, from a political point of view, during the development of local tourism policies (Manning, 1998). The tourist areas are transformed over time, and therefore the perceptions of residents and their support for tourism development are as well. Hence, the relationship between the attitudes of residents and modification of the destinations should be analyzed periodically (Stylidis, 2014). If the community does not support the tourism model and does not perceive its benefits, it could lead to the development of a strong opposition to tourism (Gursoy et al., 2002). For this reason residents’ participation in planning and destination management is crucial for the future of destination (Dyer et al., 2007).

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References
The Impact of Social Media Involvement on Intentions to Purchase of Travel Online

Suzanne Amaro  
Polytechnic Institute of Viseu  
Center for Studies in Education, Technologies and Health  
Viseu, Portugal  
samaro@estgv.ipv.pt

Paulo Duarte  
University of Beira Interior  
NECE-Research Center in Business Sciences  
Covilhã, Portugal  
pduarte@ubi.pt

Introduction

Understanding travellers' online behaviour is the core interest of online travel providers aiming to stimulate online travel purchases. Travel has a competitive online market, where travel retailers compete among themselves as well as against traditional travel agencies. Knowing the driving forces that determine travellers' intentions to purchase travel online is paramount for the successful implementation of online marketing strategies (Lee, Qu, & Kim, 2007).

In a recent literature review on factors affecting online travel shopping, Amaro and Duarte (2013) found that none of the studies had addressed recent developments such as the social media phenomena. Nothing is known about the relationship between travellers' use of social media and the purchase of travel online. In order to be able to respond to social media developments, travel marketers need to recognize if this relationship exists.

This study thereby contributes to the current literature by examining if social media involvement affects intentions to purchase travel online. The model proposed is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).

Literature review

Although many studies have applied the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) to understand online travel shopping, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), an extension of the former theory, has been largely overlooked at. Indeed, few studies have applied this theory to examine the determinants of online travel shopping.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) posits that peoples attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control will affect intentions to perform a behaviour. In the travel context, several studies have evidenced that attitude towards online shopping positively influences intentions to purchase travel online (Bigné, Sanz, Ruiz, & Aldás, 2010; Lee et al., 2007; Morosan & Jeong, 2008). Therefore, as intentions are determined by the person’s positive or negative attitudes towards the decision it is expected that:

\[ H1: \text{Individuals' attitude towards online travel shopping positively influences intentions to purchase travel online.} \]

Since subjective norms have not performed well in explaining intentions (San Martín & Herrero, 2012) this study suggests employing communicability, a different form of social
influence. Communicability is related to the influence of family and friends, in the sense that people are more likely to book online and to frequently book travel online if they know that other people are doing likewise (Morrison, Jing, O’Leary, & Cai, 2001). Based on this finding, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H2: Communicability positively influences intentions to purchase travel online.

Perceived behavioural control has clearly been underlooked at in the travel context, which makes its role unclear. The only study that used this theory in the context of online travel shopping (Bigné et al., 2010) found that perceived behavioural control did not affect intentions to purchase travel online, contradicting the TPB. However, the current study takes the TPB view that perceived behavioural control is held to contribute to intentions (Ajzen, 1991), formulating the following hypothesis:

H3: Individual’s perceived behavioural control over purchasing travel online positively influences intentions to purchase travel online.

Although no study has specifically examined the relationship between the search for travel information on social media websites and intentions to purchase travel online, several studies have found that there is a relationship between online travel information search and online travel purchasing (Jensen, 2012; Susskind & Stefanone, 2010). Based on these evidences, this study proposes that travellers with higher social media involvement will be more likely to purchase travel online than those with lower levels of involvement. Therefore:

H4: Individuals’ social media involvement is positively related to intentions to purchase travel online

Social media use was operationalized with a construct termed social media involvement proposed by Amaro and Duarte (2015), conceptualized as a multidimensional construct based on people’s usage of social media (consumption and creation), their level of interest in social media and perceived enjoyment with the use of social media.

Methods and material

The data was collected with a questionnaire distributed online and was available in Portuguese. A convenience sampling technique was employed to collect the data, by sending e-mail invitations to colleagues, students, personal contacts, and other email contacts collected. A total of 1,339 responses were considered valid. Partial Least Squares (PLS) were then used to test the hypotheses proposed.

The evaluation of the research model using PLS analysis consisted of two distinct steps. In the first step, the outer model was assessed and there was evidence to confirm its reliability and validity. In the second step, the inner model estimates were examined to assess the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the conceptual model (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

Results

The explained variance of intentions to purchase travel online was 67%, demonstrating a substantial predictive power. The path coefficients and significance levels are illustrated in Figure 1. The first hypothesis predicted that attitude would positively influence intentions to purchase travel online. Consistent with intention based models and with other studies
conducted in the online travel context (e.g. Bigné, Sanz, Ruiz, & Aldás, 2010; Lee, Qu, & Kim, 2007; Morosan & Jeong, 2008), attitude was found to be significantly associated with intentions to purchase travel online ($\beta=0.71$, $p<0.001$).

![Figure 1 - PLS Results](image)

The second hypothesis proposed that communicability influences intentions to purchase travel online was not supported ($\beta=-0.02$, $p=0.33$). This result is not totally unexpected, since the influence of others to perform behaviours in volunteering settings - such as the purchase of travel online - has been found to be week or non-existent (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989; San Martín & Herrero, 2012). It is possible that the influence of friends tends to diminish as the purchase of travel online gets more widespread. Since online travel shopping is nowadays a widespread practice, knowing that others purchase travel online does not seem to influence the purchase of travel online.

The third hypothesis was concerned with the role of perceived behavioural control. The hypothesis was supported by the data ($\beta = 0.17$, $p<0.001$), echoing the postulation of the TPB. Indeed, individuals that assess they have the capabilities and resources to purchase travel online will have higher intentions to carry out the purchase online. This conclusion is consistent with the TPB and with Li and Buhalis's (2006) study in the online travel context, which found that Internet traveller’s self-assessment of their capabilities to purchase travel online was positively associated with the likelihood of purchasing travel online. However, a different study regarding the purchase of travel online (Bigné et al., 2010) found that perceived behavioural control did not affect intentions to purchase travel online. Therefore, the results of this study help to better clarify these contradictory results, since few studies have examined the role of perceived behavioural control in the context of online travel shopping.

The main aim of hypothesis four was to examine if individual’s level of involvement with social media had an effect on intentions to purchase travel online. The hypothesis was not statistically supported ($\beta = 0.04$, $p=0.27$). A possible explanation for this is that travellers that
purchase travel online do so mostly to save time and, therefore, even though they may use social media websites and find them interesting, they do not spend much time using them, since this can be a time consuming task. On the other hand, it may also indicate that many travellers search for travel information on travel social media websites, but then book at a traditional travel agency as Jun, Vogt, and MacKay (2007) found in their research.

Discussion and Conclusions

At a time when Internet use and online travel shopping are more prevalent, factors such as perceived behavioural control with online travel shopping plays a small role. What really matters for Internet users to purchase travel online is having a favourable attitude towards online travel shopping. Therefore, online travel marketers need to pay close attention to the factors that contribute to a favourable attitude. Given attitude’s importance in explaining intentions to purchase travel online, it is essential to examine the factors affecting attitude formation. For example, prior experience with online travel purchases (e.g. Morosan & Jeong, 2006), perceived playfulness (e.g. Morosan & Jeong, 2008), enjoyment (e.g. Hassanein & Head, 2007) and personal innovativeness (e.g. Limayem, Khalifa, & Frini, 2000) have been found to affect attitude towards online shopping.

From a theoretical perspective, it seemed reasonable to expect that a higher involvement with social media would lead to higher intentions to purchase travel online. Yet, the data in this study suggests that there is no relationship. It should be noted that hypotheses that are not confirmed convey important findings. For example, online travel providers can look for more profitable websites to advertise rather than social media websites.

One of limitations of this study was that a convenience sample with only the Portuguese population was used. Therefore, generalisation of the results must be made with caution. In spite of the study’s limitations, academic researchers, tourism practitioners and marketers can take advantage of this study to better understand the adoption of online travel shopping and consequently improve online travel distribution strategies.

Acknowledgements

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Identifying criteria than exert an influence in the co-creation process between tourists and hotel managers

Luisa Andreu
Amparo Cervera
Universitat de Valencia
luisa.andreu@uv.es

Susana Navarro
Norat Roig
Universidad Europea de Valencia

Abstract

The topic of our study deals with one of the challenges of the 2015 ATMC: what can tourism operators do to assist in their creation of experiences and how can they become co-creators of value? Specifically, our study focuses on hotel managers as value facilitators of tourists with disabilities (TwD) and the main objective is to identify which criteria exert an influence in the co-creation process between tourists and hotel managers. The research methodology for this study is the adoption of the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). Three stages in the value co-creation process constitute the main criteria: communication, use, and service (Payne et al., 2008). Each of these three criteria gives rise to a number of subcriteria. Both academic and managerial implications are provided. Our findings show that the service encounters and usage encounters criterion are fundamental for the co-creation process. If we compare these results with disabled customers’ point of view where the stay and booking stage are the success factors for co-creation, we can conclude that for co-creation between clients and hotel staff, we need critical factors for the co-creation process related with the interactions as the relationship with the staff, the accessible environment and the collaboration with the staff.
Can Rural Tourism Satisfy Portuguese Tourist's Needs? Examining Portuguese Tourist's Preferences

Joaquim Antunes
Cristina Barroco
Suzanne Amaro
Polytechnic Institute of Viseu
Center for Studies in Education, Technologies and Health
Viseu, Portugal
jantunes@estgv.ipv.pt

Introduction

Tourism is considered one of the fastest growing industries, assuming a central role in the economy of many countries. Over the past years, new tourism products have been launched and existent ones have been adapted, such as rural tourism. The motivations for the demand of these services are aimed at revitalizing physical and psychic balance, under stress caused by modern lifestyles.

The importance of rural tourism has been stressed in several studies. For instance, according to Dong, Wang, Morais and Brooks (2013) rural tourism has been frequently mentioned as an alternative form of economic development in rural areas. Other studies have emphasized that it significantly contributes to the gross national product, wealth creation, employment generation (Choong-Ki, Var & Blaine, 1996; Borooah, 1999) and to regional development (Dredge, 1999). In a more recent study, rural tourism is considered as a diversification strategy that serves as a catalyst for economic growth in remote communities (Rid, Ezeuduji & Pröbst-Haider, 2014).

In the Portuguese case, there is a low profitability of rural tourism and, therefore, it is crucial to identify market segments to create appropriate marketing strategies in order to increase the profitability of rural tourism (Kastenholz, 2002). Despite the importance of better understanding what motivates tourists to choose rural tourism, studies focusing on rural tourism in Portugal have been limited (e.g. Kastenholz, Davis & Paul, 1999; Kastenholz, 2005; Almeida, Correia & Pimpão, 2014). Thus, the main aim of this study is to examine Portuguese tourists’ preferences when choosing rural tourism accommodation. The findings are crucial to support marketing strategies and for rural tourism development in Portugal.

This study begins with a literature review of earlier studies concerning rural tourism, followed by the research methodology. In the fourth part, the results are discussed and finally, in the conclusions, some strategies are suggested as well as limitations of the study are presented.

Literature review

According to Cai and Li (2009) tourist activity in rural areas had a large increase after 1970 in most developed countries and played a key role in the growth of rural areas economically and socially depressed. According to Park and Yoon (2009), just as in many other countries, rural tourism offered opportunities for generating and diversifying revenues for Korean farmers. It is an effective strategy for revitalizing rural communities that have experienced serious structural and economic problems.

Rural tourism activities may include low-impact outdoor sports such as hiking or horse-riding, as well as farm tours or opportunities to assist with farming tasks, depending on the season and type of farms. As it can really complement farmers’ income and contribute to local economic development, rural tourism is increasingly being conceptualised as a business
model in terms of product diversification. In some regions, public sector tourism organisations are actively promoting rural tourism, although farmers may not always have the time, the capital and the necessary skills and knowledge to develop the tourism potential of their business (Page & Getz, 1997).

Research focusing on rural tourists’ motivations has identified several motives on why they search for this type of tourism. In a study applied in Finland, Pesonen (2012) concludes that the most important motivations for rural tourists are to relax from the ordinary, getting refreshed and sense of comfort. Beautiful landscape, calm and rush-free atmosphere are among the most important destination attributes. A different study, applied in Korea, found that rural tourists are more likely to be interested in the role of agriculture and its associated culture, such as the agricultural experience and rural life (Park & Yoon, 2009). A study conducted by Kastenholz et al. (1999) revealed that rural tourists tend to be attracted by a peaceful atmosphere and nostalgia for old ways of life. Devesa, Laguna and Palacios (2010) segmented rural tourists based on their motivations and identified four segments: 1) a visitor looking for tranquility, rest and contact with nature; 2) cultural visitors; 3) proximity-gastronomic and nature visitor and 4) returning tourists.

These studies demonstrate that rural tourism offers tourists multi-faceted activities, and, consequently, there are many motivations to engage in rural tourism. This conclusion is echoed in a recent study that concludes that “Rural tourism is a diverse activity occurring in both natural and built rural environments, it takes numerous forms and, as a consequence, the reasons or motivations for participating in rural tourism are equally numerous (Jepson & Sharpley 2014, p.1).

Methodology

To carry out this study a questionnaire was designed with a set of 19 items related to rural tourism and the environment based on literature review. To assess the face validity of the items, experts who had been conducting prominent research in marketing and tourism, were asked to analyse the proposed instrument. They were requested to clarify the items, and comment whether the items were likely to be appropriate for assessing tourists’ behaviour and motivations. After their comments and suggestions were considered and incorporated into the research design, a pre-test was conducted on customers to further refine the list of items.

The questionnaire was self-administered and applied in several Portuguese cities, where Portuguese tourists were asked to classify the importance of the 18 items using a 5 point Likert scale where 1 = “Not at all important” and 5 = “Extremely important“. A total of 138 respondents completed the questionnaire (error ± 8,33% and 95% reliability). Data analysis was performed using SPSS 19.0 software.

Results

The 138 respondents were from 12 districts throughout Portugal. The age group with more number of responses was the age group 35-49, with 41% of the total of responses, while 25% are aged over 50 and 23% are between the age 20 and 24. In terms of gender, there is a slight skew towards a higher proportion of female participants (62%). The sample seems to be composed by highly educated individuals, with approximately 49% of the respondents holding at least a college degree. Sixty eight per cent are married or in a common-law marriage and 43% and 37% have a monthly family income between 1.250€ and 2.499€ and over 2.500€, respectively.
Figure 1 presents the mean values of the 18 items related to rural tourism and the environment. Nature observation is the item with the highest score, followed by walking trails, swimming pool and fireplace.

Figure 1 – Items’ mean values

A factor analysis was conducted using the principal component method and varimax rotation procedure in order to extract the sub dimensions of the items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic (KMO) presented a value of 0.874 and the Bartlett test presented a level of significance equal to 0.000, indicating that the correlation matrices were suitable for factor analysis.

A principal component extraction was used, after which the number of factors was determined by the number of eigenvalues greater than one. In addition, all items with a factor loading above 0.5 were included.

The Cronbach’s alpha values indicated that the reliability of each scale were good, since the three factors presented a value above 0.80. The Principal Component Analysis produced a three-factor solution explaining 59.024% of the variance, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 shows the weights of the variables on each factor. Factor 1, explaining 22.577% of the total variance, is composed of variables related to the accommodations’ amenities. The second factor, which explains 18.244% of the total variance, is related to outdoor sports and factor 3, which explains 18.203% of the total variance, is related to outdoor activities.
Table 1 - Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bar</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme parties</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation room</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fireplace</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional games</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sale of regional products</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeep Tours</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.749</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini Golf</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse Riding</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td>0.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.550</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking Trails</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature Observation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bikes/Mountain Bikes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming Pool</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picnics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalues</td>
<td>4.064</td>
<td>3.284</td>
<td>3.277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance (%)</td>
<td>22.577</td>
<td>18.244</td>
<td>18.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative Variance (%)</td>
<td>22.577</td>
<td>40.821</td>
<td>59.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

The three factors obtained can therefore serve as a support to strategic decision makers. The first factor is related to the accommodations’ amenities. Tourists value the basic amenities such as recreation room, bar and a fireplace. However, it is regarding the other factors that rural tourism providers can distinguish themselves among other types of accommodation. Indeed, the second and third factors - outdoor sports and outdoor activities - are factors that are valued by tourists. Rural Tourism has the ideal environment to provide tourists with nature and outdoor related activities and sports and should not be neglected by rural tourism managers.

Discussion and Conclusions

Rural tourism plays an important role in achieving not only economic and social development but also rural regeneration (Sharpley, 2002). In order to achieve such development, rural tourism providers need to increase occupancy rates. Understanding tourists’ preferences is essential in tourism planning and marketing efforts.

This study has identified a number of factors that are considered important by tourists in choosing a particular accommodation. Rural tourism providers should consider these factors in order to adjust their supply to demand. The three factors identified can serve as a support to making strategic decisions. Indeed, the preferences found in this study show that tourists expect basic amenities, but also look for sport and nature related activities. Rural
tourism can easily compete with other types of accommodations, since it has the ideal environment to satisfy the needs of potential tourists. Rural tourism marketing strategies should be focused on showing tourists all they have to offer.

One limitation of this study is related to the small sample size and the fact that it was conducted in one country. Therefore, generalizations should be made with caution. Future work should extend the preferences of tourists from other countries in order to promote Portuguese Rural Tourism in the International market. Another line of investigation could be examining the viability of niche segments to increase profitability. For instance, given that tourists choices are increasingly influenced by sustainability considerations (UNWTO, 2012) and that eco-friendly tourists earn more money (Dolnicar, Crouch & Long, 2008), rural tourism providers should adopt sustainable tourism practices in order to attract this segment. Given that other factors are crucial in developing and promoting rural tourism and involve more than just rural tourism managers competing by themselves (Wilson, Fesenmaier, Fesenmaier & Van Es, 2001), future research could also examine best practices in Rural Tourism and involve other stakeholders, such as local government and local businesses.

References
The Package Tour Experiences and Tourist Satisfaction

Ahmet Aslan
A.Gozde Yasar
Gurel Cetin
Orhan Akova
Mehtap Balik
Tevfik Demirciftci
University of Istanbul
gurelc@istanbul.edu.tr

Introduction
Tourists seek experiences which are different from their regular environment and daily routine life (Cohen, 1979; MacCannell, 1973). Various authors also argue that experiences result in positive customer behaviors such as satisfaction. However since it is intangible, measuring a vacation experience and its relationship with satisfaction are challenging tasks (Cetin & Dincer, 2014; Guzel, 2014; Neal & Gursoy, 2008). Package tours are also significant part of commercial tourism industry. However experiential characteristics of organized travel services have so far been neglected in the literature. The aim of this study is to present the relationships between experiential attributes of package tours and tourist satisfaction. Therefore the study tries to explore the answers of two main questions. First, what are the relationships between experiential factors and package tour satisfaction and second, how strongly these factors affect tourist satisfaction.

Literature Review
A substantial number of studies attempted to establish items that influence tourist experiences. According to Pine and Gilmore (1999) there are four dimensions of experiences: entertainment, educational, aesthetic, and escapist experiences. Education experiences are discussed as interactive engagement of body and mind on events, activities and perceptions that are acquired from the destination (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007). Esthetic experience dimension refers to tourists' tendency to take pleasure from beauty and harmony in the destination. The entertainment experience is related to events that amuse a customer. Escapist sphere of experiences on the other hand include tourists' strong desire for a change and to attempt something new and different. In this study experience economy concepts (four realms of experience) which are extended by Oh et al. (2007) were modified and applied on package tourists.

The package tour is an assembly of different products and services arranged by a tour organizer (e.g. tour operator) which includes services such as transportation, sight-seeing, food and lodging services. Tour organizers usually charge these services at an inclusive price (Bowie & Chang, 2005). Package tours particularly have become popular for specific tourism market segments (Mancini, 1996) such as cultural and heritage tourism as well as other special interest tours. A package tour is a reasonable and effective way for tourists to travel in a relatively safe way to other destinations, to visit various places on a trip in a short period, to have reliable and convenient services (Enoch, 1996).

Individual services that make up the package tour determine whether tourists feel satisfied or dissatisfied at the end of their trip (Xu. & Chan, 2010). Poor service experiences such as late transfers, small rooms, limited food services and other below par touristic services could bring about an overall negative experience from the destination. Bowie and Chang (2005) also stated that package tourists' service experiences of hedonism and
enjoyment impact their satisfaction. Satisfaction has also been thought as the balance between expectation and experience and considered as an important antecedent of future patronage and recommendation behavior (Pearce, 2005). However it is harder to define satisfaction solely based on experiences (Cetin & Walls, 2015). Satisfaction can be considered as an outcome of tourist experience but tourist do not travel just to be satisfied, there is a deep motivation for memorable experiences. Therefore experiences can also be regarded as a factor influencing satisfaction.

Various researchers have argued that the role of quality of tourist experience is related to overall tourist satisfaction (Cole & Scott, 2004; Kao, Huang, & Wu, 2008). Satisfaction from overall experiences is affected by satisfaction with individual services (Chan, 2004). Moreover experiences also considered to create an additional value to the customer which is also referred to as experiential value (Cetin, Akova & Kaya, 2014). Despite there seems to be a close relationship between tourist experience and satisfaction, no previous study explored this relationship in a package tour setting. This study aims to analyze the package tour experiences and their impact tourist satisfaction.

**Methodology**

A questionnaire was developed based on a review of prior studies on tourist experiences. Pine and Gilmore’s (1999) experience economy concepts (escape, education, entertainment and aesthetics) were adopted to define experiential factors of a package tour. As experiences are also discussed as memorable perceptions (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2015), activities and feelings, memorability of experiences were also measured. The first part of the questionnaire comprised package tour experience dimensions, the second part consisted of satisfaction ratings and third section included demographic and tripographic information. Data was collected through a self-administrated survey conducted on 120 respondents. Collection of data took three weeks between November and December, 2014 in old city (Sultanahmet) district of Istanbul.

**Results**

Among the 120 subjects in the study, 113 (%94) valid questionnaires were used during data analysis. First descriptive statistics were obtained and frequencies were extracted. 60.2 percent of the respondents were male. The majority of the respondents (41%) were between 21 and 30 years of age. 43.4 percent had a household income between 10,000 and 50,000 USD per year and 75.2 percent were university graduates. They were mainly from Europe (45%), Fareast (24%), and North America (17%).

In order to measure reliability Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for the variables measuring experience (independent variable) and satisfaction (dependent variable) dimensions. Both experience ($\alpha=0.92$) and satisfaction ($\alpha=0.82$) items reliability coefficients were above acceptable level. Then Pearson’s Correlation was used to explore the relationship between experiential attributes and satisfaction. Table 1 reflects the relationship between package tour experience items and satisfaction. Considering satisfaction the most important package tour experience items are as follows: “the package tour experience was highly educational to me” ($r=0.51$), “the attractions were pretty exciting during the tour” ($r=0.57$), “the settings were fun to stare and watch during the tour” ($r=0.50$), and “time flew by during the tour” ($r=0.44$). All three items reflecting memorability of experiences were also found to be significantly related to satisfaction.
Table 1: Relationship between package tour experience and satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiential Factors</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Package tour experience has made me more knowledgeable</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.28**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learned a lot during the tour</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The package tour stimulated my curiosity to learn new things</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The package tour experience was highly educational to me</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The package tour experience really enhanced my skills</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.45**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esthetics Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I felt a real sense of harmony during the tour</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was fun to meet and interact with others during the tour</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just being here was very pleasant during the tour</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The attractions were pretty exciting during the tour</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.57**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The settings were very attractive during the tour</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The selection of sights, the hotels and restaurants really showed attention to detail</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The settings provided pleasure to my senses</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.38**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities of others and the guides were amusing to attend</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really enjoyed watching the environment during the tour</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The settings were fun to stare and watch during the tour</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The physical settings was boring to watch during the tour</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.40**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escapist Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I felt I played a different character during the tour</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I felt like I was living in a different time or place</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The experience let me imagine being someone else</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I completely escaped from reality during the tour</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.17**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I totally forgot about my daily routine during the tour</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time flew by during the tour</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will have wonderful memories after the tour</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will remember many positive things after the tour</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.64**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I won’t forget my experiences after the tour</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.56**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine how the package tour experiences affect tourist satisfaction. After analysis of data based on 113 responses, it was found that tourist experience dimensions are positively and significantly correlated with satisfaction from package tours. To conclude this study strengthened the idea the hypothesis that package tour satisfaction is related to the quality of experiences acquired during the trip at the destination and memorability of these perceptions are important. Thus, service providers and package tour organizers could use the 4E’s of experiences to create memorable services which
in turn would satisfy their clients. For example aesthetic dimensions of the tour might be emphasized by visiting natural and culturally unique places that offer esthetic beauty. Also, frontline employees (e.g. guides) of tour operators should be trained for information dissemination and social interaction which would edutain customers. Implying authentic details that represent locality in the itinerary would also trigger escapist experiences. This study is a preliminary study of a larger research that will involve a larger sample. The second stage of the study because it will involve a larger sample is planned to involve multivariate analysis that would better define the importance of factors that affect tourists, package tour experiences.

References


The impact of the Spa Experience on Well-Being and Loyalty

Seyhmus Baloglu  
James Busser  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas  
seyhmus.baloglu@unlv.edu

Lisa Moll  
UNLV

Introduction

The spa and wellness industry is a multi-trillion dollar global industry that has expanded exponentially over the past decade and will continue to expand (Global Spa Summit, 2010). Research has revealed that tourists are increasingly opting to incorporate spa and wellness activities into their travel plans that directly aim to enhance their sense of well-being (Smith & Puczkó, 2009). There is a need to understand tourists’ motivations and outcomes in order to inform the industry how to better understand their clientele. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to develop and test a theoretical model of spa experience. Based on a thorough review of the literature the model included: (1) spa motivations as the independent variable; (2) experience and well-being as both a mediating and dependent variable; and, (4) loyalty as the ultimate dependent variable.

Literature Review

Motivations are the initial stimuli that incite decision-making processes (Crompton, & McKay, 1997). While much work has been done to understand the motivations for tourism destinations, very little work has focused on the spa and wellness industry. One exception is the work by Voigt, Brown, & Howat (2011). In their study, they found that there were six benefits factors for spa and wellness tourists, including transcendence, physical health and appearance, escape and relaxation, important others, and novelty; re-establish, self-esteem, and indulgence.

Experience is conceptualized as the customers’ enjoyment of a series of memorable events that are staged by the company providing them in order to engage the consumer in a personal way (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). It is “the sum total of the functional and emotional outcome dimensions of any kind of service” (Sandstrom, Edvardsson, Kristensson, & Magnusson, 2008, p.118). Oh, Fiore and Jeoung (2007) adopted Pine and Gilmore’s experience model and developed an experience measurement scale consisting of four categories: education, entertainment, esthetic, and escapism. The researchers found a high positive correlation between experience and the other key marketing outcome variables such as satisfaction and loyalty (Oh et al., 2007).

Existing tourism literature has examined the relationship between motivation and satisfaction from various perspectives (Dunn Ross, & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Oliver, 2010). Yoon and Uysal (2005) maintain that motivation indirectly affects loyalty through satisfaction. Similarly, other studies found a positive relationship between motivation and behavioral intention with the mediating effect of other evaluative variables such as destination image and past experience (Baloglu, 2000; Huang & Hsu, 2009). Experience, conceptualized as a post-consumption evaluative construct was significantly correlated with satisfaction (Oh, et al., 2007). Given the significant relationship between motivation and satisfaction, it is proposed that motivation significantly affects loyalty through experience.
Subjective well-being is defined as those phenomena that comprise an individual’s emotional responses, domain satisfactions, and holistic decisions about life satisfaction (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Tourism literature has shown that various types of well-being, including physical, emotional and spiritual, can be enhanced by a tourist’s trip (Uysal, Sirgy, & Perdue, 2012). The major psychological benefits of leisure and tourism activities are to allow tourists to escape from their routine stressful environment and seek recreational opportunities (Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). It is reasonable to expect that the more positive the customer’s spa experience, the greater their subjective well-being.

A model was developed based on literature review, which posits that spa motivations will have an impact on spa experience which, in turn, influences subjective well-being and loyalty towards the spa. Subjective well-being was also proposed to impact loyalty, as well.

**Method**

**Sample**

An online survey was administered in September, 2013. A panel sample was selected using a database provided by Qualtrics. Qualtrics is an online survey building and distribution platform that enables researchers to create and distribute surveys to targeted respondents. Potential respondents are sent an email invitation informing them that the survey is for research purposes only, how long the survey is expected to take, and what incentives are available. Members may unsubscribe at any time. To avoid self-selection bias, the survey invitation does not include specific details about the contents of the survey. For this study, respondents were drawn from a national database. An email was sent to all the panel members who were required to be adults over the age of 18 and used the services of a spa within the last six months. The researchers did not distinguish between types of spa (e.g., day spa, resort spa) as they were interested in profiling customer’s expectations of their motivations and experiences along with subjective well-being and loyalty in the spa service setting as a whole. Qualified participants were invited to take the survey via a link contained in the email. A total of 400 participants completed the survey within two weeks of data collection.

**Instrument**

The survey was comprised of four measures (motivation, experience, subjective well-being, loyalty) adapted from previous research, with acceptable Chronbachs’ alphas (.70-.90) that used Likert scales. Motivation consisted of twenty-four items (Voigt, et al., 2011) that asked respondents to indicate the importance of the reasons they chose to visit the spa (e.g., “to be at peace with myself,” and “to treat my body well.”) Ten experience items (Oh, et al., 2007) asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with statements like, “the experience has made me more knowledgeable,” and “I have wonderful memories about my spa visit.” The well-being measure comprised three items representing emotional well-being (McCabe & Johnson, 2012) where individuals were asked to rate the extent to which their spa visit contributed to “happiness,” “my positive feelings about myself,” and “my emotional well-being.” Finally, three loyalty items were used (Baloglu, 2002) such as “I would revisit the spa,” “I would buy additional products or services from the spa,” and “I would recommend this spa to friends.”

**Data analysis**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to define the underlying structure of the motivations and spa experience measures. The procedures utilized were principal component analysis with varimax rotation, both the latent root and Scree Test criteria to identify the number of components (Hair et al., 2010). Structural equation modeling, using AMOS 20, was conducted to test the proposed measurement and structural model. Composite reliabilities
and validity measures were obtained, and nomological, convergent, and discriminant validity of the constructs were assessed.

Results

The motivations for spa benefits were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Five motivation components emerged: self-improvement (SIM), shared/new experience (SNE), de-stress (DES), solitude (SOL), and self-indulgence (SIN). The same exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedures were used to identify the components of spa experience. Two components emerged and labeled as “Affective Memory” and “Learning Enhancement.”

The initial run of the model showed adequate fit indices (normed $\chi^2 = 2.95; \text{CFI} = 0.87; \text{RMSEA} = 0.07$) except for the CFI as it was slightly below the suggested threshold of 0.90. After dropping one motivation item, “to overcome health problems” because of a low correlation with the remaining items of the construct and allowing a couple of strong error covariances within the same constructs as suggested by the modification indices and reasonably justified, the fit indices were acceptable based on the suggested threshold values (normed $\chi^2 = 2.74$, CFI = 0.90; RMSEA = 0.06). The study assessed convergent and discriminant validity based on the guidelines provided by Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) and Hair et al. (2010). The average variance extracted (AVEs) were above the 0.50 threshold except for emotional subjective well-being (SWB) which was slightly below (0.48) the suggested value. However, all AVE estimates exceeded the squared correlations between pairs of constructs, providing support for convergent and discriminant validity.

All individual $t$ values were significant with no offending estimates (Reisinger & Turner, 1999). In addition, no sign of multicollinearity was detected that would adversely affect the accuracy of results (Grewal, Cote, & Baumgartner, 2004). The findings also showed strong support for nomological validity (Malhotra, 1999) as most path coefficients were significant ($p < .05$) and in the expected theoretical direction.

Spa experience was strongly related to motivations for spa visits. Self-Improvement motivation had a significant impact on Affective Memory ($0.37$, $p < .001$) and Learning Enhancement ($0.39$, $p < .001$) spa experiences. Shared/New experience and self-indulgence motivations significantly influenced learning enhancement experience ($p < .001$). De-stress motivation had a significant impact on affective memorable experience ($0.28$, $p < .01$). Affective memorable experience positively influenced emotional subjective well-being ($0.38$, $p < .001$). In return, both affective memorable experience (.54) and emotional SWB (.45) had a direct and positive impact on spa loyalty at 0.001 probability level. The impact of affective memorable experience on loyalty was found to be greater than that of emotional subjective well-being.

Discussion

This study contributes to the knowledge advancement in the tourism literature and industry in two ways. First, it examines the motivations that drive individuals to purchase spa/wellness services. Second, the study explores the interrelationship among motivation, experience, subjective well-being and loyalty, providing a comprehensive look at consumers’ decision-making processes.

Perhaps the most important finding is that the memorable spa experience is a greater predictor of loyalty than is the subjective well-being experienced by the spa patron. Accordingly, spa managers should tailor their services to facilitate lasting memories for the guest. Staff should be trained to ask questions regarding the expected spa experience and then create a spa experience that meets or exceeds those communicated expectations. It was found
that motivations influence the spa experience. Spa operators should ask customers the reason for their visit and the benefits sought. By understanding the relationship between motivation, experience, subjective well-being and loyalty, spa managers will be able to better tailor the goods and services provided in their businesses to meet and exceed the expectations of their clientele. Moreover, the relationship between and among these concepts may allow spa managers to create the type of experience necessary to enhance the subjective well-being of their customers and ultimately result in customer loyalty.

References


Wellbeing in Wildlife Experiences: Feeling Good for the Animals?

Giovanna Bertella
UiT The Arctic University of Norway
Tromsø, Norway
Giovanna.Bertella@uit.no

Introduction

This abstract presents the explorative phase of a future study concerning wellbeing in wildlife experiences. The objective is to explore the concept of wellbeing linking the tourists' wellbeing to the wellbeing of the involved animals.

The motivation for studying this topic is related to the potential relevance that such an interconnected way of viewing wellbeing could have in terms of animal protection. The idea is to move from the view of animal protection as an element that limits the tourism experience, toward a more positive approach where animal protection is an enriching element.

Literature Review

The theoretical approach of this study is related to the view of the consumer experience value as emerging from a complex process where both the consumer and the provider actively participate (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Grönroos, 2012). Within such a view, the value is created through a joint process that can be described as a “merged dialogical process” (Grönroos & Voima, 2013: 141).

Such a perspective has been applied to tourism. Among other factors, the experience value has been here described as emerging from the on-site interactions of the tourists/recreationist with the physical and socio-cultural context, and depending on the tourist/recreationist's set of conditions antecedents the experience as well as his/her physical, mental and emotional engagement (Mossberg, 2007; Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Prebensen et al., 2014). The premise for facilitating this process is a good understanding of the value associated to a specific experience.

This study focuses on the value of wellbeing in wildlife experiences from the perspective of the tourists, and aims to gain a better understanding of this value in a direction that is here qualified as empathic.

Experiencing wellbeing in natural environments

The concept of wellbeing can be described referring to a hedonic aspect, i.e. experiencing pleasure and happiness, and a eudaimonic aspect, i.e. experiencing a sense of meaning and self-realization (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Scholarly contributions from various fields have qualified natural experiences as potential sources of wellbeing in both these senses (Kaplan, 1995; McDonad et al., 2009; Fredman & Tyrvainen, 2010; Little, 2012; Keninger et al. 2013; Russel et al. 2013). Some scholars have highlighted the existence of an innate human attraction towards the nature, a sort of “ecological identity” that can lead to pro-environmental attitudes and behaviours (Wilson, 1984; Nisbet et al., 2011).

The hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of wellbeing have been commented in some tourism studies (Moscardo, 2009; Filep, 2013; Björk, 2014). Tourist wellbeing has been related also to specific values, among which stewardship (Filep, 2012). In this sense,

Wellbeing in nature-based experiences can be associated to the feeling of engaging in something meaningful and having some responsibility towards the natural environment.

In line with these reflections, it can be said that experiencing the nature during wildlife activities can promote wellbeing in a way that includes both hedonic and eudaimonic aspects. But wildlife experiences are also about experiencing the animals: how can wellbeing be conceptualized in relation to animal encounters?

**Animal encounters**

Human-animal studies is a growing discipline focused on the understanding of animals in the context of the human society (DeMello, 2012). Although the interest in discussing the use of animals is still scarce among tourism scholars, some studies have investigated animal encounters and some of them have adopted an experiential approach (Fennel, 2012).

In the case of domesticated animals, the central role played by the animals has been discussed. Particular relevance has been recognized to the tourist-animal interactions, suggesting a conceptualization of the animals as active co-creators of tourism value (Mathinsen, 2013; Bertella, 2014; Eide & Mossberg, 2014).

Shifting the focus on wild animals, some scholars have observed that also in this case the tourist-animal interactions can provoke profound emotions, including a sense of affinity and/or connectedness with the animals (DeMares & Krycka, 1998; Schanzel & McIntosh, 2000; Beardsworth & Bryman, 2001; Webb & Drummond, 2001; Curtin, 2009; Smith et al., 2011).

**The empathic aspect of wellbeing in wildlife experiences**

The hedonic and eudaimonic aspects of animal-encounters can be related to the ethic of care tradition and the consideration of the animal-human relations within such tradition. The ethic of care scholars emphasize the sense of connectedness between human and animals and the moral obligations that humans have towards animals (Donovan & Adams, 2007). In this perspective, the concept of empathy, i.e. the capacity to recognize and share the emotions felt by others (in this case the animals), is central.

Applying these ideas to wildlife experiences, wellbeing can be experienced as a sense of connectedness, caring attitudes and responsibility towards the animals. Such a view of wellbeing can be qualified as empathic. The empathic aspect of wellbeing in the context of wildlife experiences is about feeling happy when experiencing/witnessing the animals’ wellbeing and, at the same time, feeling that our behaviour contributes to such wellbeing.

The aim of this study is to better understand the empathic aspect of wellbeing in wildlife experiences. The research question is: to which extent and how do wildlife tourists experience empathic wellbeing?

**Method**

A case study concerning whale watching is conducted. Whale watching is selected based on the presumably high possibility to investigate the empathic dimension of wellbeing (Allen, 2014).

The data collection concerns whale watching in northern Norway and is based on the content analysis of TripAdvisor reviews (124). The objective is to identify those reviews containing elements that can be related to empathic wellbeing, in particular to the following three themes already emerged in previous studies concerning cetaceans: the tourists’ attentiveness to the animal wellbeing, sense of connectedness and responsibility.
Research and Results

39 reviews were analysed. The findings show that the tourists are attentive to the whales’ condition and behaviour and tend to interpret them in a positive way. A few tourists describe the whales’ active behaviour as a “show”.

Concerning the behaviour, the element of the animals’ intentionality is observed in those reviews concerning the possibility of the animals to swim away from the boat. This aspect is related to the distance between the boat and the whales and the tourists and companies’ responsibility. Several tourists comment on the whales not being present “on demand”, and also on the importance to keep distance from them. On the other hand, the distance is often qualified as short and related to a positive visual experience. This is clearly a dilemma.

Still in terms of responsibility within the tourism context, no tourist mentions the possible problems deriving from the sound of the engine or the movements and speed of the boat. Responsibility at the individual level was not mentioned neither. One review can be related to a collective responsibility in terms of protecting the whales as an endangered species.

Only two reviews can be related to the theme of connectedness. One of these highlights a non-anthropocentric worldview.

Discussion and Conclusions

The results suggest that some aspects of the experience value concerning whale watching can be related, at least to a certain degree, to empathic wellbeing. A future study will further investigate this issue:

- through deep interviews,
- including the element of competence as a complementary aspect of attentiveness,
- exploring how and to which extent the whale-encounter is viewed as a “show”,
- exploring the possible connection between the whale encounter and the individuals’ perceived responsibility,
- exploring the reflections around debates concerning the wellbeing of the whales.

References


The Albergo Diffuso Business Model and the Creation of Community Wellbeing

Giovanna Bertella  
UiT The Arctic University of Norway, Tromsø, Norway  
Giovanna.Bertella@uit.no

Maurizio Droli  
University of Udine, Udine, Italy

Introduction

This study focuses on the creation of community wellbeing through the application of the Albergo Diffuso business model. Albergo Diffuso (AD) is translatable as ‘scattered hotel’ and is ‘a particular type of hotel conceived to provide to the guests the experience of living in a rural village or a historical centre of a small town’ (UNDP-EBN, 2008: 3). The aim is to develop a conceptual framework for the purpose to further investigate the AD as a best-practice (Dall’Ara, 2010; UNDP-EBN, 2008).

The specific objective of this paper is twofold: integrate the service-dominant logic (SD-logic) and the resource-based theory (RBT), discuss the concept of business model as a tool adoptable by hotels in relation to value co-creation and community wellbeing.

Literature review

The hotel sector and the co-creation of wellbeing

This study views hotels as service providers belonging to groups of providers on which the value-creation depends (Saraniemi & Kyllänen, 2011). Within this perspective and following the SD-logic, different terms are used, e.g. service system, value network and experience supply chain (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Spohrer & Maglio, 2008; Lusch et al., 2009; Gottfridsson, 2012; Tax et al., 2013).

In the tourism context, the Tourism Experience Network and the Experience Supply Chain models are used to frame the creation of tourism value focusing on the tourists’ active role as value-creators (Sfandla & Björk, 2012). This aspect has been investigated in the hotel sector, with emphasis on the employees-guests interactions (Shaw et al., 2011; Chathoth et al., 2013). The focus of this study is different: we base our theoretical framework on those studies concerning mainly the supply side, its relation with the specific context and wellbeing creation.

According to Vargo et al. (2008), the concept of service systems indicates the arrangement of resources done by organizations with the aim to improve the circumstances of all the participants (p. 149). The SD-logic classifies resources in ‘operand’, i.e. resources on which an operation is produced, and ‘operant’, i.e. resources that are employed to act on operand resources to produce an effect (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Moreover, operant resources, including the human, organizational, informational and relational ones, are identified as the building blocks of value creation (Madhavaram & Hunt, 2008; Vargo et al., 2008).

This logic is coherent with the RBT, following which not all of existing resources can become sources of both competitive surviving and ‘sustained’ (defensible) competitive advantage (Penrose, 1959; Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993). Productive resources to be developed in order to produce competitive surviving are only those which are ‘Valuable’ (above the average performances) (Barney, 1991). Furthermore, Valuable resources should be Rare (concentrated), Inimitable (difficult to duplicable), Non-substitutable (without strategically-equivalent substitutive resources) (VRIN).
In line with both the SD-logic and RBT, value emerges through a co-creation process where VRIN resources are dynamically integrated within constellations of service systems.

Applying this perspective to the hotel sector has two implications. Firstly, hotels are service systems embedded in the context where they operate in, both through the reciprocal relations they have with other actors and on the basis of their dependence on the resources strictly linked to the context, i.e. the natural and cultural environment. This element is outlined in the SD-logic with concept of “value-in-context” (Vargo, 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Edvardsson et al., 2011).

Secondly, value-creation can be described as the processes through which hotels contribute to the wellbeing of the community in order to fit the environment (Vargo et al., 2008). Such an understanding of wellbeing at the community level can be qualified as a form of adaptability and survivability in relation to the specific environment. Hotels access, adapt and integrate resources to survive, adapt and evolve together with other organizations within the community.

Our study of wellbeing in the hotel sector focuses on the advantages that local communities gain from the participation to the co-creation processes supported by the AD. Such benefits are understood as contributions to local development in the four directions of the so-called 4-Es model: equity, effectiveness, efficiency and eco-sustainability (Drolé, 2010).

**Business models and the co-creation of community wellbeing**

Business model is a concept indicating a relatively new field of research and several definitions can be found in the literature (Zott et al., 2011; Nenonen & Storbacka, 2010).

A business model can be described as ‘the way in which an organization operates in order to ensure its sustainability’ (Demil & Lecoq, 2010: 231) or ‘a profit model, a business delivery system and a learning system’ (Itami & Nishino, 2010: 364-365). For the specific purpose of this study, we adopt the following definition: ‘a business model describes the rationale and infrastructure of how an organization creates, delivers and captures value’ (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010: 17).

Focusing on the hotel sector and wellbeing, a business model can be understood as the rationale and infrastructure of how hotels make business. In other words, how they are profitable, and how they manage to develop products that are authentic, in response to the expectations of post-modern tourists (Fabris, 2003), and ethically acceptable (UN, 2002; Gössling et al., 2010).

A hotel business model presented as potentially relevant to the wellbeing of the host community is the one described by Bohdanowicz & Zientara (2008). This model is centered on the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility and is exemplified using an international hotel chain. Differently from this model, the AD model has a horizontal structure and is particularly embedded in the local environment (Dall’Ara, 2010). Because of such characteristics, the AD business model can be regarded as having great potentials in term of wellbeing. Our research question is:

**How does the AD business model contribute to the host community wellbeing?**

To investigate this question we focus on the 9 elements of the business model as outlined by Osterwalder et al. (2005): key-customer segments, value proposition, key-channels revenue streams, key-resources, customers relationships, key-activities, key-partnerships and cost structure. Differently from a traditional approach in business models studies that focuses on external customers, this research focuses on describing these nine key-elements in relation to the internal clients within the community.
Methods & materials

We adopt a case study strategy. The geographical context is the inland town of Alberobello in the Italian region of Puglia. Our research focuses on two local ADs and their contribution to the community wellbeing. The latter aspect is operationalised using the indicators that are suggested in the literature in relation to the 4-Es model. The business models adopted by the ADs are investigated focusing on the 9 descriptive key-elements identified in the literature.

The cases are investigated through the collection of secondary data concerning the context and the specific ADs. Semi-structured interviews with the AD management, executive staff and the business partners within the community are performed by telephone and face-to-face.

Research and results

Alberello is a small town known also as the capital of the “trulli” (traditional drystone dwellings) and is included in the Unesco World Heritage List. The two ADs located in Alberobello and object of study are: Trullidea and Trulli Holiday.

The preliminary results concern Trullidea AD. Here, the hotel services are sold exclusively to external customers, while the interactions with the residents happen in the form of supplier-buyer interactions. The AD creates job opportunities for the locals, whose competence is among the key-aspects of the business model. Thanks to this, value in the form of local heritage conservation and valorisation is co-created. Also the external customers, to whom the hotel services are directed, are, at least to a certain degree, active part of the system, especially when involved in light agricultural activities that respond to their search for authentic experiences and support the local livelihood.

Discussion and conclusions

The investigated AD seems to operate with a dual-core business model based on the central idea of value-creation as a complex and embedded process of local development.

References


Insights to Food Sourcing as a Means of Holiday Well-being

*Peter Björk*
HANKEN, School of Economics
Vaasa, Finland
peter.bjork@hanken.fi

*Hannele Kauppinen-Räisänen*
International University of Monaco
Monaco
hkauppinen@monaco.edu

**Introduction**
This study deals with two food-related issues contributing to holiday well-being, namely pre-trip food sourcing and the daily meals on-site. Indeed, food is an essential aspect of every travellers’ holiday activity. Food is a multifarious phenomenon effecting travellers in various ways. Accordingly, food and eating carry psycho-sensorial value, convey social and symbolic meanings, trigger emotional responses and drive cognitive processing affecting food-related behaviour on-site. Food is also a socio-cultural element being part of the destinations’ cultural heritage mirroring the local culture, its traditions and the natural environment (Long, 2004), but – above all – it is a basic human element affecting consumers’ physical and psychological well-being. The physical well-being relates not only to nourishing like food healthiness and nutrition, but also to food safety (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Furthermore, psychological well-being relates to safety, happiness and satisfaction, like the pleasure that food stimulates (Rozin, Kurzer, & Cohen, 2002) and the lived experiences they contribute with (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2005). All in all – past research supports that destinations’ food and related experiences contribute to overall holiday well-being (Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Mason & O’Mahony, 2007).

For the means of holiday well-being tourists’ engage in pre-trip information sourcing. An extensive body of research prove that information sourcing serves as a means to decrease the sense of risk (Quintal, Lee & Soutar, 2010). Hence, as the perception of quality and sense of safety contribute to well-being, travellers search for such information like weather forecasts, hotel standards and destination security. Indeed past research supports that also destinations’ food is searched for. Reviewed studies show how travellers collect information about destinations’ food culture (Du Rand & Heath, 2006), still, that activity has remained rather uncovered by past research. Hence, this study attempts to contribute to current food research within tourism by investigating pre-trip information sourcing and in particular the information sources travellers’ use as a means of ensuring food-related holiday well-being, the type of food-related information search for and the reasons explaining such sourcing.

Another aspect of holiday, while on-site, is that food and acts of eating occur on regular basis structuring daily activities (Marshall, 2005) as up to three meals are consumed daily. It is well known that the underlying motivations for consuming food and having those meals vary (Henderson, 2009; Tikkanen, 2007), yet there is a scant number of studies discussing the meals tourists consume on vacation. Hence, this study also attempts to dig deeper into the role the daily meals has for ensuring holiday well-being.

Based on the previous, three specific questions are set. In relation to food sourcing and well-being,

1. What information sources are used?
2. What information is searched for and why?
3. What is the role of the daily meals for travellers’ holiday well-being?

Literature review

To begin with, this study is based on the foundation that food is one ingredient of gastronomy; an upholder of culture (Hegarty & Mahony, 2001). Gastronomy is a holistic concept that relates to the act of food preparation, cooking and eating, and issues of advices, rules and norms to what to eat and drink (Santich, 2004). Moreover, the study is based on past research proving that people travel for various reasons; some travelers being lured by the attraction to experience the ‘enjoyment of excellent food’ (Scarpato, 2002, p. 94). Further, the study is grounded on past findings that show how information search precedes many decisions as it serves as a means of risk reduction. Indeed, different information sources are consulted, and previous research also proclaims a correlation between interest in food and the amount of information sought (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014). Yet, many issues related to information sourcing remains uncovered, some of which the current study deals with.

Methods and material

The population of interest for this study was Finnish people with an active interest in travelling issues. Therefore, data for this study was collected by a means of a structured questionnaire distributed to people visiting the biggest annual travel fair in Finland, MATKA. For analysis, a sample of 243 is used. The findings reported are based on univariate analysis and are mainly of descriptive nature (t-test, ANOVA, regression analysis). Collecting data at a travel fair has its advantages and disadvantages. On the positive side, a fair offers convenience, and, in this case when the fair attracts people from all over Finland, a possibility to generalize the findings. The negative aspect may relate to the bias in the sample framework, which is to be taken into consideration and controlled. Hence, the challenging issue may be, is people visiting a travel fair different from non-goers? Notable is that the sample used compared to the statistics of Finland, only varies in terms of gender distribution. Hence, the sample analyzed for this study has an over-representation for women, which must be kept in mind interpreting the findings.

Results

Respondents’ demographic profile portray a sample of middle-age people (mean age 45 years) with a traveling history matching that of the Finnish population, i.e. two national and two international vacation trip annually (Statistics Finland) (Table 1).

**Table 1.** The demographic characteristics of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample characteristics (n = 243)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>200 (82.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>43 (17.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Mean = 45.68 (s = 15.17)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td>75 (31.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>136 (57.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>27 (11.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>21 (8.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School/Vocational</td>
<td>122 (50.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>99 (40.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of domestic leisure trips per annum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34 (14.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>122 (50.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>52 (21.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>35 (14.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of international leisure trips per annum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16 (6.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>163 (67.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>52 (21.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12 (4.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the findings reveal that travellers’ pre-trip food sourcing relates to the internet, travel magazines, brochures, and guidebook. Interestingly travellers rather use destinations’ official websites and tour agencies websites than turn to shared information as found on travel blogs (mean = 2.15) and private blogs (mean = 1.95) (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Information sources used collecting food related information before travelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top 6 sources</th>
<th>Information sources</th>
<th>Mean (s)</th>
<th>Frequency*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>2.89 (1.003)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destinations official websites</td>
<td>2.62 (1.018)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour operators website</td>
<td>2.54 (1.017)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel guides</td>
<td>2.38 (0.954)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel brochures</td>
<td>2.36 (0.948)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism magazines</td>
<td>2.35 (0.895)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Never, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Often, 4 = Always
Second, the findings show that travellers search information related to food quality, namely about the local cuisine and regional specialities. They also search information about places - restaurants - potentially serving the specialities (Table 3).

**Table 3.** Destination food information sought by tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food information about ...</th>
<th>Mean (s)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1* 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommended food places</td>
<td>2.68 (0.880)</td>
<td>9.0 32.9 39.5 18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local food specialties</td>
<td>2.52 (0.862)</td>
<td>12.3 35.8 39.6 12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local eating habits</td>
<td>2.48 (0.862)</td>
<td>11.0 40.2 38.8 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food traditions</td>
<td>2.45 (0.860)</td>
<td>15.0 34.7 40.8 9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The safety of local food</td>
<td>2.44 (0.879)</td>
<td>13.6 41.6 32.2 12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local restaurants</td>
<td>2.43 (0.822)</td>
<td>12.6 40.9 37.7 8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local ingredients</td>
<td>2.43 (0.871)</td>
<td>15.1 36.8 37.7 10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price level of local food</td>
<td>2.42 (0.802)</td>
<td>11.3 43.9 36.3 8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local species</td>
<td>2.30 (0.841)</td>
<td>17.1 43.1 32.2 7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third, the data demonstrate that such information sourcing behaviour is linked to travellers’ genuine food interest. Yet, such behaviour is also explained by attempts to increase safety as travellers search for food information in order to avoid surprises (Table 4).

**Table 4.** Reasons for collecting food information when travelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food information is sough because ...</th>
<th>Mean (s)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1* 2 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in food</td>
<td>2.62 (0.869)</td>
<td>9.2 36.4 37.8 16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to avoid surprises</td>
<td>2.60 (0.913)</td>
<td>13.6 29.0 41.6 15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to know the price level</td>
<td>2.54 (0.903)</td>
<td>13.6 33.8 38.0 14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To save time</td>
<td>2.45 (0.938)</td>
<td>19.7 27.7 40.8 11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health reasons</td>
<td>2.42 (0.932)</td>
<td>17.4 36.6 32.4 13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to know how to behave</td>
<td>2.38 (0.916)</td>
<td>17.8 39.0 31.0 12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am allergic</td>
<td>1.70 (0.957)</td>
<td>58.3 19.4 15.7 6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My food preferences</td>
<td>1.67 (0.861)</td>
<td>54.2 28.3 13.2 4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am vegetarian</td>
<td>1.48 (0.801)</td>
<td>66.7 23.1 5.6 4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My religion</td>
<td>1.27 (0.601)</td>
<td>79.2 15.6 3.8 1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Never. 2 = Sometimes. 3 = Often. 4 = Always
Finally, the data indicate that the daily meals are part of holiday well-being. A more fine-grain analysis of food and eating habits entour proves in particular the importance of breakfast and dinner for well-being, and eventually also travel satisfaction. Interestingly, lunch has a special value-adding effect for those Finnish travellers, who have a strong interest in food (Table 5).

**Table 5. Meals for well-being on destinations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meals</th>
<th>Mean (s)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakfast</td>
<td>2.54 (0.804)</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>2.39 (0.750)</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinner</td>
<td>2.80 (=.817)</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supper</td>
<td>2.11 (0.782)</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion and Conclusions**

This study attempts to contribute to tourism research by providing insights to two food-related issues contributing to holiday well-being, namely pre-trip food sourcing and the daily meals on-site.

Pre-trip information sourcing is an essential behavioural act and, when acknowledged by destinations’ stakeholders, can be used strategically to reach various types of travellers. The role of food characteristics such as originality, locality, authenticity, uniqueness, newness, healthiness and potential safety deserve promotional attention. In a similar vein, daily meals deserve destination stakeholders’ attention as not only food in general, but the various meals in particular serves various means and evidently contribute to holiday well-being. For theory development, this study advocates a more fine-grained analysis on the food and tourism, in particularly so if tourist insight is sought.

**References**


Well-being of Locals, Tourist Experiences and Destination Competitiveness

Peter Björk
HANKEN School of Economics
Vaasa, Finland
peter.bjork@hanken.fi

Erose Sthapit
Martti Laaksonen
University of Vaasa
Vaasa, Finland

Introduction

The importance of host-guest interactions for customer satisfaction and loyalty is well documented in service marketing (Seth et al., 2005) and tourism literature (Éraqui, 2006) leaving activities and events in between service encounters on a destination most unexplored in terms of both existence (which are they) and importance (on what do they effect). For analyzing these blank spots, the mundane life of locals and their living environment, tourism research has come as far as to examine regional culture as, endowed tourism resources (MacDobald & Jolliffe, 2003), a branding dimension (O’Dell & Billing, 2010), and as an aspect to be discussed in relation to destination management (Dwyer et al., 2004) and sustainable tourism development (Istoc, 2012). There are some studies portraying a more complex picture of the amalgamation of place generating tourist experiences. Long (2004), for example, who analyzed the “Foodscape” of Asheville, NC, describes how visitors meet the Appalachian cuisine and food habits in restaurants and festivals, special events, but also in local grocery stores, alongside and in contact with the locals.

There is an abundance of research explaining the positive effects of friendly treatments in service encounters on customer satisfaction, and the link there is between service oriented organizations, well-being of the staff, and internal marketing (Kuskuvan et al., 2010). Less studied is the influence of well-being of locals (residents) reflected in a welcoming attitude, on tourist experiences although they, in terms of marketing, can be categorized as part-time marketers (c.f. Grönroos, 1990). Hospitality, “the general feeling of welcome that tourists receive while visiting the area”, is most often what is remembered after returning home (Mill, 1990, p. 28).

Tourist experiences, satisfaction and travel behavior are interlinked. On an aggregated, destination level positive tourist experiences are a source for competitive advantage. To this end, bringing the well-being and attitudes of locals, tourist experiences and destination competitiveness together a positive relationship is assumed. Falling back on the notion that this model has not been tested in previous research the aim of this study is to explain destination competitiveness through the lens of tourist experiences and well-being and attitudes of local residents. To accomplish this, four objectives are set:

1) To present a local society oriented model of destination competitiveness.
2) To develop instruments for measuring the selected key success factors in determining destination competitiveness.
3) To empirically test and display findings arising from a first pilot study in Finland.
4) Benchmark the new insight generated to existing destination competitiveness models and to explore issues for further research.
Literature Review

Departing from service and tourism marketing literature this study devolves into the destination competitive literature emphasizing the role of locals for tourist experiences (Figure 1).

![Local society based destination competitiveness model](image)

Figure 1. Local society based destination competitiveness model

The theoretical framework in use defines four key concepts, well-being, attitudes, tourist experiences, and destination competitiveness, as follows:

**Well-being**, defined as ‘an individual's sense that his/her life overall is going well’ (Moscardo 2009, p.162), is a state of mind. Well-being is a personal, holistic state of mind including aspects of self-development in terms of life fulfillment (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). It is an inner process, not ‘out there’, a personal experience to be lived throughout our daily life; work, leisure time, social relationships, achievements, growth, freedom etc. (Björk, 2014). Doxey’s (1975) irritation index explains the close link there is between the locals and the tourists, and how residents’ well-being determines their attitude towards tourists (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2008).

**Locals’ attitudes towards tourists.** Residents’ attitudes towards tourism development are often explained from a social exchange theory perspective. Resident attitude toward tourism development appears to depend on the perception of perceived benefits and costs (Sirakaya et al., 2002), and affects destination hospitality (Heuman, 2005). However, it is doubtful that such perceptions are accurate predictors of how people would feel once tourism industry has arrived and a destination moves from one phase of development to another (Kahneman et al., 1997). A recent study linked Quality of Life indicators of perceptions of tourism among residents (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011), but the well-being related items were restricted to the ‘way of life’ of the respondents rather than how the respondents felt or how satisfied they were with their lives, subjective well-being (SWB).

**Tourist experiences** are individual, subjective, and relative; they depart in some way from everyday experiences (Uriely, 2005), and are made up of series of events or activities (Smith, 2003). A tourist experience is “the subjective mental state felt by participants during a service encounter” (Otto & Ritchie 1996, p.166). Insight in the tourist experience concept has been sought analyzing service quality dimensions linked to accommodation and transportation mainly (Quan & Wang, 2004). On the other hand, friendly interaction between host-guest in a destination is an important variable in facilitating higher quality tourism experiences and visitor satisfaction (Kusluvan, 2003).

**Destination competitiveness** refers to the ability of the destination to attract and satisfy tourists (Enright & Newton, 2004) and to deliver goods and services that perform better than those offered at other destinations (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). It is also associated with
the long-term economic prosperity of the residents of an area (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003), the ultimate goal of competitiveness being to maintain and increase the real income of the inhabitants (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Tourism thrives on the pleasant attitudes of hosts, it is necessary to attempt to sustain that congenial social ambience. Without it, the goals of developing tourism will be either not realized or will be accomplished at tremendous social costs. Indeed, friendly hosts may command even higher popularity through the dissemination of positive image through word of mouth (Sirgy & Samli, 1995). Nevertheless, clear friendliness and a spirit of hospitality enhance a destination’s competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003).

**Methods and material**

Guided by the theoretical framework two instruments for data collection has been constructed for piloting. The data will be collected in summer 2015 for analysis and presentation at the ATMC conference in September 2015. We aim for a two pronged data-sampling procedure, one directed at the locals in designated destinations and one to measure tourist experiences and perceived destination competitiveness in the same area.

Taking inspiration from previous studies on human well-being, attitudes, tourist experiences and perception of destination competitiveness four sets of questions will be developed. Well-being of locals can be viewed in terms of SWB. SWB deals with residents’ overall sense of well-being that can be captured through a variety of concepts such as life satisfaction, positive\negative affect, and overall happiness (Sirgy, 2010). Well-being is often described in terms of happiness and is used in different meanings. In classical philosophy, it is typically used as an umbrella term for various aspects of the good life. Social scientists used the word happiness as a synonym for subjective enjoyment of life. Psychologists formally refer to this construct as SWB while economists term it experienced utility (Kahneman et al., 1997).

Happiness has been recognized as an important goal of society, and there has been a growing interest in understanding what makes people happy (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999). Happiness is sometimes more broadly defined as SWB, since improvements in objective circumstances have proven to yield limited increases in happiness (Layard, 2006). Happiness is most commonly measured by a variant of Bradburn’s (1969) Affect Balance Scale, which measures the extent of positive emotions and the absence of negative emotions to determine levels of happiness. Happiness therefore can be considered to contribute to emotional (affective) SWB, whereas cognitive SWB is largely measured through inventories of satisfaction with life and positive functioning (McCabe & Johnson, 2013). Consequently, this study merges these two types of scales (Bradburn’s scale of psychology well-being and Lyubomirsky Subjective Happiness Scale for happiness, and Diener et al.’s Satisfaction with Life Scale) adapts the scale items to be useful in a Finnish context. Destination competitiveness is in this study is measured as a tourist perception.

**Results**

Preliminary findings will be presented at the conference.

**References**


Consumer Animosity and Affective Country Image in a Tourism Context

Sara Campo
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Dpt. Financiación e Investigación Comercial
Madrid, Spain
sara.campos@uam.es

Maria D. Alvarez
Boğaziçi University, Dpt of Tourism Administration
Istanbul, Turkey
alvarezm@boun.edu.tr

Introduction

Consumer animosity, introduced by Klein, Etenson and Morris in 1998, refers to “the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political or economic events” (Klein et al. 1998, p. 90) that influence the consumers’ purchase behaviour. Indeed, several studies (Bahaee and Pisani, 2009; Etenson and Klein, 2005; Huang et al., 2010; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004) have established in different contexts the effect of animosity on buying intentions of the products originating from the country towards which this hostility is directed. Despite the increasing number of investigations dealing with this topic within the international marketing literature, there is a lack of research concerning the influence of animosity on the purchase of tourism products. While some studies (Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Moufakir, 2014; Podoshen and Hunt, 2011) have suggested that animosity affects the decision to visit a particular country, to date there is a lack of research that thoroughly investigates this impact.

The tourism literature has also investigated the effect of particular events on the image of the country, distinguishing between the effects on cognitive versus affective perceptions (Alvarez and Campo, 2014). According to previous research, specific events and incidents may provide additional information that influences perceptions regarding a place (Heslop, Lu and Cray, 2008), particularly in terms of affective image (Alvarez and Campo, 2014). Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2012) also investigate the mediating influence of affect in the relationship between country animosity and behavioural intentions in a non-tourism context. Therefore, the current study attempts to fill in a gap in the tourism literature and examine the effect of consumer animosity towards a particular country on the image of the place and on the intention to visit it. In particular, the influence of animosity on the affective dimension of country image is assessed.

Literature review

Existing studies in the international marketing literature have examined the characteristics of the consumer animosity construct, providing various instruments to measure it. In particular, the reasons behind this animosity are listed in the literature as including wars and military conflicts (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004), political incidents (Etenson and Klein, 2005; Witowski, 2000), historical events (Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007), economic disputes (Klein and Etenson, 1999) and interaction with the people from the country (Moufakir, 2014; Nes et al., 2012). Jung et al. (2002) also distinguish between different types of animosity based on two dimensions: stable – situational and personal – national. Thus, country evaluations are based on personal or national experiences that may go back to the past or may be rooted in the present. However, authors such as Riefler
and Diamantopoulos (2009) have criticized the one-size-fits-all manner in which measuring instruments of animosity have been used. According to these authors, the construct is context-specific and requires an understanding of the motives inspiring animosity, based on prior exploratory qualitative research. In addition, Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2009) also suggest that the reasons underlying animosity judgements need to be distinguished from the feelings per se. Thus, they call for the inclusion of additional items that encompass a more general affective-based evaluation of animosity in the scales used to measure this construct.

Studies in social psychology have determined that feelings and emotions have a significant influence in the creation of stereotypes and attitudes (Macrae, Stangor and Hewston, 1996). In the tourism field, research has confirmed that the affective component of image is more important than the cognitive one in determining the overall image of a place (Kim and Yoon, 2003). Nes et al. (2012) also verify that affect plays a central role as a mediator between country animosity and purchase intentions, although this relationship is assessed from a non-tourism perspective.

**Methods and material**

Following this literature, the current study aims to apply the concept of consumer animosity towards a country to the context of tourism. Studies that provide a greater understanding concerning the formation of place perceptions and the influence that they have on the behaviour of tourists are vital. In particular, the influence that animosity has on affective image evaluations and on the decision to visit a country is a topic in need of research. Furthermore, new measuring instruments of the animosity construct that address the issues raised by Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2009) and are based on a greater understanding of the underlying reasons for animosity judgements, are required.

The current research is part of an ongoing investigation to create and test a comprehensive measure of consumer animosity in the tourism context, and to determine the effect of the construct on the decision to visit a destination. First, an in-depth review of the literature was used to generate items for the animosity scale. This phase was supplemented with an initial survey to a convenience sample of Turkish respondents who were asked, through open-ended questions, to list three countries towards which they feel a greater animosity and the reasons behind it. Following this stage, an online preliminary survey to a convenience sample of 163 Turkish consumers was used to quantitatively pre-test the animosity scale for Israel, identified as one of the countries suffering from a greater animosity among the Turks. The study also aimed to investigate the potential influence of the construct on the affective image of Israel and on the intention to visit this country. The respondents were solicited by posting an invitation to participate in the research via social media networks and discussion forums on topics related to entertainment and leisure.

In this preliminary study the animosity construct was measured based on five dimensions formed by the underlying causes of hostility – economic, people, political, religious, historical and military – followed by a general animosity component based on feelings towards the country. As explained above, this measure of animosity was created by generating items from the literature (Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Maher and Mady, 2010; Nes et al., 2012), and from the initial survey of open-ended questions, which shed information on additional causes of animosity towards a particular country. Affective country image and intention to visit were evaluated using the scales utilized in Alvarez and Campo’s (2014) research. The results obtained from this survey are discussed in this paper and are used in order to support the subsequent stage of the research, a larger-scale online questionnaire-based study, which is still ongoing.
Results

According to the findings of descriptive statistics, the Turks exhibit a high level of animosity towards Israel. Items related to political, military and religious animosity show higher means, indicating a greater level of animosity in relation to these aspects. In addition, the means for the affective country image and the intention to visit the destination are extremely low (lower than 2.0 on a 5-point Likert scale for all items).

The results also provide a more in-depth understanding of the dimensionality of the animosity scale and the relative weights of the various components on the overall construct. According to the research, in the case of Israel a variety of underlying reasons determine the high level of animosity that the Turks suffer against this country. In particular, people, political and historical animosity have a greater weight in the overall animosity component. The model of estimated relationships and the relative weights of the various animosity components on the overall animosity construct are shown in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1. Model of estimated relationships](image)

The findings also support the influencing role of animosity towards a country such as Israel on the individual’s intention to visit the place, as seen in Figure 1. However, this effect is indirect, mediated by the affective country image component. Thus, this study confirms in the tourism context Nes et al.’s (2012) model of the influence of animosity on purchase intentions through the mediating role of affective country evaluations.

Discussion and Conclusions

The study confirms the multidimensionality of the animosity construct and provides a greater understanding of its underlying components. While the results support the idea that consumer animosity towards a country has a significant influence in the individual’s decision to visit the place for tourism purposes, it determines that the effect of animosity on the intention to visit is indirect, mediated by affective country image evaluations. Thus, the investigation extends the application of existing animosity related findings to tourism,
confirming the importance of the construct for subsequent analyses in destination and place research.

The study thus contributes to a better grasp on how perceptions of places are constructed by individuals based on individual or national experiences, and how these in turn affect behavioural intentions. Within this context, the animosity construct needs to be better understood as it may provide a useful basis for tourism segmentation. The important role of affective country evaluations is also highlighted in this research, in support of previous tourism studies on the topic (Alvarez and Campo, 2014; Kim and Yoon, 2003). However, since this is a preliminary study based on a convenience sample and a relatively low sample size, the results obtained need to be further assessed through further studies. These future investigations may also examine the animosity construct and its different components for various countries.

Acknowledgement

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References


The Influence of Information Sources on Tourist Image Fragmentation

Raquel Camprubí, PhD.
Lluís Coromina, PhD.
University of Girona, Faculty of Tourism
Girona, Spain
raquel.camprubi@udg.edu

Introduction

Research has demonstrated the relevance of tourist image as a factor in understanding tourist behaviour, particularly during the decision-making process (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). In this context, information sources (IS) have been postulated as one of the most influential factors in tourist image formation during the decision-making process (Dey & Sarma, 2010). Therefore, the tourist image is extremely strategic for creating, maintaining or increasing tourism demand for a destination. It is for this reason that Govers and Go (2004) mention the need “to formulate a plan for projecting the ‘right’ image” as one of the essential parts of a tourism development strategy. Dissonances or incongruities on emitted images can have consequences on the image perceived by tourists (Camprubí et al., 2014; Govers & Go, 2004).

In this regard, several studies have contributed to understanding the extent to which each type of IS influences tourist behaviour (Fodness & Murray, 1999), and their contribution to image perception (Li et al., 2009). There are some insights into the analysis of image perception gaps (Govers & Go, 2004) and the image fragmentation of urban destinations in tourism brochures tourists (Camprubí et al., 2014). However, there are no studies that clearly relate the tourist perceived image of a destination and IS used, with the aim of finding out incongruences among the various IS used. When significant incongruences are detected, this is an indication that projected tourist image in the various IS is different. This shows, therefore, that tourist destination image is fragmented.

Literature review

A tourist image is conceived as a mental construction, where the visual component comes in second place, in front of previous knowledge of tourists, their impressions and beliefs (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Kotler et al., 1993). However, “the tourist image is, at the same time, a subjective construction (that varies from person to person) and a social construction, based on the idea of collective imagination” (Galí & Donaire, 2005, p.778). Therefore, any individual has images of tourism destinations in their mind, whether they have visited them or not (Gunn, 1988). The influential factors of these images are varied and several studies have tried to explain the image formation process (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). In particular, Baloglu and McCleary (1999) identify three main issues: tourism motivations, socio-demographics, and various IS.

Regarding IS, Gartner (1994) in his seminal contribution identify a continuum of agents that contribute to image formation of a destination. Each one of these agents represents one or more tourist IS which influence visitors’ perception of the destination. Tasci and Gartner (2007) observe the controllable and uncontrollable nature of these IS in tourist image projections, and how an image is perceived by tourists. We can see that some authors have tried to determine the influence of IS on tourism image components (Alvarez & Campo, 2011; McDowall, 2010), where word-of-mouth are one of the most influential IS (Fodness & Murray,

1997; Llodrà-Riera et al., 2015). Other authors have analysed information searches (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Schul & Crompton, 1983), including number and types of IS used.

Related to Information and Communication Technologies, Buhalis and Law (2008) assert that Internet has revolutionised the search for information, and it is one of the significant factors in the purchase decision-making process. It is also positioned as a relevant IS (Frias et al., 2012; McCartney et al., 2008). Baloglu and McClearly (1999) concluded that offline IS influence both cognitive and affective evaluations in the image formation process; and later, Li et al., (2009, p.55) found that “active online information search may change participants’ destination image, particularly its affective aspects”. Nevertheless, knowledge about differences between the use of online and offline information search is scarce (Ho et al., 2012).

Methods and material

A total of 594 tourists were interviewed in Palafrugell, Costa Brava (Spain), between April and September 2014. Questions about sources of information and perceived image were included in the survey.

Six different IS were included in a multiple-choice question in the questionnaire; specifically, three online IS (official website, tourism blogs, search engines) and three offline sources (brochures, mass media, and word-of-mouth).

A destination's perceived image can be classified in three categories (Dilley, 1986; Santos, 1998): culture, heritage, and landscape. For each category, four pictures of the destination were shown. Each respondent had to select the picture in each category they thought that was the most representative.

The number of sources of information and their typology are analysed in order to identify whether they are determinants for the image selection. Differentiation between online and offline IS, as well their number, are considered. An Anova-test was carried out in order to detect whether the number of IS varies according to the typology of the images. Additionally, since more than two categories of images exist, post-hoc tests are also studied.

Results

Descriptive statistics on online IS show that 52% of tourists use search engines, such as Google, 36% of tourists use the official website, and tourism blogs are used by 13% of tourists. From the offline IS, 42% use word-of-mouth, 12% use tourism brochures and 10% use mass media information.

Results suggest that the number of IS used influences picture selection. Therefore, this means that IS have an effect on the perceived tourist image. In general, tourists who use less IS, tend to select more pictures showing well-known destination attributes. For instance, in the case of landscape, a picture of a beach was the image most selected, and this corresponds to the lowest average for the number of IS used. On the contrary, tourists with the highest average of IS used selected a botanical garden, which was globally the least selected image.

On one hand, considering the influence of online and offline IS on the decision-making process, results show that the correlation between the number of online and offline IS used and the number of pictures selected is negative, corroborating the fact that tourists using less online or offline IS select pictures related to well-known destination attributes.

On the other hand, there is a positive correlation between the number of online and offline IS used. However, the degree to which it correlates varies. These findings are related to the concept of tourist image fragmentation (Camprubí et al., 2014), meaning that when online and offline IS match, more similar are the images induced through these sources, and therefore perceived by tourists. In the opposite situation, when differences exist between
online and offline sources, there is a higher dissonance or fragmentation in projected images. This means that the images are differently perceived by tourists, depending on the IS used.

In this study, both online and offline IS are highest correlated in the landscape category, while the correlation in culture is the lowest. Therefore, selected pictures in the landscape category are similar whether using online or offline IS. However, in the case of culture, there are notable differences between the two types of IS used.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Considering the relevance of IS in the image formation process, this study concludes that the number of IS used during the decision-making process effects the perceived image. Consequently, a higher number of IS imply that the tourist has a deeper knowledge of the destination, and therefore he or she associates less well-known attributes to a destination, in contrast to tourists who have used a smaller number of IS.

At the same time, we can see that tourists perceive different tourist images depending on the IS they have used. Online and offline IS with various categories of pictures show different behaviour, concluding that, in these cases, incongruence among various projected images exists in the different IS.

For decision-makers in tourism destinations it is extremely useful to know, if fragmentation of the tourism image exists. The reasons are twofold: firstly, to determine if the attributes transmitted by specific IS are in accordance with the destination strategy; and secondly, it helps determine the appropriate image strategy and define the “image mix”. This refers to the continuum of factors that need to be taken into account to decide which agents will intervene in the formation of the tourist image, as well as the amount of money budgeted for image development, characteristics of target markets, demographic characteristics and timing (Gartner, 1994).

For academic literature, this study deepens knowledge about tourism image fragmentation and its possible influence on tourist image perception.

**References**


'There is not a school in the entire world like it': Pride and Privilege in the Historic Campus tour

Dr Elizabeth Carnegie
Sheffield University Management School
Sheffield
UK
e.carnegie@sheffield.ac.uk

Dr Simon Woodward
School of Events, Tourism & Hospitality
Leeds Beckett University
UK

Introduction

Universities are becoming increasingly significant within the corpus of research on tourism destination development and management, with research considering topics such as: the local economic contribution of sports events and conferences held on campus; the contribution of university events and activities to constructing place identity and representations of universities in popular culture (See Woodward, 2013, for an overview of recent research in these areas). Work has also been done on the role of university students in place-making (Shaw & Fincher, 2011). What is evident from the research carried out to date is that often the presence of students is part of the overall experience consumed by visitors, whether these are encountered in an informal fashion (e.g. as fellow customers in a bar or café, or more formally where students are acting as tour guides to a historic campus. Thus the presence of tourists on a university campus where they are able to engage with both the built environment but also the faculty and students who are present, represents an interesting but so far little explored aspect of the co-creation of values in a destination, where these values reflect not only what Smith (2006) might refer to as the Authorised Heritage Discourse (AHD) of that institution but also more the personal perspectives and values of the different stakeholders.

Despite many internationally renowned universities such as Harvard or UVa in the USA or Oxford, Durham and Cambridge in the UK, running regular tours that attract tens of thousands of tourists per annum onto campus, this topic of students as tour guide, presenter and interpreter of university ceremonial practices, heritage and institutional ambition, remains under-researched.

Nonetheless, there has of course been a considerable amount of published work in recent years on the role of the tourism guide as mediator where ‘Local’ and national guides are frequently seen as ambassadors, possessing unique local knowledge which they express within the professional frame of an increasingly globalised discourse (Salazar, 2005, p. 631). As ‘live’ and unpredictable interpreters, guides offer varying narratives according to their relationship, and the tour group’s relationship, with the site and locality. To summarise, therefore, the focus of the research is on student guides as mediators and co-creators (with their audiences) of a campus tourism experience. Our theoretical approach to the work reflects both Smith’s idea of the Authorised Heritage Discourse as those stories that ‘must be told’ and also drawing on Salazar above and Katz’ work on the way that guides can be deemed to de-objectivise or ‘de-neutralise’ space (Katz, 1985) as well as personalizing the experience for themselves and others.
Methods and material

This project forms part of a fuller study looking at how historically significant and otherwise elite universities which are also WHS', create a sense of pride and privilege in their student body. In this paper we focus on an aspect of this study – the role of the historic tour. Semi-structured interviews were held with 7 student guides working in two such elite and historic universities; University of Virginia in the USA and the University of Durham in the UK, in order to provide rich qualitative data (Long, 2007) (Veal, 2011).

One reason for selecting these two case study locations is that parts of both campuses have been awarded World Heritage Site status by UNESCO, the former principally because of its associations with Thomas Jefferson and the latter because of the political, religious and educational significance of the key buildings within the WHS boundary. As a result, there is an additional layer of value – that of Outstanding Universal Value (OUV) – that has to be negotiated as well as those values associated with student life and tourist expectation. Only by interviewing respondents at length were we able to understand the refined nature of personal association with the establishments’ tangible and intangible heritage, and how this is shared with visitors in the co-creation of the visitor experience.

Results

This research focuses on ‘historic tours’ given to tourists and local visitors by current students and it is in these ‘community’ based tours that our enquiry is situated, rather than in tours that target potential applicants.

Within such tours there is an element of ‘baton passing’ as new generations of students perform this often prestigious role with individual students interpreting the site from their own perspective within the parameters of approved topics. Thus mythologies of place, ceremonial rites and superstitions are blended with historical detail as part of the student’s own journey through the university.

The tour guides reflect the notion of a student community united in their pride of place. Crucially, student-led historic tours are an interesting example of the co-creation of a tourist experience as they combine both the experience of the guide him or herself, and the expectation of the visitor.

Our results show that whilst student guides are expected to impart the OUV and indeed AHD angle, as this is what is important from their University’s corporate perspective, they report that at least as much interest is shown by tour participants in the more mundane, prosaic areas of student life in these prestigious buildings. Thus the guides need to become expert in mediating between the requirements of their employer – the host institution – and the expectations of the guest. Since positions as campus tour guides are seen as prestigious, there is an additional burden on the guides to perform well and meet the aspirations of both parties, creating at times a tension in what they feel able to impart. Thus these guides appear quickly to move away from the delivery of set scripts towards the presentation of a more personal story that blends their own relationship with the university and its campus with the much longer traditions and heritage of the institution.

We also found that student guides become very adept, very quickly, at recognizing the types of anecdote that will appeal to different audience types – this too means that at times they move away from the conventional narrative expected of them by the University.

Discussion and Conclusions

Our findings demonstrate that student tour guides occupy a unique role within the broader guiding community as they are interpreting and sharing their own experience within
an educational institution that expects them to present a particular world view on heritage that presents the organization in the most favourable light possible. Moreover, because they are generally only active as guides within the institution for a relatively short period of time – generally 3 years – there is the potential for an almost continual reinvention of the visitor experience as new cohorts of guide retain institutional memory in some areas, but build their own ideas as well.

This thus leads to a dynamic and complex situation where tourist tours of a historic university campus are almost continually reinvented since neither the audience nor the guide remain the same for long. As such, this paper neatly encapsulates a key theme of the 6th Advances in Tourism Marketing (ATMC) Conference, namely the co-creation of values around a visitor experience in a heritage setting. It also fits with Marketing tourism places and spaces and indeed the notion of sustainability in the tourist experience.

**Bibliography**


Impact of Tourism on the Quality of Life of Residents: The Role of Social Interaction

Maria João Carneiro  
Celeste Eusébio  
Ana Caldeira

Department of Economics, Management and Industrial Engineering, Full Researcher at GOVCOPP – Research Unit in Governance, Competitiveness and Public Policies, University of Aveiro, Portugal  
mjcarneiro@ua.pt

Introduction and literature review  
In the last decades, a growing interest on Quality of Life (QOL) can be noticed in the field of tourism (e.g. Chancellor, Yu, & Cole, 2011; Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013; Nawijn & Mitas, 2012). A high number of the studies undertaken focus on the effect of tourism on the QOL of tourists (e.g. Dolnicar, Lazarevski, & Yanamandram, 2013; Eusébio & Carneiro, 2014). Nevertheless, one of the main objectives of tourism development is to improve the QOL of the residents of tourism destinations (Yu, Cole, & Chancellor, 2014). The analysis of the contributions of the tourism activity to the residents’ QOL has been highly neglected. The research that investigates the QOL of these residents has revealed that tourism may have negative impacts on some QOL domains – e.g. congestion, some kinds of pollution - but is likely to have high positive impacts on several other QOL domains, such as preservation of natural and cultural heritage, increase of recreation opportunities, increase of job opportunities and income (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Andereck, Valentine, Vogt, & Knopf, 2007; Yu et al., 2014).

Few researches have analyzed the factors that influence the residents’ perceptions concerning the tourism impact on their QOL. Some determinants of this impact already investigated are socio-demographic factors (e.g. age, gender, education, marital status, employment) (Khizindar, 2012), seasonal factors (Jeong, Kang, & Desmarais, 2014), place of residence (Andereck et al., 2007; Chancellor et al., 2011) and quality of the tourism destinations (Lipovčan, Brajša-Žganec, & Pljanec-Borié, 2014). The encounters between local residents and tourists are considered an important component of the tourism activity. It is also recognized that this contact may differ on several factors such as the place where it occurs, the type of activities involved and the intensity of contact undertaken (Eusébio & Carneiro, 2012). Encounters between tourists and hosts can take place when tourists purchase goods and services, when tourists ask for information or, simply, when tourists and hosts go to the same place (De Kadt, 1979). Nevertheless, the potential influence of host-tourist interactions on the residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their QOL has been greatly ignored. The few studies that examine the influence of host-tourist interaction (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Nawijn & Mitas, 2012) in this context suggest that this contact and the satisfaction with it are likely to lead to perceptions of a more positive impact of tourism on QOL. The research of Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) reveals that, in the case of the residents of Arizona, the amount of contact that residents had with tourists had a positive impact on the perception of personal benefits they obtained from tourism. Nawijn and Mitas’ (2012) study shows that, in Palma de Mallorca, the residents who consider the host-tourist interaction positive, tend to perceive a higher QOL in several domains - family, neighborhood, self, services and infrastructure. However, the impact of both, specific types of contacts with tourists and of satisfaction with these contacts, on the several domains of residents’ QOL has not been properly investigated yet. This paper aims to fill these gaps by carrying out an

empirical study, in two Portuguese coastal communities, that assesses the impact of several types of host-tourist interactions, and of satisfaction with these interactions, on several residents’ QOL domains (see Figure 1 and Hypotheses).

**Figure 1:** Proposed model of social contact and impact of tourism on residents’ QOL

**H1** – The social contact with visitors in several contexts has a positive effect on the residents’ perceptions of tourism impact on several domains of their QOL.

**H2** – The social contact with visitors in several contexts has a positive effect on the residents’ satisfaction with the social contact with visitors.

**H3** – The residents’ satisfaction with social contact with visitors has a positive effect on the residents’ perceptions of tourism impact on several domains of their QOL.

**H4** – Residents’ satisfaction with social contact with visitors has a positive effect on the residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their overall QOL.

**H5** – Residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on several domains of their QOL has a positive effect on perceptions of tourism impacts on their overall QOL.

**Methods and material**

To accomplish the objectives of this paper a questionnaire was directed to residents of two coastal communities - Barra and Costa Nova – located in the municipality of Ílhavo in the Central Region of Portugal. The questionnaire addresses, apart from the residents’ profile, their perceptions about impacts of tourism on their QOL, social interaction with visitors and their level of satisfaction with that interaction. The residents were invited to indicate their level of agreement, using a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree” with 22 statements related to the impact of tourism on several domains of residents’ QOL. The statements used derived from a literature review about the impacts of tourism on the residents’ QOL (e.g. Andereck et al., 2007; Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). To assess the residents' interaction with visitors, the residents were requested to report the frequency with which they had some types of interaction (14 types) with visitors, identified based on a literature review (e.g. De Kadt 1979; Eusébio & Carneiro, 2012; Reisinger & Turner, 1998), using a 7-point Likert type scale from 1 “never” to 7 “very frequently”. Furthermore, residents were also invited to mention their level of satisfaction with the
contact with visitors in their community, using also a 7-point Likert type scale, from 1 “very unsatisfied” to 7 “very satisfied”.

The survey was undertaken with personal administration of the questionnaire in the two communities in May 2012, using a quota sampling approach, based on gender and age. In order to analyse the validity and reliability of the questionnaire used, a pilot test was conducted in the communities under analysis. A total of 308 responses were considered valid for further analyses. Descriptive statistics were adopted to identify the socio-economic profile of respondents. Two Principal Component Analyses (PCA) were carried out to identify dimensions of social contact with visitors and residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on several domains of their QOL. Further, a Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLSSEM), using the SmartPLS 3.0 programme, was adopted to test the research model proposed (Figure 1).

Results’ discussion and conclusions

The sample was composed by 55% of respondents who lived in Costa Nova and 45% in Barra. The sample is balanced in terms of gender (48% female), there is a great diversity in terms of level of education, a dominance of residents between 25 and 60 years old (66%) with low incomes (60% have a household monthly net income lower than 1000€). About 27% of respondents have a job related to tourism and about 64% lived in this community for more than 5 years.

Three interaction dimensions emerged from the PCA of interaction items: (i) close interaction; (ii) interaction at work; and (iii) interaction in attractions & facilities (Table 1). The social contact was very low in all the contexts analysed (lower than 4 in a seven-point Likert type scale), being especially low regarding close contacts (e.g. sharing meals with visitors and exchanging gifts with visitors), corroborating other studies that also reveal a brief and superficial social host-tourist interaction (Eusébio & Carneiro, 2012; Reisinger & Turner, 1998). However, residents reveal a high satisfaction with that interaction (5.81 in a seven-point Likert type scale

### Table 1: Measurement statistics of Host-tourist interaction construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host-tourist interaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Indicator Loadings</th>
<th>t-value (^a)</th>
<th>Composite reliability</th>
<th>Average Variance Extracted</th>
<th>Discriminant validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Close interaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inviting visitors to one’s home</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>32.43</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practising sports with visitors</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>14.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in parties with visitors</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>32.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing meals with visitors</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>37.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchanging gifts with visitors</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>26.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interaction at work</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in the workplace</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>27.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing visitors information about the municipality</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>25.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with visitors when providing them goods and services</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>28.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interaction in attractions &amp; facilities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in the beach</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>32.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in events</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>14.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in food and beverage establishments</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>32.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in other commercial establishments</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>37.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacting with visitors in discos, clubs and bars</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>26.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residents’ satisfaction with host-tourist interaction</strong></td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) t-values were obtained with the bootstrapping procedure (5000 samples) and are significant at the 0.001 level (two-tailed test)
Four domains of QOL emerged from the PCA of items representing the residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their QOL: (i) economic and social relationship opportunities; (ii) calm & safety; (iii) public facilities & services; and (iv) positive feelings (Table 2). Residents perceive high tourism impacts on all of their QOL domains (higher than 4.8 in a seven-point Likert scale) and on their overall QOL (5.26 in the same scale). The tourism impacts were particularly high on the psychological domain (positive feelings) and on the improvement of the environmental context (public facilities & services).

Table 2: Measurement statistics of tourism impacts on residents’ QOL construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their QOL</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Indicator Loadings</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>Average Variance Extracted</th>
<th>Discriminant Validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic &amp; social relationship opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having opportunity to carry on recreational activities</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>29.48</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having more job opportunities</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>26.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having opportunities to get more financial resources</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>25.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having opportunity to participate in cultural activities</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>32.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having opportunities for socialising</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>39.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having opportunities of contacting with people of different cultures</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>17.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having diversity of economic activities</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>30.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm &amp; safety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a healthy life</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>40.39</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in an unpolluted environment</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>53.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Feeling safe</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>36.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living without traffic jams and people</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>20.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in a quiet environment</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>48.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public facilities &amp; services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having facilities to promote mobility/accessibility</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>26.82</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having access to health services</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>23.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having access to good transport</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>32.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving natural environment</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>29.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving cultural heritage</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>33.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having restaurants and other commercial establishments</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>12.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling proud to live in this place</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having positive feelings</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>58.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their overall QOL</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.646</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* t-values were obtained with the bootstrapping procedure (5000 samples) and are significant at the 0.001 level (two-tailed test)

Confirming the reliability and validity of the measures used to represent each construct, assessment criteria such as composite reliability (> 0.7), outer loadings (> 0.6), average variance extracted (0.5) and discriminant validity (heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations <0.9), clearly satisfy the requirements (Tables 1 and 2). As for the inner model, the estimates were examined to assess the hypothesised relationships among the constructs in the conceptual model. The standardised path coefficients and significance levels provide evidence of the inner model’s quality, with t-values being obtained with the bootstrapping procedure (5000 samples). The indirect and total effects of the independent constructs on the dependent ones were also examined, since they provide useful information regarding cause-effect relationships.

The social interaction has a significant impact on the resident’s perceptions of the tourism impacts on their QOL (Table 3). However, this impact differs according to the type of interaction, being interaction at work the type of interaction with highest influence. Moreover, satisfaction with interaction influences positively all the domains of the QOL and is the construct with the second greater total effect on the tourism impacts on overall QOL.
perceived by residents. All the domains of the QOL have a significant positive influence on the overall QOL perceived. The results highlight the relevance of stimulating social interaction between residents and visitors in order to increase the impacts of tourism on the residents’ QOL. Considering the important role of interaction with visitors in the perceived impact of tourism on residents’ QOL and the valuable knowledge of residents regarding the local culture, activities that promote encounters between residents and visitors should be encouraged. Moreover, a high involvement of the local community in the supply of tourism services (e.g. as tour guides, as story tellers, as handicraftsmen communicating with visitors) should be stimulated by those responsible for tourism development.

Table 3: R2, direct, indirect and total effects on residents’ overall QOL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>t values</th>
<th>p values</th>
<th>t values</th>
<th>p values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Host-tourist interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close Interaction</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.428</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.428</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction at work</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>5.461***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>5.461***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction in attractions &amp; facilities</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>1.422</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>1.422</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with host-tourist interaction</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>4.673***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>4.183***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism impacts on residents’ QOL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic &amp; social relationship opportunities</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>1.803*</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm &amp; safety</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>2.221**</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public facilities &amp; services</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.567***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive feelings</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.907***</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents’ overall QOL</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***$p<0.001$  **$p<0.05$  *$p<0.1$  (two-tailed test)

References


Linking destination governance and tourists’ quality of service experience: a perspective from Mediterranean Sea basin tourists.

Amparo Cervera
Carmen Peréz-Cabanero
Walesska Schlesinger
Gregorio García
University of Valencia
m.walesska.schlesinger@uv.es

Introduction
Higher competition and globalization in tourism has increased rivalry between destinations (Go and Govers, 2000). Destinations are amalgams of tourism products which offer an integrated experience to consumers (Buhalis, 2000). Tourism destinations include a cluster of interrelated stakeholders embedded in a social network (Scott et al., 2008). These destination stakeholders include private and public agents such as accommodation businesses, tour companies, government agencies, representatives of the local community and residents, among others.

Governance is a key concept in politics and public policy that is increasingly utilised in tourism (Hall, 2011). Research has found governance as a key element in wellbeing with differences according to the level of development (Helliwell & Huang, 2008), gender nor economic level (Orviska et al. 2014). Governance policies should involve citizens in tourism development to fulfill international tourists’ demands of an authentic experience (Teare et al., 2013). Differences in the governance of tourism destinations may imply differences in the effectiveness of joint stakeholder interactions and hence to diverse destination competitiveness (Beamount and Dredge, 2010).

On the other hand, the study of tourists’ experience is pivotal according to academics and policy makers (Murray et al., 2010; Kao et al., 2008). In tourism, the quality of service experience relates to tourists’ affective responses (Chen and Chen, 2010). It is a holistic, multi-dimensional measure that assesses personal reactions and feelings in response to a tourist service (Otto and Ritchie, 1996).

Tourism literature has not studied governance from the tourists’ point of view despite it is a key stakeholder for destination management. Qualitative techniques are usually employed to interview tourism stakeholders from the supply side (Konstantinos, 2002; Kirby et al., 2011; Aretano et al., 2013).

The main contribution of this paper is to analyze tourists’ perceptions of destination governance and its link with tourists’ quality of service experience using a big sample of Mediterranean tourists.

The objective of this paper is twofold. First, we analyze the governance of Mediterranean destinations according to the perception of a key stakeholder: tourists. We posit that there may be differences between North Mediterranean and South Mediterranean destinations. Second, we explore the link between destination governance and tourists’ quality of service experience. As far as we know, destination governance has not been assessed by tourists in previous research nor its influence on tourists’ quality of service experience. Therefore, these are the two main contributions of the current paper.

1 This research is funded by the EU, Project No. IB/1.3/561 Newcimed: New Cities of the Mediterranean Sea Basin. The UE is not responsible of the content of this paper.
Literature review

The concept of governance applied to tourist destinations consists of setting and developing rules, mechanisms and also business strategies by involving all private and public institutions and individuals related to that destination (Beritelli et al., 2007). This is an inclusive process, as each stakeholder incorporates qualities, skills and significant resources to the system. In this process, are important building and maintaining trust, commitment and negotiation (Bovaird and Löffler, 2003).

In this sense, tourism, being a product of the territory and not just of the business, needs the joint governance of all tourism supply stakeholders, with the aim of ensuring the effective implementation of the processes that must be carried out: reception, establishment of an integrated, sustainable, accessible and profitable territorial offer; and the creation of the environmental and infrastructure conditions needed for the provision of a quality service. The objective is, therefore, to establish a series of innovative tools in order to improve tourism development, sustainability and participation in decision-making. Tourism demand is high and increasing, so the problems that may arise in tourism management need to be systematically tackled by all parties concerned (Yüksel et al., 2005; Pulido et al., 2013).

Previous research has found that destination governance reflects specific local and country conditions (D’Angella et al., 2010). Thus we propose our first research question:

RQ1: There are different governance structures in North and South Mediterranean destinations.

One of the first sound works on the quality of service experience in tourism is by Otto and Ritchie (1996). Quality of service experience holistically and subjectively assesses tourists’ personal experiences and reflects their affective responses. Although some authors suggest that governance impacts on tourists’ experience, they do not survey this issue (Kirby et al., 2011; Teare et al., 2013). Thus, we propose our second research question:

RQ2: There is a positive effect of destination governance on tourists’ quality of service experience.

Methods & materials

In order to achieve our objectives, we follow a quantitative approach on the basis of a structured questionnaire including questions regarding destination governance, tourists’ quality of service experience and other classification items such as gender, country of origin, education and other demographical data.

The context of our research is based on subjective data obtained through surveys of tourists in seven cities of the Mediterranean basin: Tafilah (Jordan), Tyre (Lebanon), Maamoura (Tunisia), Oristano (Italy), Latina (Italy), Sicily (Italy) and Cullera (Spain). The first three cities belong to the Southern Mediterranean arch, and the remaining four to the northern arch. Respondents were tourists who had just finished their visit to a tourist site. The survey yielded 1362 valid responses.

Previous research on destination governance has employed qualitative techniques such as case studies. Further, they usually interview internal stakeholders like residents (Andriotis, 2002; Aretano et al., 2013), owners of lodges (Kirby et al., 2011), state managers, local managers, community leaders and consultants (Ariza et al., 2014, D’Angela et al., 2010; Baggio et al., 2010; Beritelli et al., 2007). In our research, we assess destination governance according to tourists’ perceptions of issues regarding public and private agents. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

In order to gather information about the quality of service experience, we used the scale by Otto and Ritchie (1996). They propose six original dimensions integrating the service

experience, however, after an empirical field work, the scale is reduced to 23 items grouped in four dimensions: hedonics, peace of mind, involvement and recognition. In our research, all items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Data analysis includes multivariate analysis.

Table 1. Characteristics of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universe</th>
<th>Tourists at seven cities in the Mediterranean Sea basin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SAMPLE</td>
<td>Tafilah (Jordan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tyre (Lebanon)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maamoura (Tunisia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oristano (Italy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Latina (Italy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sicily (Italy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cullera (Spain)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total southern Mediterranean</td>
<td>n = 557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total northern Mediterranean</td>
<td>n = 808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical scope</td>
<td>Mediterranean Sea basin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection method</td>
<td>Self-report questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling procedure</td>
<td>Non-probabilistic method: convenience sampling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research and results

We expect to confirm the two research questions proposed in this paper. Consequently, we expect to find different governance perceptions by tourists in North and South Mediterranean destinations. Additionally, we expect a positive relationship between tourism governance and tourists’ quality of the service experience.

Discussion and conclusions

The Mediterranean welcomes huge numbers of tourists each year, which greatly affects surrounding countries. Planning and managing Mediterranean tourism is therefore important to minimize tourism negative effects and enhance its positive impacts. Destination governance can be a strategic mechanism for adapting tourist agents and policies to changing demands while maintaining integrity and functionality (Baggio et al., 2010).

Faced with growing competition, it has become imperative for destination marketers to understand the symbolic value and experiential qualities of tourism destinations. Successful tourism marketing strategies should rest on an appreciation of the distinguishing and unique characteristics of tourists’ experiences (Hosany and Gilbert, 2010) in order to improve tourists’ quality of service experience at destinations.

The current research expects to make two significant contributions. First, it makes a comparison of governance issues in North and South Mediterranean destinations according to tourists’ perceptions. Second, it explores the link between governance and tourists’ quality of service experience. To our knowledge, there is lack of research regarding these issues using quantitative data from tourists at Mediterranean destinations.

Our findings regarding governance differences in North and South Mediterranean destinations suggest which aspects should be improved in each area according to tourists’ perceptions of the role of different tourist agents: local authorities, employees, residents, and some policies on the destination promotion and the protection of natural resources, among others. Thus destination governance can be improved following tourists guidelines.

Findings regarding the positive link between governance and tourists’ quality of service experience would underline the relevance of a good planning and coordination between the
agents involved in destination management. As suggested by Beritelli et al. (2015), governance structures and networks should be actively managed in order to create better conditions to success and enhance the tourist’s experience.

There are additional managerial implications. A better understanding of the overall tourist experience can help companies enhance their delivery of current services and also inspire innovation. Tourist services should emphasize elements regarding the emotional side of the overall experience. In fact, many tourist organizations are increasingly boosting the participation of the public in their policies and programs (Gilmore and Rentschler, 2002) in line with recent co-creation policies. Successful tourist innovation should consider aspects from those dimensions of tourists’ quality of service experience which are valued by tourists. Qualitative market research would be very helpful for this task.

Further research in the field of destination governance must address the integration of theories, for example, the agency theory, political economy, the dyadic and the network perspectives, as well as the validation of the findings for other countries and cultural settings. Further implications of governance and tourists’ quality of service experience can also be studied.

References


Self-pampering or health maintaining? A study of perceived food experiences, motivation, and perceived well-being of tourists of hot spring resorts

Janet Chang  
National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism  
jc.chang1001@gmail.com

Chih-Hung Wang  
National Taichung University of Education

Abstract

To date, experiencing hot spring and food have become a vital part of travel and leisure marketing. By using the WOW bear as the travel endorser, ROC Tourism Bureau is trying to protect tourists’ protection of the experience by undertaking a promotional campaign including presenting featuring a map that authenticates of various hot spring spots throughout the island as well as the good hot spring and food carnival in Taiwan from the beginning of October 2014 to January of 2015. The grand prize of the lucky draw is two round-trip airline tickets in between Taipei and Osaka, Japan. Experiencing the hot spring is one type of health tourism, involving the pursuit of both wellness and holiday enjoyment. Tourism and hospitality industries, are well-known for creating happiness for human beings, and, as such, an integral part of well-being/wellness industries. Therefore, and in this way, the patronage of hot spring resort has become a way of obtaining well-being as a core component of tourist experiences.

The combination of food and travel can not only improve both residents and tourists’ quality of life but further increase the well-being. In fact, food is an essential attraction of hot spring tourism, while well-being is identified as a psychological indicator of health and quality of life. However, the relevant studies are scant, in particular those using integrated approaches in exploring the relation among food experiences, motivations of experiencing hot spring and perceived well-being. Hotels enjoy the reputation of being seen as the mother of the tourism industry. As such, this research aims to examine perceived well-being, tourist motivation, food perception and experiences of hot spring resorts.

This research intends to use the mixed method to collect data, conducting analysis, explaining and integrating findings of qualitative and quantitative data. To illustrate further, the progress of the research for the first part aims to collect secondary data, conducting literature reviews, administering qualitative approaches including free-listing and in-depth interview methods by using both the qualitative software package of statistics: Anthropac and the content analysis so as to meet the requirements of triangulation. As for the progress of the second part, a quantitative approach will be used in an attempt to understand and to examine the model of the perceived well-being, tourist motivation, and food experiences in using hot spring hotels.

The expected academic contributions include the adoption of integrated theories of tourist motivation, tourist food experiences i.e., neophobic and neophylic, perceived well-being so as to obtain and develop a concrete understanding of the profiles and perceptions of tourists of hot spring resorts. In turn, a gap between theoretical and practical fields could be filled. As for the practical contributions, the findings of this research expect to provide references for both industries and governmental departments in enacting relevant policies and implementation of management “best practices”. By doing so, a better blue-ocean strategy and a competitive model can be created for hot spring resorts and related hot spring recreation districts.
Genealogy Tourism Market Opportunities of Hakka Homeland in China

Chen-Chi Chang  
Department of Culture Creativity and Digital Marketing, National United University  
No.2, Lienda, Miaoli 36003, Taiwan, R.O.C.  
kiwi@nuu.edu.tw

Introduction  
The modern tourism market seems increasingly characterized by a multiplicity of demand for alternative cultures, entertainments and attractions, and stimulating new tourism segments (Novelli, 2007). It has long been recognized that cultural tourism develops rapidly within global movement societies and countries. Researchers recently have started to focus explicitly on tourism and cultural heritage management (Du Cros, 2001; Silberberg, 1995; Zeppel & Hall, 1991). Cultural tourism business opportunities have been a pathway in bringing minority communities into mainstream tourism development (Sofield & Li, 1998). One of the important forms of cultural tourism may be classified as “ethnic tourism”. Ethnic tourism is defined as that form of tourism where the cultural exoticism of natives is the main tourist attractant (Van den Berghe, 1992). In advance, according to the previous study, there are two types of ethnic tourism. One of them is genealogy tourism (also refer to root tourism) and the other is tourism with the purpose of getting to know other people’s differing cultural background from an authentic approach (Csapó, 2012). The genealogy tourism market opportunities presented in this study confirm that niche tourism can be defined in relation to its multitude of factors interacting and responding to a changing tourism demand and market trends. In Chinese, Hakka is a special ethnic group. The Hakka people are one branch of the Han Chinese who lives predominantly in the provinces of Taiwan, Guangdong, Jiangxi, and Fujian in China. The whole Hakka history is the Hakka migration history. While certain niche segments, such as cultural heritage, sport and adventure tourism, are widely known and easily recognizable, there are others listed under newly born micro-niches, such as photographic, genealogy and research tourism. Genealogy (Zupu in Chinese) is the history of Chinese families. Genealogy has been widely used for the tracing of their lineages and history (Chang, Chao, & Wu, 2013). Since Hakka is one of the Chinese ethnic minority groups. Tracing of their lineages and family history is a powerful emotion for Hakka people.

Genealogy Tourism  
Family history can be a very interesting and as a research field has not yet been much explored. The Genealogy is one kind of family history record. In previous study, Liaw (2003) provides extensive discussions of genealogy, overview of genealogical documents reorganization, antiquarianism, as well as the genealogy of the contribution. As more and more people become interested in researching their family roots, this study presents new and exciting commercial opportunities. In the past, genealogy is the record of basic information about births, marriages and deaths is linked together to form a family tree. Writing the genealogy is a journey of discovery – if you haven’t started researching your family tree yet, you are missing out on what must be the world’s fastest growing hobby (Taylor, 2002). Researching your family history is a journey of discovery that isn’t over until you have actually visited your ancestral homeland (Novelli, 2007). Recently, the tracing of our ancestors has become a major preoccupation – genealogy as one of the most popular subjects on the internet(Gilchrist, 2000). Genealogy tourism, also called personal heritage tourism (Timothy, 1997), roots tourism, ancestral tourism or Diaspora tourism, refers to “restless or
halfway” populations who sojourn back to their homeland to engage in the re-making and de-making of their identities (Ross, 2010).

**Hakka Genealogy Development**

The Hakka people are one branch of the Han Chinese who lives predominantly in the provinces of Taiwan, Guangdong, Jiangxi, and Fujian in China (Xie, 2007). Hakka is one of the oldest Chinese ethnic groups. Hakka people have a strong preservation of the culture, heritage, particularly in the dialect. Instead of living in the same region, the history of the Hakka is one migration and conflicts with the people they lived around and competed with for land. There were many difficulties in migration of Hakkas. Hakkas have been consciousness that not afraid of predicaments and courageous spirit. The reason for Hakkas special attention to the genealogy records is that they leave hometown frequently. Hakka genealogy contents include migration process of the family, genetically related, marital status, Family Instructions, and so on. The nature of Hakkas owe to ancestors. It will affect the emphasis on their genealogy. Hakka genealogy is an important part of Hakka culture. The family rules and regulations in the genealogy, which are the crystallization of their ancestors’ philosophies and experiences of life, represent the values of the Hakkas (Li, 2006). Liaw (2003) also noted that there are important historical value of genealogy include economic, demographic, educational, ethnic and religious, etc (Liaw, 2003). Nowadays, several studies indicated that genealogy as the critical reference because of their potential to disentangle complex population histories (Kuhner, 2009; Meskill, 1970; Zatloukal & Harvey, 2004). In the past, genealogy often consists of a family or a clan as a unit and writing in the paper. Various social and environmental factors, such as war, natural disasters and migration lead genealogies has been damaged or disappeared. Several sites offer the services that genealogy writer and provide offspring to find their ancestors. Such as Ancestry.com (Ancestry, 2012), and Taiwan Genealogy Online (National Central Library, 2012).

**Business Opportunities of Shibi Hakka Homeland**

New niche marketing strategy, like developing business opportunities of genealogy tourism services or taking advantage of ancestral resources produced by Hakka homeland, could with creative thinking arise over the traditional services of tourism industry. Genealogy is an important resource of ancestral tourism, as well as ancestral tourism is beneficial to develop genealogy. Hakka culture has high experience value, enjoying value, educational value and scientific values in genealogy development, which was not only preserving ancient Hakka culture, but also integrating local cultural industry. Genealogy tourism in this study defines as a visit to Hakka homeland partly or wholly motivated by the need to reconnect with family’s ancestors or roots. Hakka homeland in China is the town of Shibi of Ninghua. Ninghua is a county of Sanming, in western Fujian province, People’s Republic of China, bordering Jiangxi to the west. The town of Shibi of Ninghua is well known as the cradle of the Hakka. Shibi bills itself as the cradle of the Hakkas for its place in Hakka history. Shibi Village of Ninghua County, Fujian Province, which is acclaimed as the homeland of Hakkas, the cradle of Hakkas and the pilgrimage center of the Hakkas all over the world, possesses a world-class standing and its Hakka culture has had a great influence upon the world (Luo, 2008). Shibi, Ninghua is the cradle and originating area of Hakka and is the common home of Hakka in the world. As the ancient field of Hakka, Shibi has rich Hakka culture resources, which are important resources of tourism developing (Huang, 2011). Ancestral tourism is a growing and important niche market for Hakka homeland. With over 100 million people across the globe able to lay claim to Hakkas ancestry, the scope and potential of this market for Hakkas tourism is huge, and the good news is that there are real opportunities for businesses right across the country.
to benefit (Zhan, 2014). Hakka Cultural tourist area is an important tourism area of Fujian province. Hakka homeland culture is an important part of the tourist line in Northwest of Fujian province. It has an important position and role of the cultural tourism development in Fujian province (Yu, 2011). Since 1995, the leaders of overseas Hakka, all friends of the enthusiastic support and active participation of the World Hakka ancestral homeland ancestor worship ceremony has been successfully held 20 years, attracting more than millions Hakkas around the world.

The Ancestral Tourist Segments

Tourist segmentation is a very popular and broadly accepted way of increasing market profitability (Dolnicar & Leisch, 2003). Understanding the attractiveness of ancestral heritage to different tourist segments is a prerequisite to effective marketing strategy implementation. According to the genealogy curious and return intention to homeland, there are four kinds of ancestral tourists, see Figure 1. First, these tourists were fully supportive of the ancestral tourism experience and were known as return visitors. Secondly, there were tourists who were mildly curious about their ancestral heritage and were described as supplementary ancestral tourists. Supplementary ancestral tourists would research their family history while visiting homeland for other reasons. Thirdly, there were tourists who were highly curious about their ancestral heritage, however, had never been to homeland for low return intention. These tourists were known as potential ancestral tourists. Fourth, there were tourists who had been to homeland for other reasons but would consider participating in some ancestral research if it was of a very general nature such as a clan tour. These tourists were known as incidental ancestral tourists.

The Genealogy Tourism Marketing Matrix

The Strategic Marketing Matrix for Genealogy Tourism makes travel agents and senior managers to think about the intersection of genealogical connection and tourism attraction. The Genealogy Tourism Marketing Matrix has four alternatives of marketing strategies: well-developed genealogy tourism, enhance ancestral connection, improve tourism infrastructure
and potential genealogy tourism. Responding to this, this study proposed four key enablers can be identified that have facilitated the development of genealogy tourism, included information communication technology, resources, search for identity, and postmodern forms of tourism (Novelli, 2007).

**Information Communication Technology (Potential Genealogy Tourism)**

The role of the Internet has enhanced the growth in family history research and information technology can be credited for simplifying writing genealogy (Clifford, 2001; Howells, 2001). It is easy to find the genealogy on the Internet (Christian, 2002), the recognition of the role of technology and the increasing use of the internet for genealogy development, has offered new opportunities to sell accommodation and other tourism related products.

**Resources (Improve Tourism Infrastructure)**

The growth in family history has been accelerated by the increasing provision of various key online resources. The substantial development aid, mainly used to improve tourism infrastructure and to provide job opportunities, shaped the fundamental incentive structure and had profound effects on the behavior of community members (Tai, 2007).

**Search for Identity (Enhance Ancestral Connection)**

Search for identity is a form of heritage tourism and a cultural component which can be used to make ethnic identity. In a sense the internet has enabled vicarious journeys to homelands and has provided a virtual sense of identity for the researcher. This virtual homecoming may provide a virtual reality experience but as such ‘is more likely to provide a spur for the real thing (Brown, 2000).

**Postmodern Forms of Tourism (Well-Developed Genealogy Tourism)**

The role of heritage in postmodern tourism is examined, particularly built heritage, which is at the heart of cultural tourism (Nuryanti, 1996). Well-developed genealogy tourism is the completely postmodern forms of tourism. The complex relationships between tourism and genealogy are revealed in the tensions between tradition and modernity. Despite globalization and the global diffusion of consumer capitalism, individuals continue to exercise strategies of personal identification (Hughes, 1995).

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**Figure 2. Genealogy Tourism Marketing Matrix**
Discussion and Conclusions

Considering then that the ancestral tourist is going back both spatially and emotionally to their roots, i.e. the starting place, the term 'ancestral tourist' can at least be applied in academic discussion. The Scottish Executive (2000) identified four key elements in the development of genealogy tourism (Scottish, 2000): included (1) Linking genealogy websites, (2) Developing the promotional potential of genealogy tourism overseas, (3) Introducing tactical direct marketing campaigns, (4) Promotion in specialist ex-pat publications. There are several challenging issues in linking genealogy and tourism are discussed: interpretation, marketing built genealogy, planning for genealogy, and the interdependencies between genealogy tourism and the Hakka cultural industry.

Acknowledgements

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References


Whether or not The local is helping the tourists to visit the tourism destinations?

Hsuan Hsuan Chang
Ming Chuan University, School of tourism, Department of Leisure and Recreation administration,
Taipei, Taiwan
changtzu@mail.mcu.edu.tw

Introduction
When people travel to new places they can easily feel lost in the strange surroundings and unfamiliar environments, requiring them to ask for directions to find their way around. This does not only happen to local residents traveling within their own country but also to international travelers who are visiting a country for the first time or on repeated visits. Due to language barriers and the unfamiliar environment, international travelers may encounter certain challenges and difficulties when wayfinding in another country. Tourists sometimes seek the wayfinding information they need from the local people to reduce the possibility of getting lost.

Often people rely on verbal directions to facilitate wayfinding, particularly when searching for unfamiliar destinations such as tourist sites. What sort of descriptive language do people use when giving directions? In what ways might these features vary across cultures? Do they depend on the characteristics of the receivers of information? The aim of this study is to investigate what international tourists need when they ask local people for directions to unfamiliar destinations. This study will also investigate whether the tourists’ gender, cultural background and wayfinding strategy preferences affect their preference for direction descriptors.

Literature Review
Wayfinding is a purposeful, directed and motivated means of moving from the point of origin to a given destination (Xia et al., 2008). Allen (1999) identified three types of wayfinding tasks: commute, explore and quest. The quest wayfinding task involves traveling from the familiar place of origin to an unfamiliar destination. The traveler has not previously visited that destination. Without stored knowledge, the traveler might need a map, visual references or a verbal description to find their way to their destination.

Sometimes, directions are helpful because there are enough details to effectively guide a person from place to place. At other times, directions that may have actually misleading or have too many details to remember, especially for tourists experiencing language barriers. According to previous studies, everyone has different ways of using spatial information and also have different preferences for how information is given; they may like to be given landmarks, distances, directions, left or right turns, cues, walking distance, etc. (Golding, Graesser & Hauselt, 1996; Wright, Lickorish, Hull & Ummelen, 1995; Denis, Pazzaglia, Cornoldi & Bertolo, 1999). In giving directions, some people provide only the most basic instructions, such as “Right at the last section”, whereas others provide more information, such as distances, landmarks, or clear street names. Directions could be different for different communicators as a function of frames of reference (Levinson, Kita & Rasch, 2002).

There are marked individual differences in the frequency with which each cue is given (Denis et al., 1999). Previous research has found that there are striking cultural differences in frames of reference and associated spatial terms used to describe geographical locations.
Until now, the subject of cultural differences in describing spatial factors has been ignored (Hund, Haney & Seanor, 2008; Pazzaglia, Meneghetti, DeBeni & Gyselinck, 2010). Previous studies have also confirmed that the quality of directions given and received would be affected by the receiver’s culture, wayfinding strategy, sense of direction, familiarity with the local environment, gender and age, etc. (Saucier et al., 2002).

This study examined two hypotheses: 1) Significant differences in preferences for how directions are given (such as orientation, left/right turns, distance, landmark, etc.) exist between tourists and local people; 2) tourists who have different wayfinding strategies (route/orientation strategy), gender and cultural background would have different preferences for how directions are given.

**Methods and Materials**

The data was collected in major attractions, Taiwan. The 287 study participants included 154 international tourists; and 133 local residents who had experience helping international tourists find the way to the attraction sites. Of the participants, 57.5% were female and 42.5% were male. Further, 53.7% were international tourists and 46.3% were local Taiwanese people. The average age was 32 years. In terms of cultural background, 52% claimed to have been brought up in an Eastern culture and 48% had a Western background. Being able to speak the same language is essential for interaction to take place between tourists and locals. English is considered to be the most widely used foreign language in Taiwan. The average score for English proficiency is 8.49 out of ten for international tourists; 5.13 for local Taiwanese people. The questionnaire collected information about socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, nationality, English and Chinese proficiency, and preferred methods for receiving directions. The possible direction descriptors were landmarks, cardinal points; left/right turns, time taken to walk the distance, actual distance, or various methods combined. The ten questions were designed to identify wayfinding strategy preferences according to the suggestion in Lawton’s study in 2002 by using Likert scale.

**Results**

Three most widely used types of information are: cardinal points and distance (40%), landmarks (36%), and cardinal points only (24%). The study results confirm the findings of many previous studies that most common reference frames involve cardinal point directions and precise distances/names of streets (Taylor & Tversky, 1996). Landmarks are the second most favorable descriptors tourists would like to be used in wayfinding directions. Landmarks are very useful because they provide environmental features as points of reference and keep people connected to the point of origin and the destination along the route (Allen, 2000). They also provide a visual model of the environment (Tom & Denis, 2004). According to the results of the cross-tab analysis ($\chi^2=12.978$, $p=0.002$), the local Taiwanese people preferred the direction descriptors together with cardinal points and distances when they require the help from others. The international tourists in Taiwan actually prefer the information to include landmarks when they need the assistance of local people (Table 1). From the perspective of the international tourist, consideration should be given to the fact that directions including information about landmarks would be easier to follow than cardinal points. For example, in Taiwan most street name still do not give information about cardinal points. It would be very challenging for people to identify cardinal points if they were not familiar with the local road planning system. However some studies mentioned the possible risk of using landmark information to give directions to destinations. It was claimed that the people who performed well using landmarks for wayfinding had a better memory, especially for remembering details given for the end of the routes.

Table 1. The cross-tab result for direction descriptors preferred by locals and tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direction descriptors</th>
<th>Local people</th>
<th>Tourists</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cardinal+Distance</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardinal only</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landmarks</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of H2 is shown in Table 2. The tourists with different wayfinding-strategy, gender and cultural backgrounds showed significant preference for wayfinding direction descriptors provided by local people. The tourists who used a route strategy showed a strong preference for receiving information about landmarks from local people but tourists who used a survey strategy more often liked information that included cardinal points and distances. A route wayfinding-strategy perspective normally involves using a first-person spatial perspective as the frame of reference and includes left and right turns and also landmark descriptions to navigate the environment (Hund et al., 2012). On the other hand, a survey perspective involves adapting a third-person spatial perspective to identify the entire environment. The person using this strategy prefers to know the whole layout of wayfinding environment, likes to know the cardinal points and also precise distances. My study results were consistent with previous studies.

The results indicate that males prefer to be given both cardinal points and exact distances; females show a strong preference for landmark information. Previous studies have found gender differences in wayfinding strategies (e.g., Honda & Nihei, 2004; Lawton & Kallai, 2002; Saucier et al., 2002). More men than women prefer survey strategies that provide more cardinal descriptions; more women than men prefer route strategies that provide more landmark information (Honda & Nihei, 2004; Hund et al., 2008; Lawton & Kallai, 2002).

Tourists from Eastern background prefer cardinal points and distance information; tourists from Western background like to be given information that includes landmarks. This study found major difference between Eastern and Western tourists in the use of spatial terms. Again, some studies explained this difference by addressing a person’s wayfinding perspective but other studies focused on people’s experiences in their daily environment, such as the street layout. For example, people from the USA Midwest/West provided cardinal directions more frequently. This is because, due to the grid system, the property boundaries and road systems are very regular. This could explain the results in this study. Most of the major cities in Asia use a grid system for their street design. In many parts of Europe and in certain areas of the USA, the property boundaries and roads have less regular patterns (Hund, et al., 2012). This explains why tourists with Western cultural background would be more comfortable with landmark direction descriptors.

Table 2. The cross table result of direction descriptors by different variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wayfinding strategy</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Route</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardinal+Distance</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cardinal only</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landmark</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>χ²</td>
<td>6.781</td>
<td>6.916</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Discussion and Conclusion

Firstly, due to the unfamiliar environment and foreign language, tourists might have a greater need for assistance from the local people. The information about what descriptors are most effective for wayfinding can be used to develop more effective GPS navigation systems, paper-based travel maps, internet-based map/rout-planning services and also the local signage system. Secondly, some tourists prefer local people to use landmarks as direction descriptors. However the local people should pay attention to the number of landmarks used when they give directions because tourists may not be able to remember too many landmark descriptors, especially those given for the end of the wayfinding routes. It would be better for the locals to write down the landmark information for the international tourists in order to decrease the need to memorize too many landmarks. Thirdly, the local people should be educated to be more flexible when providing help to others. For example, Hund et al. (2012) found that US participants provided more cardinal descriptors when addressing listeners adopting a survey perspective rather than a route perspective. However, they gave more landmark and left-right descriptors when addressing listeners who adopted a route perspective rather than a survey perspective. Hund et al.'s study revealed remarkable flexibility in people’s spatial descriptors.

In summary, the present findings reveal that tourists with different cultural backgrounds, wayfinding perspectives and gender have different preferences for descriptive features of the wayfinding route. Again, giving and receiving directions are dynamic processes that are dependent on complex interactions between the local people and tourists.

Reference


The safe or unsafe tourism destination - the cross culture comparison study

Hsuan Hsuan Chang
Ming Chuan University, School of tourism, Department of Leisure and Recreation administration, Taipei, Taiwan
changtzu@mail.mcu.edu.tw

Introduction

Tourism image is the way people feel about something or impression can describe the impact people have on others. Therefore, if people travel with positive impressions, this will contain high possibility for them repeatedly travel back to the destination. Several studies have illustrated that destination images do, indeed, influence tourist behavior (Hunt, 1975; Pearce, 1982). Travelling exposes people to varying degree and types of risk and security issues (Bentley & Page, 2006; Page, Bentley & Meyer, 2003; Page & Meyer, 1996). The personal perceived travelling risk is an influence factor to affect how an individual perceives one country’s destination image and towards its traveling decision-making process. Perceived risk plays an important role in a traveler's expectation and choice of destination for international tourism market. The perceived risk of travelling has an intuitive appeal, and it is persuasive in explaining consumer's behavior (Hales & Shams, 1991). Majority of tourists would avoid negative travelling experience and prefer going to a destination with positive perceptions or tourism image. So what the tourists want is to maximize their travelling satisfaction by minimizing the perceived travelling risk during the same time. To increase inbound tourists’ traveling satisfactions, Taiwan’s government has the obligation and responsibility to provide accurate and sufficient information about travelling risks. So understanding how international youth travelers perceive risk of traveling in Taiwan can improve travel policies and the travel environment.

This study has two research goals: 1) To investigate the safety awareness and traveling risk awareness from the perspectives of international tourists; and 2) To identify any significant difference existing between tourists with Eastern and Western cultural background. Through this study, I could examine how international tourists perceive Taiwan and whether or not Taiwan creates a positive image intern of a safe destination to travel to.

Literature Review

The perceived risk is an individual's subjective assessment of the real risk present at any time (Haddock, 1993). Looking at an individual’s perception of risk or risk taking propensity insights can be gained from psychology (Gilchrist, Povey, Dickinson, & Povey, 1995) or decision-making sciences (Jia, Dyer, & Butler, 1999). Each individual perceives as a risk may vary greatly because individual’s perception could be influenced by the society such as wealth, demographics, technology and the media (Slovic, 1990). In travel industry, a traveler or tourist might have overall perception of any tourism destination based on his or her previous travelling experience, information from relatives or friends, advertisement, and different information sources. Attempts to integrate perceived risk concepts into destination management are important because perceived risks that potential travelers associate with specific destinations, not actual risks, directly affect their purchasing and purchase intentions.

In the attempt to investigate the relationship between the risk perceptions of tourist and pleasure travel, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) have categorized tourist risk into seven items:
equipment risk, financial risk, physical risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk, and time risk. In the earliest studies of travel risk, Moutinho (1987) reviewed marketing literature and classified tourists’ perceived risks as functional, physical, financial, social, and psychological risk. One research (Tsaur, Tzeng & Wang, 1997) categorizes traveling risks into seven aspects which are Transportation, Law and Order, Hygiene, Accommodation, Weather, Sightseeing Spot and Medical Support. These seven traveling risk aspects would affect people’s willingness while deciding to travel or not.

Researchers on discussing how different culture or nationalities influence tourist’s behavior have developed in the past and provided solid suggestions toward different marketing strategies on customers with different culture or nationality background. Pizam and Sussmann (1995) investigated how nationality affects tourist behavior and suggested that many more differences than similarities in the behavior of the four tourist nationalities were perceived by tour guides. Again Pizam and Jeong (1996)’s study also confirmed that tourist’s behavior is perceived to be different by nationality and suggested that using cultural approach to design tours can enhance tourist’s travelling satisfaction. Due to that, the study proposed one Study Hypothesis: People with different culture background have significant difference on their perceived travel risk evaluations.

Methods and Materials

The data were collected from July to October in 2013 in two locations, Taoyan international airport of Taiwan and Nova Scotia, Canada. There are two versions of questionnaire, one is in Chinese and the other is in English. The study sample size consisted of 300 participants; among of whom, 149 people (49%) are from Asia countries such as Korea, Japan, China, Indonesia, and the rest 151 people (51%) are from other countries including, Africa, France, German, Luxemburg and Canada. All of them never visited Taiwan before or just arrived in Taiwan International Airport. Of them, 47% of participants considered them grew up with Western cultural background and 51% grew up with Eastern cultural background. However, there are 2% of people either in Western nor Eastern cultural background; thus, this 2% study samples are excluded from this research. In gender aspect, there are 156 female (52%) participants and 144 male (48%) participants. And age of under 30 (including 30) occupies more than half (87%) of all the participants which also have influence on their traveling behavior.

A questionnaire was used to collect data such as their socio-economic background, personal traveling characteristics, trip characteristics, traveling motivation (Ballantyne, Packer & Beckmann, 1988; Gnoth, 1997), and perceived traveling risks (Chao, 2008; Tsaur, Tzeng, and Wang, 1997). There were 23 items used to measure their perceived travelling risks by using five-point Likert scale to measure their agreement level towards those items from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree).

Results

In total, the data from 300 study participants were used for data analysis such as frequencies, Independent sample T test and Cross Tab analysis. Over 81% of the 243 participants have overseas traveling experience and majority of participants’ traveling purpose is taking a vacation (71%) while other purposes (29%) are such as business, visit friend and relatives, study, working holiday and some are simply either to experience different lifestyle or to broaden the horizon. Over 75% of participants have traveled to overseas more than one time (including one time). Study participants with Eastern cultural background (39%) have a higher percentage on traveling overseas every year than study
participants with Western cultural background (37%). However, there is no significant difference in traveling frequency regarding to cultural background (P > .05).

This paper attempts to examine any significant difference existing on tourist's perceptions towards traveling risk among tourists with different cultural background. The study listed 22 items to measure their perceived travelling risk in Taiwan by using five-point Likert scale. The "1" refers to strongly disagree with the statement; and the "5" refers to strongly agree with the statement. The bigger the number is; the higher level of agreement, the participants have towards the statement. Of 22 items, nine items have mean score above four; 11 items have average score between 3.5 and 4; and two items have mean value less than 3.5. No item has a score higher than 4.2. Overall, study participants perceived Taiwan's dining, food and beverage industry have high quality in hygiene and very clean. Besides majority considered that the local people is very friendly, which matched the image Taiwan Tourism Bureau office would like to build up for Taiwan tourism industry. There are four items related weather and natural disasters such as earthquake, tsunamis and volcanoes, which were considered as travelling risks in Taiwan. In fact, Tsunamis and volcanoes never happen in Taiwan. Again the perceived traveling risks are not real or absolute risk. Some risks are developed based on incorrect or insufficient information.

Then the independent sample T test was used to measure any difference on perceived traveling risk existing between Western and Eastern tourists. According to table 1, seven items of 22 items showed significant differences between two parties. Tourists with Eastern cultural background scored higher on feeling safe about “Drivers obey the traffic safety regulations”, “General hygiene practices”, “The dining environment is clean”, “Food hygiene is good”, “There are no contagious diseases”, “When accidents happen; the government and residents are willing to provide assistance”, “The interpreters in scenic spots are professional”, “The weather is stable”, and “There are rare earthquakes and tsunami” compared to study participants with Western cultural background. Study participants with Eastern cultural background are the people from Asia region and share similar geographical and weather condition. Besides Taiwan is also located in Asia, closer to other Asian countries. This might help participants coming from other Asia countries have better understanding about Taiwan travelling environment than participants coming from USA and Europe areas, very far away from Asia.
### Table 1. Traveling risk perceptions by cultural background.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>I feel safe because ..........in Taiwan</strong></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Cultural background</th>
<th>Western</th>
<th>Eastern</th>
<th>T value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation system is safe</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drivers obey the traffic safety regulations</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td></td>
<td>-4.750*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public telephones can be accessed easily</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire escape gear is available in hotels</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rescue equipment is available in hotels</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hygiene practices are well developed</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinning environment is clean</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.102*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food hygiene in Taiwan is good.</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.202*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No contagious diseases</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government will provide assistance for any accidents</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local people are friendly</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rates are low</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of medical facilities is good</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical facilities are easily accessible</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of emergency medical treatment is convenient</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational facilities in scenic spots are well controlled</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreters in attractions are professional</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreters in scenic spots are enough</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The weather is stable.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6.688*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earthquakes rarely happens</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td></td>
<td>-10.580*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsunamis rarely happens</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.927*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volcanoes rarely happens</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>-9.136*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion and Conclusion

The findings of present study have shown that culture differences in various traveling safety and risk do exist, especially in weather and nature disasters, medical support system and also traffic aspects. Based on the study result, some suggestions for tourism industry are provided. Apparently, tourists with Western cultural background have more concerns regarding nature disasters especially they might not have any experience of earthquakes. This incorrect image towards destination could be shaped by the elements of an individual’s accumulated experiences, information reorganizing, and affections. The destination image could be changed with continuing and proper marketing promotion activities (Gunn, 1988) because tourism promotion is the process of communication between suppliers of a tourism product or their intermediaries through distribution channels to potential tourists (Mill & Morrison, 1985). With more understanding of the perceived traveling risks from tourists, Taiwan Tourism Bureau would be able to adjust marketing strategies to cope with the perceived traveling risk of international tourists.
Reference


Fulfilment of Destination Brand Promise - The Core of Customer-Based Brand Equity Modelling for Tourism Destinations

Tatiana Chekalina
Matthias Fuchs
Maria Lexhagen
European Tourism Research Institute (ETOUR), Mid Sweden University
Östersund, Sweden
name.surname@miun.se

Introduction
Since tourism destination branding was introduced in the early 2000s, destination brand equity measurement and tracking has become one of the main research streams in the field of destination marketing (Pike, 2009). However, from a theoretical point of view, the concept of brand equity, which is a measure of the power of the brand and the link between marketing efforts and future destination performance, remains insufficiently elaborated, especially for the tourism destination context (Gartner, 2009).

More specifically, tourism destination brand equity studies mainly attempt to directly transfer conceptualization and measurement approaches, which have been developed and tested for product brands, especially consumer packaged goods (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010). Particularly, the majority of tourism destination brand equity studies (e.g., Boo et al., 2009; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Pike et al., 2010) adopt Aaker’s (1991) and Keller’s (1993) conceptualization of customer-based brand equity (CBBE), which derives from the field of cognitive psychology and focuses on multi-dimensional memory structures, such as awareness, image, quality, value and loyalty (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010).

The positive aspect of this effort exerted by previous research is in adoption of brand equity measurement approaches, which, particularly, employ a holistic view of the brand, focus on the development of reliable, valid, parsimonious and theoretically sound measurement constructs. Hence, the adopted approaches can easily be implemented with simple “pen and paper” instruments, and demonstrate high managerial usefulness as a diagnostic tool capable of identifying the areas for improvement of how the brand is perceived by customers (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010).

Nevertheless, tourism literature has not yet developed a broad theoretical discussion on how the characteristics of tourism defined as a service industry are shaping the dimensionality of the tourism destination CBBE model and causal relationships between the model constructs. Consequently, in the absence of a customer-based brand equity theory adapted specifically to the peculiarities of tourism destinations, the tourism literature exhibits a lack of agreement on the composition of the CBBE model dimensions, model structure and utilised scales, respectively. Therefore, by directly transferring the product-based CBBE model without conceptual refinements and further development according to destination-specific dimensions, there is a risk for tourism destination management research to draw the focus away from the core essence of destination branding and its value and, as a result, lose the managerial relevancy of the model. Furthermore, as suggested by Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010), in order to enhance the diagnostic capacity of the model as a tool for successful brand development, the selection of CBBE model constructs should align with the brand category (i.e., product type) and incorporate industry-specific dimensions that drive brand value.
Hence, the research study at hand aims at contributing to further development of the CBBE concept in a tourism destination context. More precisely, it is proposed that the core component of the revised CBBE model for tourism destinations (CBDBE) is about customers’ evaluation of the destination promise in terms of the transformation of destination resources into value-in-use for the tourist, which discloses the purpose and benefits of consumption (Grönroos, 2009; Vargo & Lusch, 2008).

**Literature review**

This paper adopts the approach towards CBDBE modelling, which is particularly consistent with Gnoth’s (2007) conceptualization of the destination brand viewed as a representation of the functional, emotional and symbolic values of the destination, as well as the benefits, which tourists are promised to receive as a result of visiting the destination.

Therefore, components of the proposed model (Fig. 1), which follows Keller’ (2009) brand relationship framework, consist of the customers’ evaluation of the destination promise in terms of transforming functional, intangible and social destination resources into tourists’ value-in-use (Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Palmer, 2010; Zabkar et al., 2010; Moeller, 2010). Furthermore, the positive relationship between visitors’ perception of the destination and value-for-money reveals the input of tourists’ own resources into the co-created service delivery process (Boo et al., 2009). In addition, destination brand awareness affects the evaluation of the destination promise (e.g., Pike et al., 2010; Kladou and Kehagias, 2014), which, in turn, determines tourists’ behavioural intentions towards the destination (Boo et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Pike et al., 2010).

Moreover, as suggested by de Chernatony et al. (2004), in a service context satisfaction is hypothesized to be a relevant CBBE model dimension. Particularly, satisfaction is an important outcome of destination visitation, which, according to Cracolici and Nijkamp (2009) is linked to the tourist’s feeling of well-being in relation to the holiday destination and is, thus, an important measure of destination attractiveness.

![Figure 1. Customer-based brand equity model for tourism destination (CBDBE)](image-url)
A number of previous tourism studies confirmed that customers’ evaluation of destination attributes positively influences satisfaction, which Oliver (1999), particularly, defines as pleasurable fulfilment of needs, desires, goals, etc. (Chi & Qu, 2008; Chen & Tsai, 2007). Moreover, a vast body of tourism research (e.g., Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Chi and Qu, 2008) confirm that overall satisfaction directly influences tourists’ loyalty behaviour. Finally, Kim et al. (2009) and Chen and Myagmarsuren (2010) emphasize the relationship between brand equity and tourist satisfaction. Therefore, the study proposes satisfaction to be a CBDBE model construct, which is positively influenced by customers’ perception of destination resources, value-in-use and value-for-money, and, in turn, is a direct antecedent of destination loyalty.

Methods and material

By implementing a web survey and using a linear structural equation modelling approach, the proposed model is empirically validated for the leading Swedish mountain destination of Åre in the summer season. First, the operationalization of the destination resources and the value-in-use dimensions pertaining to the CBDBE model reflects a destination-specific means-end hierarchy between destination resources and value-in-use deduced from 40 semi-structured interviews conducted in Åre in July 2012 (Gutman, 1982). Accordingly, the list of functional, intangible and social destination resources related to summer season vacation in Åre served as input for the attribute satisfaction scale reflecting the destination resources construct (Likert-scale 1-5). Furthermore, in order to measure the value-in-use, the destination-specific benefits have been formulated based on scales used in prior tourism studies (e.g., Williams and Soutar, 2009; Skår et al., 2008; Pan and Ryan, 2007). Finally, the list of measurement items (1-5 agreement Likert scale) describing destination awareness, value-for-money, satisfaction and loyalty is derived from prior brand equity studies (Chen and Tsai, 2007; Končnik & Gartner, 2007; Lehman, Keller and Farley, 2008; Boo et al., 2009).

The questionnaire was available in English and Swedish. In December 2012 data was collected by using a web-based Email survey. 3,957 e-mails of tourists who visited Åre during the summer season 2012 were provided by key destination stakeholders. In total, 522 respondents completed the questionnaire. The underlying sub-dimensionality of the model constructs destination resources and value-in-use has been examined using exploratory Factor Analysis (VariMax). Missing values were substituted by means (Field, 2005). After completion of the data preparation processes, the proposed CBDBE model was empirically tested by a linear structural equation model (SEM).

Results

Most hypothesised relationships between the CBDBE model constructs behave as expected and are significant. The only exception is the direct relationship between destination resources and tourist satisfaction, which has not been confirmed. Nevertheless, the results demonstrate that value-in-use and value-for-money mediate the relationship between destination resources (i.e., nature, mountain village setting, intangible attributes and interaction with other tourists) and satisfaction. Furthermore, satisfaction mediates the relationships between value-in-use, value-for money and destination loyalty. Finally, the transformation of destination resources into value-in-use representing the promised destination-specific benefits of tourists’ stay (i.e., “relaxation and escape”, “summer experience” and “exercise”) has the strongest effect on the formation of attitudinal loyalty towards the destination.
Discussion and Conclusions

Therefore, the model empowers destination managers to combine and inter-relate various silos of knowledge referring to the fulfilment of the destination promise to tourists. This, in turn, is directly linked to destination loyalty as the major target of destination marketing. Moreover, the link between destination resources and value-in-use can be clearly identified and communicated through the brand (Gnoth, 2007; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). For instance, based on the present study, the destination management of Åre can identify the attributive dimensions behind the value-in-use of destination visitation and destination loyalty for the summer tourism product. Finally, and probably most importantly, also the crucial dimensions for co-creating destination value-in-use can now be reliably identified by destination management.

References

Governance as platform for value co-creation in Tourism Destinations: an analysis of Foz do Iguaçu, Brazil

Adriana Fumi Chim-Miki a
Rosa Maria Batista-Canino b
José Manoel Gonçalves Gandara c

a Capes Foundation, Ministry of Education, Brazil
e-mail: adriana.chimmiki@gmail.com
b Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain
c Universidade Federal do Paraná, Brazil

Introduction

The Tourism sector has the challenge of redesign their products and restructure its strategic management for adapt in a market that the competitiveness can be given by co-creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy 2004; Binkhorst, 2005). This redesign requires a great effort of coordination between all involved in the tourism sector in order to create a network that creates value (Mariotti 2002). The tourist understand the destination like integral product (Timón, 2004), thus the co-creation should not be understood only as the relationship between one company and its customers, but as the relationships between all stakeholders of the destination.

Shared management of a tourism destination can act positively on the value co-creation. This way, can represent the aggregation factor for the co-creation of a tourism destination as an integral product. The way as the value is co-created within a set of relationships between stakeholders is an unexplored topic (Jaakkola & Hakanen, 2013), although it is noted as the "new frontier" of knowledge about co-creation. The companies represent the linkages in platforms collective commitment, being the new paradigm of co-creation (Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2014).

This paper conducts an analysis of governance mechanisms and their results on the co-creation of the destination "City of Foz do Iguaçu", located at south of Brazil in a tri-border region between Brazil, Argentina and Paraguay. Note that this is one of the main tourism destinations in the three countries, where the Iguaçu waterfalls are located.

This analysis was based primarily on technical work developed in 2011, entitled “Ways of the Future: Developing the destination we want", resulting from a participatory planning process in that destination. The results of this technical work are reviewed on a perspective of value co-creation endogenous, focusing on the stakeholder’s experiences (Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2014).

Theoretical Foundation

Traditionally, the value co-creation has been understood as process involving interactions between the company and its customers. It is a corporate process for the creation of goods, services and experiences in close cooperation with the experience and creativity of consumers (Romero & Molina, 2011; Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2014).

Binkhorst (2005) considers that the concept of co-creation is very adequate for application in tourism, because it adds value for both, visitors and visited, contributing to the destination's uniqueness. In this regard, note that a destination is a systemic relationship between a multitude of components (Timón, 2004; Buhais, 2000), where the territory becomes in part of the product by the tourism process that occurs in the same (Smith, 1994).
When a system considers legitimate the integrated management, the governance arises. “[…]a new style of government, different of the hierarchical control model, characterized by a greater degree of cooperation and interaction between state and non-state actors embedded in a joint decision network public-private” (Mayntz, 2000).

The destination tourism is very suited for governance's dynamic. In this regard, WTO, established the concept as follows: "Tourist Governance is a practical measurement of susceptible government, aimed at efficiently direct the tourism sector at various levels of government, through forms of coordination and collaboration between them to achieve the goals shared by networks of actors involved in the sector, in order to achieve solutions and opportunities, based on sustained in the relationship of interdependence and shared responsibility agreements”.

Meanwhile, Buhalis (2000) argues that the governance and the participatory planning contribute to that tourism benefits are equally distributed among stakeholders, minimizing situations that could be detrimental to the achievement of common goals. Romero & Molina (2011) add that in collaborative networks there is a high potential for value co-creation, giving companies access to new knowledge, resources and shared risks, as well as a complement the skills/abilities and technologies. Additionally, the joint venture induces the innovation, which is a source for the value co-creation (Borys & Jemison 1989).

Jaakkola & Hakanen (2013), suggest that the value arises when the actors are integrated using resources jointly (Gummesson & Mele, 2010; Vargo & Lusch, 2011), and that this value is determined on the basis of the benefits and sacrifices perceived in the process or the results of the interaction (Ravald & Grönroos, 1996).

In base of this theoretical background, the main proposition of this work was to verify how the concept of value co-creation is immersed in the participatory process for the development of a tourism destination, promoted by a system of local governance planning. This analysis aims to contribute to theoretical development about the value co-creation inside the networking of tourism organizations, because it is an area of knowledge still incipient.

Methods and materials

This work is exploratory, developed through of a documentary research, where the analysis and validation of results is conducted through the pairing with previous studies and theoretical frameworks related. The use of pairing is justified when the objective is find understanding of the phenomenon studied on a theoretical perspective, checking the association between theory and reality (Krippendorff, 1980).

The technical report, used in this work, collects the set of prioritized and validated proposals by local stakeholders of tourism destination. Thus, the present research analyzed the technical document, which was result from this process of strategic-participatory assessment with objective to find in him the use of concept of value co-creation. The diagnostic process analyzed occurred in two phases: (1) situational analysis; (2) proposition, validate and prioritization of actions. The validation of proposals was conducted through a strategic seminar with stakeholders. This process required to collect important information about the destination through, among others:

- 97 documents related to tourism planning in the region;
- 05 in-depth interviews with local stakeholders;
- Secondary data collected for the period 2006-2011;
- The conclusions of the Focus Group developed by 37 local experts.

Between the results of the intervention, the participants created a total of 21 proposals divided in three strategic areas: Planning, management and control; Marketing and innovation; Quality and Competitiveness. This study analyzes and classifies these proposals
using as criteria the ability to co-create of value according to the principles contained in this concept, in which highlighted the ability to add value from a customer perspective.

**Research and results**

The analysis executed allows us to state that this destination has an organizational level in terms of legitimized governance in tourism. The figure 1 shows the actors involved in the planning and management of the sector according to those intervening in the process.

![Figure 1: Actors involved in the governance of the sector in the destination.](image)

Source: Gandara et al (2011) [Adapted from Buhalis, 2000]

The participants establishing proposals to redirect the destination strategy, in order to generate benefits and responsibilities to all involved. Of these proposals, 19% are directly related with value co-creation; 28% are related indirectly; and 53% not related at all with this paradigm.

The figure 2, extracted from the analyzed report shows how this platform congregate the elements, in a feedback process from the perspective of creating value for the producer towards a perspective of creating value to the customer showing that the value co-creation is present in their proposals.
The first strategic line contains 8 proposals, in which 2 act directly to generate the value co-creation, namely: (1) to create a core of knowledge of tourism in order to develop research and socialize information on demand, supply and impacts; (2) to implement a system of information management in the governance structure to articulate all stakeholders. The second strategic area resulted in 6 proposals, which 2 also contribute directly to value co-creation for the destination: (1) to develop a consumer research at the destination; (2) to expand the use of new ICT tools for marketing and interaction with the clients. Finally, the third area presented 6 proposals related with a redesign of the destination, so they need of the information obtained from the proposals presented in the other two areas, specifically the information generated on proposals focused in co-creation of value, thus they were considered indirectly related.

**Discussion and conclusions**

The use of governance as a platform for value co-creation for destination occurred in an emerging way rather than intentional, because the technical work was not developed based on value co-creation concept, but in the governance and strategic planning. The reformulation of the tourism product and suggestions received were based on the tourism experience observed from the market and from interactions informal between companies of this destination and your customers. This mean that no based on tools developed with the aim of promote the value co-creation.

The expertise of the participants in the network, which by virtue of their experience in the sector, made possible understand better the destination from the point of view of the consumer. While this contributes more to the planning process, that the value co-creation. On the other hand, Ramaswamy & Ozcan (2014) indicate co-creation of value from the perspective of the actors’s network, however with focus in consumer participation.

The technical report noted that governance facilitates public-private coordination, however, requires better definition of the role of the actors to a co-creation approach. This approach would coincide better with the theory, which indicates that the value creation is not a linear function, but a co-evolutionary collaboration between allied actors and their

Source: Gandara et al (2011)

customers. To get a "value constellation" is fundamental the reconfiguration of role of the players (Normann Ramirez 1993; Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2014).

These plans were developed in 2011, but in the following years, we observed by the national monitor that fate has improved its rankings of competitiveness. Tourism governance in this destination shows a degree of advanced consolidation, with wide participation of the public, private and including participants of the three countries bordering. These facts are important, because Foz do Iguacu city is one of the "Mercociudades", a term given to cities belonging to the network created in 1995, covering municipalities in the Mercosur that contribute the exchange and cooperation between the economic bloc countries.

We conclude that governance in Foz do Iguacu is propelling the value networking, contributing to innovation and the strategic positioning of the destination, therefore, acts as a facilitator for the value co-creation. However, their competitiveness can grow more with planning from the perspective of co-creation.

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From Emotions to Place Attachment. The Case of Domestic Tourists in Algarve

Antónia Correia
Cristiana Oliveira
Universidade Europeia, School of Tourism, Sports & Hospitality
Lisbon, Portugal
antonia.correia@europeia.pt
cristiana.oliveira@europeia.pt

Introduction

Theory on place attachment helps us to understand the nature of the relationships between individuals and place. Place attachment is a result of a combination of emotional, cognitive, social, cultural and behavioral factors (Pruneau et al., 1999), putting the discussion on a multidisciplinary field. This is particularly relevant in domestic tourism, as it represents a form of valuing a destination that incorporates both functional and emotional meanings. Caldwell (2002); De Ruyter et al.(1997); Harrison & Shaw (2004), among others present sounded research about place attachment, correlating this with satisfaction and quality of service, but not with emotions. Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica, & O’Leary (2006) launched this, arguing that understanding the emotions that arouse from tourism experiences is an important challenge for tourism planners, researchers and practitioners.

It is under the acknowledge need for further research in place attachment (Gu & Ryan, 2008) and the role of emotions in relation with the place that this research arouses. Grounded on pleasure Russell (2005, p.13). “Distinguishes pleasure as sensation from pleasure as emotion, where the latter is a content-full intentional state. Pleasures as emotions entail attitudes, priorities, and values; and so the pleasures we have reveal the persons we are”. Hence this study aims to assess how emotions are related to and influence the attachment with a destination. The empirical study took place in the Algarve region, one of the most important tourist destinations in Portugal representing 22% of the national guests (3147.2 million in 2013), both nationals and foreigners, since it attracts every year an increasing number of tourists (Turismo de Portugal, 2014). This research focus on domestic tourists more prone to be engrained with the holiday destination, as demonstrated by Stedman (2002, p.318) “individuals who have resided longer in a place are more likely to have developed significant relationships with other residents as well as with physical attributes of the place”.

The survey was applied in the summer of 2011 in August, considered to be the high season in Portugal and the highest rates of domestic tourism demand therefore it increases the questionnaire response rate. The sample is representative as it comprises 1538 data, make feasible generalizations. An order probit model were estimated to depict the role of 12 emotional states in the relation with the Algarve. Positive emotions rely in the level of outstanding influencing positively the relation with the Algarve, whereas negative emotions influence negatively, being all of these states superlative. The most prominent emotions contributing to prolong this relation with the south of Portugal are delight, fascination and surprise. These results also suggest that the outstanding value of holidays in the south challenge the tourists’ players to keep on overwhelming tourists expectations.

The contributions of this research rely on theoretical, methodological and empirical level. At theoretical level this is one of the first studies to introduce emotions to explain place attachment, Further this research explain place attachment from an observed variable instead of introducing declared statements about place attachment, with all the withdraws that
revealed preference may has. One of the most common is the unconformity between what
individuals say and what they do (Correia and Tão, 2014). In this research the duration of the
relation with the Algarve are assumed as a proxy of place attachment.

At the methodological level this is one of the first researchers to estimate the moderator
role of intangible variables with an order probit model more robust in its fits. At the empirical
level this drove the discussion of the policy strategies of the destination to the immaterial side
of the tourism experiences.

Literature review

Place attachment can be defined as “the environmental settings to which people are
emotionally and culturally attached” (Altman & Low, 1992, p. 5). It often refers to the link
that people create with places (Raymond et al., 2010; Scannell & Gifford, 2010) and it
frequently arises from the idea that people will value a place as they get to know it. Different
dimensions of place attachment are outlined: place identity (Proshansky, 1978; Proshansky et
al., 1983), place attachment (Altman and Low, 1992) and dependence (Stokols and Shumaker,
1981). Research about this topic has not been consensual with some authors stating that
these different dimensions of place are included in the concept of “sense of Place” (Shamai,
1991) and other arguing that these dimensions are actually part of place attachment. This lack
of consensus were put forward by Hernandez, Martin, Ruiz and Hidalgo (2010) that
attributes this to the imprecise definitions and measurement of this construct. Accordingly
Stdeman & Jorgensen (2006, p.318) states that “factors that affect emotional ties to a place
(i.e. Place attachment) are also likely to have implications for cognitive and behavioral
relationships (i.e. place identity and place dependence, respectively)”. Place identity is
considered as the set of beliefs, perceptions or thoughts that an individual draws about a
spatial environment and their symbolic connections (Prohansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983,
Williams, et al., 1992). Whereas place dependence refers to the dynamic connections related
to a physical setting as a result of the conditions provided to a specific purpose (Schreyer,
Jacob, &White, 1981, Williams, et al., 1992). Whether it would be place attachment
measurement model adopted the most important issue is the level of attachment tourists
demonstrate with the place (Scannell & Gifford, 2010), and this may be measured by a
quantitative variable – the duration of the relation with a certain place, as it is the case of this

Place attachment is also explained by emotional traits (Altman and Low 1992). Emotions are frequently conceptualized as the consequence of the appraisal of events or objects concerning the individual or groups’ goal (Niedenthal & Brauer, 2012), and are often marked by a behavioral reaction as an expression of, positive or negative, feelings (Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Kleinginna Jr and Kleinginna (1981) posits that the definition of emotion isn’t consentaneous, most of the produced research validate that emotions are divided in: subjective experience, expressive component and physiological arousal.

In tourism research, emotions appears as an antecedent or consequent of affect and
mood, (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Cohen, Pham, & Andrade, 2008). Mood is associated
to deep affective feeling as opposed to emotions that are provoked by events, objects or
persons (Cohen et al., 2008; Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Positive and negative expressions of
feelings may occur for example when a tourist visits a destroyed heritage site or when he
experience a warm welcome by the residents of a specific destination.

The dimensional approach of emotions is an instinctive and simple way to distinguish
emotions (Huang, 2001; Larsen & Diener, 1992). It outlines a group of affect dimensions to be
used in order to distinguish from one another particular emotions. Affective valence and
arousal are the two primal dimensions used within this approach. Arousal symbolizes an
internal state that is activated with either periods of “excitement” and “quietness”. Moreover valence is described as the “pleasant” and “unpleasant” experience undertaken. This approach grounds in Pleasure Arousal Dominance (P-A-D) (Russel, 1980) being this model one of the utmost common model used in consumer behavior research, and in tourism. In line with the above mention model the consumption emotion scale, Pearce & Coghlan (2010) have developed 60 emotional items (e.g., happy, pleased, irritated, worried, depressed, sad and lonely etc.) based on this model in order to their application on the analysis of tourist’ emotions and its relation to travel motivation, activities emotions and satisfaction levels. Some other models were developed including variables such as tourists' emotional experiences toward destinations - ‘Destination Emotion Scale (DES)’ - (Hosany, 2012), or the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (P-A-D) model Literature which outline 12 emotional states, within 3 dimensions such as, Pleasure (Happy/Unhappy; Melancholic/Contented; Annoyed/Pleased; Unsatisfied/Satisfied), Arousal (Sluggish/Frenzied; Calm/Excited; Unaroused/Aroused) and Dominance (Controlled/Controlling; Guided/Autonomous; Influenced/Influentional; Submissive/Dominant), considered in this research.

Methods and material

This research intends to analyze how the emotions of domestic tourists arise from their relationship with the place influencing their attachment with a destination like the Algarve. The Self-report tourist emotion model assesses tourists’ emotional reactions, based on subjective feelings. Positive and negative emotions were included in the questionnaire throughout a dichotomous scale, derived from the literature. The ordinal scale comprises 12 emotional states from: Happy/Unhappy; Melancholic/Contented; Annoyed/Pleased; Unsatisfied/Satisfied; Sluggish/Frenzied; Calm/Excited; Unaroused/Aroused; Controlled/Controlling; Guided/Autonomous; Influenced/Influentional; Submissive/Dominant. This emotional states were converted in dummy variables and incorporated in an order probit model to explain the duration of the relation with the Algarve together with socio-demographic variables.

The hypothesis were defined as follows:

H1: The positive emotional states influence positively the duration of the relation with the Algarve

H2: The negative emotional states influence negatively the duration of the relation with the Algarve

H3: Socio-demographic characteristics of the tourists influence the duration of the relation with the Algarve.

This study uses a quantitative approach with non-experimental design for which a questionnaire-based approach was considered adequate. The instrument consists of 60 items, using precoded factual, likert scales, and numerical uncoded questions. The following variables were considered: gender, age, income, employment status. The questionnaire was pilot tested by a panel of 50 domestic tourists visiting the Algarve Region, in order to ascertain its validity and coherence. Results showed that the respondents deemed the items included in the final survey relevant. The final version of the survey was applied to a total of 1500 domestic tourists spending their vacation in the Algarve during the summer of 2014, from which 1358 were considered valid. The data collection was obtained with the support of the principal municipalities of this region linked to the major tourism areas and with no stratification arranged. Tourists were invited to answer voluntarily in the course of their stay both on the beach and in the city centre. The selection criteria was a minimum of two prior visits with the purpose to engage in leisure activities.
Results

According to the results all of the hypotheses were considered show significant beta weights (p < .05). Nevertheless, it seems relevant to refer that age has obtained a high value (0.044) showing that this value is not quite as significant. The Likelihood Ratio (LR) test of the 13 independent variables for a sample of 1538 is 185.65 (p < .05) due the $X^2$ sensitive to sample size.

Table 1: Results of order probit regression through the established seven variables of 12 emotional states defined in the PAD model.

| Destination attachment | Coef. | Std. Err. | z     | P>|z| | [95% Conf. Interval] |
|------------------------|-------|-----------|-------|------|---------------------|
| Unhappy                | -0.43742 | 0.401744 | -3.58 | 0.000 |
| Satisfied              | -0.3255305 | 0.0795479 | -4.09 | 0.000 |
| Disappointed           | -0.595102 | 0.4052356 | -3.94 | 0.000 |
| Unsatisfied            | -0.071035 | 0.1970085 | -5.44 | 0.000 |
| Amazed                 | 0.2096627 | 0.0860829 | 2.44  | 0.015 |
| Fascinated             | 0.7038663 | 0.1418197 | 4.96  | 0.000 |
| Melancolic             | -0.505722 | 0.2096777 | -2.41 | 0.016 |
| Awkward                | 0.7168316 | 0.2701571 | 2.65  | 0.008 |
| Delighted              | 0.2721321 | 0.0865741 | 3.14  | 0.002 |
| Suprised               | 0.5372502 | 0.1126299 | 4.77  | 0.000 |
| Employment Status      | 0.0058347 | 0.0019078 | 3.06  | 0.002 |
| Household monthly income| -0.0036328 | 0.0013183 | -2.76 | 0.006 |
| Age                    | 0.0081193 | 0.0040384 | 2.01  | 0.044 |

The positive or negative beta weights estimated demonstrates how the variable influence the relation with the destination.

H1 has a mixed effect since some the emotional states satisfaction did not register a positive score, Satisfied (-0.325), whereas Delighted (0.209), Fascinated (0.704), Amazed (0.272), Suprised (0.537), present a positive effect in the duration of the relation with the destination. The results seem to indicate that average services are not enough to influence positively, services must be superlative.

The set of emotions that by far contribute to an increased relation with the region are Delight, Fascination and Surprise, suggesting that tourism stakeholders face a challenge: In order to retain tourists in the destinations they need to develop strategies to overwhelm tourists’ expectations.

H2 has mixed effects since the majority of the negative emotions: Unhappy was -0.44 (p < .05), Disappointed -0.595 (p < .05), Unsatisfied -0.071 (p < .05), Melancholic -0.505 (p < .05), present negative values, which shows that negative emotional felling have a direct effect in diminishing the relation with the Algarve. On the other hand Awkward is positive (0.717, p < .05) suggesting that tourists are hostages of the destination.

Finally, the results support H3, suggesting tourists with an inferior Household monthly income will express a lower level of relation. In addition the older the tourists are the more likely they are to increase their relation with the Algarve. This positive direct effect reflects also on Professional or Employment Status. This reveals that socio demographics have also a mixed effect on the relation with the south of Portugal.
Summing up, whereas the superlative emotions such as Delight, Fascination, and Amaze exert a positive influence in retaining tourists, Disappointed, Melancholic, Awkward provoke a negative influence on the tourists’ retention.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Having sustained these proposed hypotheses, this paper aims to provide some evidence of the relation between people and places through the emotions evoked by their experiences.

Results suggest that as long as the Algarve keeps to exerting superlative positive feelings such as Delightedness, Fascination, Amazing on tourists these feelings are more likely to exercise a positive influence in retaining tourists. However, feelings like Disappointment or Melancholy may have an opposite influence on the tourists’ retention.

These results put a great pressure in tourism authorities, since retain tourists’ is directed related to overwhelming their expectations.

From a practical perspective these results highlight the need for a new approach when discussing policy strategies of the destination since the immaterial side of the tourism experiences can no longer be ignored.

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Factors affecting international exhibitors’ repeated participation of a travel fair in China

Liu Dake
Beijing International Studies University
liudake@bisu.edu.cn

Zhou (Joe) Yong
Macau University of Science & Technology

Shan Xiao
Zhang Lili
Beijing International Studies University

Background

Functioning as an efficient trading platform, exhibition has become one of the most effective marketing tools in corporate marketing since the 1980s (Tanner, 1996). Specific to the tourism industry, Travel Fairs have increasingly played its significance in boosting tourism-related trade, promoting destinations and attractions. As a result, international travel fairs and exhibitions have emerged in different parts of the world. The most well-known ITB Berlin and the World Travel Market in London represent the largest-scale travel fair in the global market, while in the newly-emerged market, there are several travel fairs growing fast. The vigorous tourism development in China has advanced the rapid growth of travel trade in the country, which breeds the travel fair business and a few of the travel fairs/exhibitions have started to draw attention both from the industry and academic aspects.

Given the increasing scales of business initiated from travel fairs/exhibitions, the effectiveness and sustainable development of a fair have been particularly significant not only for exhibition organizers, but for local, or even regional development. To some extent, the key for such an effective and sustainable development lies on the satisfactory outputs of participation of a fair for various exhibitors and attendees including hotels, travel agencies, tour operators and DMOs (Destination Management Organizations). A better understanding of factors affecting these fair stakeholders participate in travel fairs would help fair organizers and local authorities to better plan, promote and operate the fairs, to maximize their clients’ exhibition outcome. On the other hand, modern marketing theories have generally recognized that repeat customers own fundamental importance in business by providing a major and stable customer sources, more effective marketing input-output results. However, systematic research on repeat exhibitors’ needs and expectations were rare, and their decisions of participation a particular exhibition repeatedly was unknown. Therefore, this paper will examine the factors which affecting international exhibitors repeatedly participated in a travel fair in China. It is expected that based on the first-hand data collected form the repeated international exhibitors of the fair, specific determinant factors that affect international companies decisions of repeated participation of an exhibition be identified and categorized. The results would not only benefit fair organizers, but also be useful for international exhibitors in terms of a better preparation for the exhibition activities during the fair period and beyond. The data of the study collected from Beijing International Travel Expo (BITE), which held in China’s capital city annually since 2004. It has been a major travel fair with growing popularity in China and the Far East/Asia Pacific market.
Methods and Data Sources

The study started from a comprehensive review on existing literature about exhibitors' decision-making process. For example, Dickinson and Faria (1985) confirmed the factors affecting potential exhibitors to attend an exhibition or not included audience size; proportion of professional audiences from the target markets; booth location; number of booth visitors; and organizers’ marketing ranges. The study conducted by Kijieski, Yoon and Young (1993) indicated that the actual performance of the exhibition, the marketing mix, the exhibition environment, and participation cost were the major concerns affecting exhibitors decisions. Similarly, Yuksel and Voola (2010) summarized that exhibitors have emphasized great importance to the reputation/image of the fair; professional audience availability; fitness to target market; past experience of exhibition attendance, exhibition costs; number of exhibitors, the quality of service provided during the exhibition.

To enrich the study's academic basis, the authors also reviewed literature related to traditional marketing research theory on customers repeat purchase behavior. For example, Dodds’ (1991) study demonstrated that the pre-evaluation on products, and comparison with substitute products would be key factors affecting the final decision making of a purchase. By online questionnaire surveying with 616 exhibition clients, Thomas, Gruena and Andrew (2006) held that communications about the perceived values of exhibition and recommendations among peer customers significantly influence their first decision of attending an exhibition, but they do not contribute much in their decision for repeating attendances.

The questionnaire include 6 items, exhibitors’ perceived value, satisfaction, loyal, brand preference, cost to change and diversity need. Some items come from above literature, others come from our observation and the advice of the exhibition industry expert. In order to get the accurate answer from the interviewers, we refined the 6 items into 29 questions according to the feature of the tourism fair.

This study adopted a descriptive research design. The data for the study was collected through questionnaire surveys with international exhibitors for Beijing International Tourism Expo (BITE) during 2008 to 2013 in Beijing. As reported above, BITE has been developed as an annual travel exhibition for travel and tourism industry with the increasing influences in China and the nearby areas. As the research consultant invited by BITE organizer, the first author of the paper has led a research group and traced the exhibition since its early stage. The research group has worked for the BITE consistently in measuring and monitoring exhibitors’ needs and satisfactions of participating exhibition for years. Two members of the project who involved in the early years’ research work have joined the BITE organizing company (after graduation from their postgraduate study, where the research project undertaken) and continued their supporting roles for this research project, which benefit the project more from providing enriched information about exhibitors’ background information. This also assisted the research group’s accessibility of internal statistic data and effective communication with the exhibitors.

Specifically for this research, with the assistance the BITE organizing body (Beijing Tourism Development Committee), questionnaires were distributed to international exhibitors who had attended BITE more than two times in the past 5 years via their registration email addresses. A total of 200 questionnaires were sent in April 2013 and 188 completed copies returned, which represented a relatively high (94%) response rate. The data was then input into SPSS software package for next stage analysis usage.
Research Process and Results

The respondents for this study were the exhibitors at 2008-2013 BITE travel exhibitions. Regards to the distribution of the respondents, tour operators and travel agencies proportioned the major sector (60.1%), while the governmental organizations (e.g. NTOs and local embassies in Beijing) followed (19.2%). About 16.0% respondents were from hotels and resorts, theme parks, or attractions. Airline companies counted for 4.7% of all respondents in the data.

Exploratory Factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to summarize the major factors affecting respondents’ decision on repeating attendance of the exhibition, the EFA result released six factors that contributed to their decision of repeat participation of the exhibition, namely: perceived value of the exhibition; satisfaction on exhibition services; loyalty; cost for shift; (exhibition) brand preferences; and needs for diversification. The results reported that the former four factors contributed more on their decisions of repeating participation while the latter two contributed slightly less. To better understand the factors affecting exhibitors’ decision-making, and to present the result in a more clear way, this paper proposed a model (in Figure 1) to represent the possible relationships. It was based on existing literature research on exhibition and the results released from the current study.

![Figure 1: Model of Exhibition Repeat Participation](image)

Another result released was that the different types of exhibitors viewed differently on the affecting factors. Governmental organizations ((e.g. NTOs and local embassies in Beijing) valued more on the perceived benefits of participation, while tour operators and travel agencies pay more attention to the real outcomes of attending the exhibition (sales and contracts generated during the event). Hotels, resorts, and attractions held that loyalty to the exhibition was important when considering of repeatedly participation in the exhibition. It was also found that independent exhibitors put more importance on satisfactions of related services and the perceived values of attending the exhibition, while group exhibitors concerned more about the possible cost of shift from one exhibition to another.
Discussion and Implementation

As an early attempt of study on the repeated exhibitors, authors of the study wish the work can bring more academic attention to this filed. In practice, the results of this study would be useful for travel fair/exhibition organizers in term of better knowing potential exhibitors’ needs and expectations, particularly, it may benefit organizers comprehend the reasons why exhibitors choose to participate the same exhibition repeatedly. Strategies that can capture and meet these needs and expectations would be formulated and promoted accordingly to attract exhibitors be loyal. Measures to maintain loyal exhibitors would be also proposed. To achieve a long-term sustainable relationship with exhibitors, organizers need to put specific efforts on understanding and enhancing the real benefits brought to exhibitors.

According to the research findings, the following measures should be taken by the organizers. 1) For different types of exhibitors, should supply different type of product and service according to their preference; 2) the organizers should enhance the development of credibility and improve the value of the exhibition brand, bring up fidelity of their customers; 3) Invite more quality trade visitors, improve the perceived value of the exhibitors and make more business opportunities for all the participants; 4) Build up the professional and accurate clients service system, bring different experiences to different customers. 5) Frequent communication with these clients during off-fair period would be one of the strategies organizers can follow.

Results of the study also could be significant for international travel operators who are to expand new business in China or the Far East market. It is suggested that well-prepared exhibition strategies which highlighting long-term, consistent development are necessary when foreign travel businesses tend to explore the China market.

This study focused on factors affecting repeating attendance of travel exhibition in China. Previous research on this aspect was rare, which leads to a limited source of literature for the current study. Meanwhile, the study only took samples from one travel exhibition in China, the results therefore may not reflect situations other exhibitions have.

Reference:


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Customer Value Amongst Wellness Tourists

Ana Težak Damijanić
Ninoslav Luk
Institute of Agriculture and Tourism
Poreč, Croatia
tezak@iptpo.hr

Mirjana Kovačić
University of Rijeka, Faculty of Maritime Studies Rijeka.
Rijeka, Croatia

Introduction
Customer value presents an excellent concept for marketing in tourism. Wellness tourism is focused on achieving well-being, so by examining the relationship between the customer value and motivational factors or attributes of wellness hotels this research achieves a contribution to the overall conference theme. This research focuses on guests' perspective of customer value in wellness hotels, so results highlight important issues in this relationship which may enable improvements in host-guest interactions.

Literature review
There are two main approaches in research concerning customer value in tourism. The first approach defined customer value from utilitarian point of view and focuses on relationship among customer value and other variables e.g. satisfaction, behavioural intentions (Hutchinson et al., 2009). The second approach focuses on dimensions of customer value (Jamal et al., 2011; Nasution and Mavondo, 2008; Petrick, 2002; Sánchez et al., 2006) taking into account characteristics of services and tourism.

Works on dimensions of customer value can be divided into five categories based on initial theoretical approach: consumption value (Sánchez et al., 2006; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Williams and Soutar, 2009), transaction and acquisition value (Al-Sabbahy et al., 2004; Petrick and Backman, 2002), multi-dimensional scale for measuring the perceived value of a service (Nasution and Mavondo, 2008; Petrick, 2002), consumption experience (Gallarza and Saura, 2008; Gallarza and Gil, 2008; Holbrook, 2006) and combination of various theoretical approaches (Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Jamal et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2007).

Woodruff (1997) links customer value to product attributes by defining customer value as a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those products attributes, attribute performances and consequences arising from use that facilitate achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations (Woodruff, 1997, 142). Product attributes in the context of tourism may be treated as motivation factors (Lubbe, 2003). Lubbe (2003) links tangible and intangible attributes of tourist product to push and pull motivation factors.

The theory of push and pull motivations is the most widely applied motivation theory in tourism. It distinguishes between push factors, which refer to internal forces that motivate or create a desire to satisfy a need to travel, and pull factors, which are recognized as destination attributes (Kozak, 2002; Lubbe, 2003). It is also applied in analysis of wellness tourists' travel motives (Bennett et al., 2004; Hallab, 2006; Konu and Laukkanan, 2009; Mak et al., 2009; Mueller and Lanz Kaufmann, 2001).

The goal of this paper is to determine the relationship between dimensions of customer value and attributes of wellness tourist product presented as pull motivation factors.

Methods and material

A study focused on tourists’ healthy lifestyle and customer value was conducted from May through June in 2013 in 15 wellness hotels situated in Republic of Croatia. Data was collected through self-complete questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions which were divided into four sections: 1) attitudes regarding healthy lifestyle, 2) perceived customer value, 3) travel motives and 4) respondents’ characteristics. Questionnaire was originally designed in Croatian and then back translated into English, German, Italian, Russian and Slovenian.

For measuring the travel motives and perceived customer value a five-point Likert scale was used. For the purpose of this paper only pull motivational factors were taken into account (Andrijašević and Bartoluci, 2004; Bennett et al., 2004; Mak et al., 2009; Mueller and Lanz Kaufmann, 2001; Pesonen et al., 2011). Items measuring customer value were based on theory of consumption value (Sánchez et al., 2006; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) but other approaches were also taken into account.

Regression analysis was used for testing the relationship between travel motives (explanatory variables) and dimensions of customer value (dependant variables). Prior to the regression analysis, factor analysis (principal axis factor analysis and direct oblimin rotation with an eigenvalue of 1.00 or more), internal reliability computation (Cronbach’s alpha) and appropriate regression diagnostics were done. The models were corrected using robust standard errors.

Results

A total of 548 responders were taken into analysis. The proportion of female responders (56%) was slightly higher than that of male (44%). The majority of responders were between 35 and 54 years of age (48%). Most of the responders obtained higher education (68%). Generally the responders were employees (45%), 16% were self-employed and about 14% were managers. Most of them were from Austria (23%) and Germany (23%), almost 11% were from UK and about 10% from Italy. The most frequent monthly net income was between €1,000 and €2,000 (38%).

To examine multidimensionality and internal reliability of the perceived value and travel motivation factor analyses were done. Three factors representing travel motivation formed clear factors structures. They jointly accounted for 58.85% of accumulated variance and were labelled as basic wellness, intangible wellness and extra wellness (Cronbach's alpha coefficients were 0.91, 0.80 and 0.88 respectively). Four factors representing customer value formed clear factors structures. Jointly they accounted for 64.43% of accumulated variance. They were labelled as personnel, prestige, value for money and hotel quality (Cronbach's alpha coefficients were 0.92, 0.86, 0.92 and 0.91 respectively). Composite variables were calculated as a mean value for each respondent.
Table 1: Results of regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2,763***</td>
<td>2,085***</td>
<td>2,185***</td>
<td>3,064***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic wellness</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra wellness</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.278***</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible wellness</td>
<td>0.335***</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.377***</td>
<td>0.287***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F statistics</td>
<td>18.45***</td>
<td>22.98***</td>
<td>30.027***</td>
<td>11.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.126</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>0.142</td>
<td>0.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESET test</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>3.19*</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.19***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breusch-Pagan test</td>
<td>20.58***</td>
<td>5.08*</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>23.44***</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

The relationships between motivation factors and dimensions of customer value was tested using regression analysis (Table 1). A total of four models were analysed. The first model analysed the relationship between motivation factors and personnel, the second model considered the relationship between motivation factors and prestige, the relationship between motivation factors and value for money was analysed in the third model while in the fourth model the relationship between motivation factors and hotel quality was examined. Intangible wellness was significant in relation to personnel, value for money and hotel quality, while extra wellness was significant in the context of prestige. The heteroscedasticity was present in the first, the second and the third model so they were corrected. RESET test was statistically significant for the second and the fourth model indicating that important variables were omitted. The overall regression models had low adjusted R square varying from 0.11 to 0.14, but F statistics was significant.

Discussion and Conclusions

Three groups of pull travel motives (basic, intangible and extra wellness) and three factors of functional value (personnel, value for money and hotel quality) and one factor of social value (prestige) were determined. Basic wellness included aspects like massage, sauna; intangible wellness encompassed various items that correspond to intangible aspects of tourist product e.g. atmosphere, interactions; while extra wellness included attributes like detoxification, Tai Chi, etc. Personnel included various items related to interaction of hotel staff with guests and their knowledge about various services; value for money covered items like appropriateness of prices compared to the services; factor hotel quality focused on consistency and quality level of hotel, while prestige included items like status symbol, opinion regarding how other people perceive the guest.

Intangible wellness was significant variable in relation to personnel, “value for money” feeling and hotel quality, suggesting that those intangible aspects like atmosphere, host-guest interaction etc. increase positive perception of value. Extra wellness was important in relation to prestige. These findings confirm importance of experience in the context of tourism (Gallarza and Saura, 2008; Holbrook, 2006).

Customer value literature usually examines various dimensions of customer or relationships among variables like satisfaction, quality, repurchase intention, loyalty, price etc., but relationship between product attributes and customer value is usually theorized. This research examines the latter relationship and determines influence of attributes on dimensions of perceived customer value confirming the relationship between motivation and value (Komppula and Gartner, 2013).
References


A Journey Inside Tourist Souvenirs

Alain Decrop
Julie Masset
University of Namur
Belgium
julie.masset@unamur.be

Introduction
A question frequently obsesses consumers when they travel or are on vacation: what will I bring from my trip back home? Shopping is entirely part of the tourist experience and one of the predominant contemporary tourist rituals (Belk, 1997). It is also a major business for tourist destinations nowadays. According to the American Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (OTTI), 91% of all international leisure travellers are concerned with shopping (OTTI, 2011). However, significant cultural differences exist in shopping behavior. Asian tourists spend up to 61% of their budget to shopping including tourist souvenirs, whereas Western tourists devote between 30 and 37% of their total travel budget on this (Timothy, 2005). Such a difference may emanate from traditions or cultural imperatives. For example, in Japan, buying an “omiyage” for family members, friends, and colleagues is highly valued when travelling. Actually, gifts and souvenirs constitute a significant part of these tourist expenditures (Lehto et al., 2004; Littrell et al., 1994). To bring back souvenirs is as old as travelling itself when upper-class European young men collected art pieces in order to immortalize their Grand Tour.

Our videography invites to travel around the world of tourist souvenirs, considering more specifically material souvenirs, i.e., all the objects that are bought, picked-up in the natural environment, or received from a significant person (e.g., a local) during the vacation experience. We excluded specialty goods (e.g., clothing, perfumes, or jewelry) bought by tourists from the scope of this research because our informants do not consider them as tourist souvenirs. Our research goal is to understand better and more deeply the motives and meanings associated with the purchase and consumption of souvenirs.

Literature Review
Consumers may feel a strong attachment towards their souvenirs and consider them as special possessions (McCracken, 1988; Wallendorf & Arnould, 1988; Wallendorf, Belk & Heisley, 1988). According to Belk (1988) and McCracken (1988), consumers attribute importance to their possessions because they encompass a part of themselves, they belong to their self, and reveal their identity. Possessions contribute to define who consumers are: “men and women make order in their selves (i.e., retrieve their identity) by first creating and then interacting with the material world. The nature of such a transaction will determine, to a great extent, the kind of person that emerges. Thus the things that surround us are inseparable from who we are” (Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg-Halton, 1981: 16). Such a strong attachment may also stem from the sacred status of these special possessions as opposed to the profane status of other objects: “sacred objects are seen as mystical, powerful, and deserving of reverential behaviour, as opposed to the ordinary, common, and mundane behaviour accorded to profane commodities” (Wallendorf et al., 1988: 529). However, despite its importance for self-identity development, the field of tourist special possessions has been under-studied in consumer research. In addition, extant studies on tourist souvenirs lack depth (Swanson & Timothy, 2012) and fail to explore both their functional and symbolic dimensions. They traditionally focus on the types, uses, and functionalities of souvenirs...

(Gordon 1986), rather than on the meanings given to them (Love & Sheldon, 1998). The current research aims at filling such gaps. Specifically, the following research questions are addressed through the film: What are the motives for buying and consuming souvenirs? Which meanings are associated with souvenirs? Which functions do souvenirs fulfil in terms of consumer identity construction?

Methods and Materials

To address these questions, we chose a naturalistic interpretive approach. The goal of such approach is to understand the occurrence of natural phenomena in situ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To get such an idiosyncratic understanding, immersing oneself in the field is needed to achieve thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973). In total, thirty-nine Belgian tourists were interviewed. Specifically, we interviewed nineteen informants at home and we observed their souvenirs in the home context. Furthermore, we participated in a one-week package tour in Portugal during which we observed forty-two Belgian tourists and their souvenir buying behavior and we interviewed 20 of them in depth. Non-participant observations were also conducted in other tourist sites such as New York, Turkey and Egypt. The collected data included interview transcripts, field notes, and visual materials (i.e., pictures and videos). They were analyzed and interpreted through Grounded Theory, which is an inductive and systematic way to generate theoretical insights from empirical data through different layers of coding (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Results

The core of our film is constituted of our emerging findings. These are supported with quotes, interview excerpts, pictures, and videos and are divided in three sections. Firstly, the motives for buying and consuming souvenirs are considered. Two major motives, i.e., remembrance and enduring involvement, as well as more specific motivations (i.e., utility, hedonism, improvement of a collection, bargain hunting, gift, or need to reciprocate a favor or a gift) are developed.

Second, a typology of four types of symbolic souvenirs, including tourist trinkets, destination stereotypes, paper mementoes, and picked-up objects is presented. Tourist trinkets involve small trinkets or gadgets (e.g., mugs, key rings, and tee-shirts) that are bought for a cheap price in souvenir shops anywhere in the world. The second type, destination stereotypes, entails tourist objects depicted as “the specialty of the place” (e.g., Egyptian papyrus, Eiffel Towers, and Russian dolls). Although tourists are aware that such mass-produced objects are not unique, they continue to buy them because they stand for the destination. In addition, before and during the vacation experience, tourists collect and keep all types of paper mementoes (e.g., city maps, entrance tickets, books, and leaflets). Finally, picked-up objects such as stones, sand, seeds, and coral are the type of souvenirs mentioned by tourists with the greatest enthusiasm. Tourists often bring back something for free from the natural environment in order to escape the market or simply to have something more typical and unique in their eyes. Rather than a monetary or intrinsic value, a strong affective or symbolic value is conferred to these objects.

Thirdly, our film examines the meanings given to souvenirs. In addition to the private/individual or public/cultural meanings attached to souvenirs, this final section emphasizes five functions souvenirs may fulfil in terms of consumer identity construction: connection, integration, socialization, self-expression, and sacralization. When purchasing and consuming souvenirs, tourists can be connected with a person, a particular destination, a memorable vacation event, or a significant anecdote. They can also tend to affirm their integration within a group of travellers or within the broader tourist sub-culture. Moreover,
Tourism souvenirs may be a way to communicate and socialize with other people. In addition to the social functions, souvenirs may help consumers to express their personal taste and to affirm their status as tourists. In other words, they may fulfil self-expression and ego-enhancement functions. Finally, souvenirs may become sacralized. Proofs of the sacred are found in collection rituals, commitment, objectification, symbolic contamination, and shrines made of souvenirs.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Tourist souvenirs are a typical example of special possessions that may convey deep meanings to tourists' lives. This film provides a deep understanding of the motives and meanings for buying and consuming such souvenirs. Therefore, it contributes to consumer research and tourism marketing. In contrast with previous research on souvenirs, our study explores the functional and symbolic dimensions of souvenirs through a naturalistic interpretive approach. It also underlines the power of souvenirs as messengers of deep meanings. It shows that these meanings can be individual or cultural, private or public (Richins, 1994). The significant role of tourist special possessions in consumer identity construction is emphasized as well. Finally, tourist souvenirs seem to be the perfect illustration of a hierophany (Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry, 1991) as the souvenir’s sacredness is intrinsically related to the story of the object for his/her owner.

As material agents or messengers of meaning, tourist souvenirs can ease the transition from the tourist experience, which is often related to something extraordinary, sacred, and unique, to everyday life, often described as ordinary, profane, and mundane. Our videography concludes on the significance of souvenirs in the tourist experience and their ubiquity in every corner of the world. “Souvenirs have existed for thousands of years, and as long as people continue to travel, they will continue to be an important element of the experience” (Swanson & Timothy, 2012: 497).

**References**


The importance of quality labels in consumers’ preferences: An application to the Walloon tourism industry

Alain Decrop
Dean, Faculty of economics, social sciences and business administration
University of Namur
CeRCLé (Center for Research on Consumption and Leisure)
alain.decrop@unamur.be

Valérie Boembeké
Master student
University of Namur
valerie_1304@hotmail.com

Introduction
Service quality is defined as “the consumer’s judgment about a product’s overall excellence or superiority” (Zeithaml, 1988, p 3). It is characterized by both a technical and a functional dimension (Grönroos and Shostack, 1983). Technical quality refers to the result of what is delivered to the consumer, while functional quality refers to the way in which the service is delivered. In recent decades, the functional dimension has become an issue of increasing importance, especially in a context of technological advance, growing competition and behavioral changes (Decrop, 2010; Milea, 2012; Ryglova, Vajčnerová and Sacha, 2013; Talib and Rahman, 2012; Tari Heras-Saizarbitoria and Dick, 2012).

Quality is a determining attribute when consumers evaluate a tourism activity (Weiermair, 2000; Wong and Kwong, 2004). Due to its intangible nature, a service is difficult to observe and evaluate, leading to uncertainty in consumers’ mind (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985). Therefore, quality signals, such as labels, are used to improve the perceived service quality (Akerlof, 1970; Armstrong, Nagard-Assayag, Kotler and Lardinoit, 2010; Marcotte, Bourdeau and Leroux, 2012; Merasli, 2004; Prim-Allaz, Ricard, Courvoisier, Dreyer-Khadir and Poggi, 2008). Over the past decade, a multiplication of quality labels has been observed across Europe, such as Wallonie Destination Qualité in Belgium.

This paper’s main objective is to study the importance of quality labels in consumers’ preferences. More specifically, we attempt to measure consumers’ sensitivity to a quality label when they choose an accommodation or a tourist attraction. In order to reach these objectives, a literature review of theories around consumer preferences and quality labels will be developed. Next, the methodology of the empirical research and the main results will be presented. Finally, we will discuss results and present the study’s managerial implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

Literature review
Consumer preferences
During a decision-making process, consumers evaluate a series of choice alternatives, which are part of their consideration set (Engel, Blackwell and Kollat, 1968). The evaluation can be performed according to a categorization process or follow a more analytical process attribute by attribute and/or alternative by alternative. The evaluation can be internal or external. An internal evaluation is based on pre-existing evaluations resulting from direct or indirect past experiences with the product/service, whereas an external evaluation involves the construction of new evaluations resulting from information stored in memory or gathered from commercial and non-commercial sources. Once the evaluation process is over,

consumers should be able to identify their preferred alternative and to make a decision. So, preference is usually defined as the predisposition of choosing one product alternative over the other. It implies taking a position that is the result of a comparative process. Comparison may be explicit (ranking objects) or implicit (rating objects). Preference is a special case of a broader construct, i.e. attitudes, which has been one of the most popular topic in the consumer behavior literature so far (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

Quality labels

A quality label is defined as “a sign which informs about specific quality dimensions, in any form whatsoever, of a product or a service and emanating from an organization different from the company that produces products and services” (Chameroy and Chandon, 2010, p 5). It is essential to make a distinction between a label and neighbour concepts such as brand, certification and classification. First, the brand emanates from the company itself, whereas the label emanates from an independent third party. The brand is specific to the company, while more brands may be under the umbrella of one and the same label. Second, the certification is governed by more strict regulatory measures than the label. Most of the time certifications are mandatory, while labels are voluntary. Finally, the classification aims at categorizing a tourism activity in a series of groups or classes (i.e., stars or suns) according to criteria related to its importance, value or quality. It pertains to the technical dimension of service quality, whereas the label relates to its functional dimension.

Importance of quality labels in consumers’ preferences

The major objective of this study is to compare the relative importance of three attributes that may be used as quality signals in tourism choices, i.e., label, brand and classification. Quality labels facilitate the decision-making process when consumers choose a tourism activity (Marcotte, Bourdeau et al., 2012). An empirical study has shown that classification is valued above the brand and the label when consumers choose a tourism activity (Prim-Allaz, Ricard et al., 2008), which leads to our first hypothesis:

H 1: The relative importance of the Classification attribute is higher than the Label attribute when consumers choose a tourism activity.

Of course, the brand is also a major quality signal involved in consumers’ decision-making process, inferring ideas of quality and consistency (Armstrong, Nagard-Assayag et al., 2010). However, the classification and the label are generally valued by consumers stronger than commercial information issued by the company, as they appear to be more neutral and credible because they emanate from an independent third party (Chameroy and Chandon, 2010). Therefore, we suggest that:

H 2: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher than the Brand attribute when consumers choose a tourism activity.

In addition to comparing the relative importance of a quality label versus brand and classification, we also wanted to investigate how consumers’ perception and attitude towards a quality label may influence its relative importance in a choice task. On the one hand, a specific quality label should be perceived as credible if it is to influence consumers’ decision-making process (Courvoisier and Courvoisier, 2005; CRIOC 2004; Larceneux, 2004). A few studies demonstrated that the perceived credibility of a quality label has a positive influence on the perceived quality and the purchase intention of a labeled product/service (Moussa and Touzani, 2008), which leads to formulate the following:

H 3: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher when the quality label is perceived as more credible by consumers.

On the other hand, the literature suggests that consumers have a positive attitude towards labels in general (Chameroy and Chandon, 2010), which leads them spontaneously to
limit their consideration of choice alternatives to labeled products/services (Blackwell, Miniard and Engel, 2006; Decrop, 2010). Therefore, we assume that:

H 4: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher when consumers have a positive attitude towards labels in general.

Finally, the relative importance of quality labels may be influenced by moderating variables including the type of tourism activity, consumers’ level of risk aversion, level of involvement and the purchase frequency of tourism services. Quality signals in the accommodation sector are used for a longer time than they are in the tourist attraction sector. Moreover, accommodation choices are assumed to involve consumers more strongly than attraction choices due to a higher cost and the higher complexity of the purchase process (Blackwell, Miniard et al., 2006; Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005). This leads to these two hypotheses:

H 5: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher in the accommodation sector than in the tourist attraction sector.

H 6: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher when consumers are involved more strongly in the purchase decision of a tourism activity.

A consumer who shows a strong risk aversion tends to reduce the perceived risk and to be more sensitive to quality labels in his/her choice (Larceneux, 2004). A stronger risk aversion when purchasing a product/service leads to a stronger involvement, which may increase consumers’ sensitivity to the quality label in the purchase decision (Rothschild, 1984; Zaichkowski, 1985; Zaichkowski, 1986). Similarly, the unusual purchase of a product/service (low purchase frequency) increases consumers' perceived risk and level of involvement. According to these arguments, we assume that:

H 7: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher when consumers show a stronger risk aversion when purchasing a tourism service.

H 8: The relative importance of the Label attribute is higher when consumers have a lower purchase frequency.

Figure 1 presents our full research model, including the eight hypotheses formulated above.

![Figure 1. Research model](image-url)
Method

Two data collection techniques were used in a survey: a conjoint analysis task and a questionnaire. Conjoint analysis measures consumer preferences (Luce and Tukey, 1964) through the estimation of partial utilities that helps to compute the relative importance of a product/service's attributes (Kemperman, 2000). We designed prototypical hotel and tourist attraction deals based on combinations of determining attribute levels (Table 1). Conjoint Designer helped us generate two sets of 16 deals and we asked respondents to rank one of these two sets in decreasing order of preference. In addition to the estimation of consumer preferences through the conjoint task, we designed a short survey in order to measure the independent and moderating variables of our research model.

The survey was administered electronically or in face-to-face to French-speaking Belgians living in the Walloon Region, who did stay or go for a recreational excursion. The non-random quota sampling technique was used in order to build up a sample representative of the target population as to accompaniment, province of residence and occupation. After cleaning the data, the final sample included 193 respondents, i.e., 96 in the accommodation sector and 97 in the tourist attraction sector. Data were analyzed with Conjoint Linmap and SPSS 16.0.

Results

Conjoint analysis results

In the accommodation sector, hotel classification results to be the attribute to which respondents give the highest importance, followed by price, convenience and label (Table 1). In contrast, brand is the attribute with the lowest relative weight. In the tourist attraction sector, classification also appears to be the most important attribute, followed by price, label and the type of attraction. Again, brand is the least important attribute.

Based on paired samples t-tests, the difference between Label and Classification ($t = -5.936$, $df = 192$, $p = 0.000$) and between Label and Brand ($t = 2.255$, $df = 192$, $p = 0.025$) are significant. The relative importance of the label attribute is lower than the classification attribute and higher than the brand attribute, confirming our hypotheses 1 and 2.
Table 1. Utility function of choosing a hotel and a tourist attraction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOTELS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Label</strong></td>
<td><strong>13.08%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>« Wallonie Destination Qualité »</td>
<td>3.760</td>
<td>-3.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No label</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classification</strong></td>
<td><strong>32.07%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 stars</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 stars</td>
<td>-10.349</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 stars</td>
<td>2.256</td>
<td>8.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.03%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent hotel</td>
<td>2.362</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member of a hotel chain</td>
<td>-2.362</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Price</strong></td>
<td><strong>31.32%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Convenience</strong></td>
<td><strong>15.50%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to a transport infrastructure</td>
<td>-5.262</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to the area visited</td>
<td>3.648</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to the downtown</td>
<td>1.614</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOURIST ATTRACTIONS</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Label</strong></td>
<td><strong>26.61%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>« Wallonie Destination Qualité »</td>
<td>4.551</td>
<td>-4.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No label</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Classification</strong></td>
<td><strong>32.82%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 suns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 suns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 suns</td>
<td>-6.183</td>
<td>1.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.84%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent tourist attraction</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member of a tourist attraction chain</td>
<td>-0.657</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Price</strong></td>
<td><strong>31.92%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of attraction</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.81%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.838</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on a t-test on independent samples, the difference between *Hotels* and *Attractions* (t = 0.684, df = 191, p = 0.495) does not appear to be significant at the 0.05 level. The relative weight of the label attribute does not vary with the type of tourism activity, which does not support hypothesis 5.

Survey results

First, a Principal Component Analysis was conducted to group items from the scales developed for measuring the two independent variables of our research model (i.e., credibility of the specific label and attitude towards labels in general). Second, a multiple linear
regression was generated to estimate the effects of independent and moderating variables on the relative importance of the label attribute (dependent variable).

Bêta coefficients of the perceived credibility of a specific quality label and the attitude towards labels in general are positive and significant (Table 2). In the accommodation sector, only the attitude coefficient is positive and significant. In the tourist attraction sector, coefficients of the credibility, the attitude and the purchase frequency are positive and significant. These results confirm our hypotheses 3 and 4 but do not bring support to hypotheses 7 and 8.

According to the correlation matrix, a significant relationship exists between the relative importance of the Label attribute and purchase decision involvement. A simple regression (due to a collinearity problem) shows that the involvement coefficient is positive and significant \((n = 193, \beta = 0.229, p = 0.001)\). However, in the tourist attraction sector, the involvement level appears to positively influence the weight of the label \((n = 96, \beta = 0.305, p = 0.002)\), whereas this is not such the case for the accommodation sector. So, hypothesis 6 is partially validated.

Table 2. Linear regression of independent and moderating variables on the relative importance of the Label attribute

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Accommodation</th>
<th>Tourist attraction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility_Label</td>
<td>(\beta=0.126) (p=0.083)</td>
<td>(\beta=-0.015) (p=0.878)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.256) (p=0.020)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude_Label</td>
<td>(\beta=0.540) (p=0.000)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.654) (p=0.000)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.410) (p=0.001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk_Aversion</td>
<td>(\beta=0.027) (p=0.644)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.050) (p=0.539)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.070) (p=0.429)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement_Decision</td>
<td>(\beta=0.034) (p=0.611)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.051) (p=0.543)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.061) (p=0.545)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency_Purchase</td>
<td>(\beta=0.013) (p=0.830)</td>
<td>(\beta=-0.097) (p=0.239)</td>
<td>(\beta=0.153) (p=0.090)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion and conclusion

Quality label is a determining attribute when consumers choose a hotel and a tourist attraction. Whatever the sector, the relative importance of this attribute is higher than the weight given to the brand and is lower than the importance of classification. Such a result may be specific to tourism products for which novelty seeking is higher and loyalty is lower than for other products or services. As most of the time, tourists lack knowledge about the brands on the market, they are likely to trust labels to a larger extent. Moreover, consumers’ attitude towards labels in general and their perceived credibility of a specific quality label, such as Wallonie Destination Qualité, have a positive impact on the relative importance of the label attribute. Consumers’ purchase decision involvement is a moderator that may also have a positive impact. However, quality labels are not so well known by consumers, regardless of the sector, and are confused with other similar notions, such as the classification.
These results lead to a few managerial and theoretical implications. On the one hand, the proven importance of labels may encourage labeled tourist operators to increase using this attribute in their positioning and marketing campaigns and encourage unlabeled tourist operators to enroll in such a quality approach. Tourist organizations should be educated to promote quality labels and to develop new attractive tourist deals. On the other hand, our results highlight the importance of labels in consumers’ decision-making process. Classification and labeling seem to reassure consumers about the quality of a tourism product and to help them make a choice through a reduction of cognitive effort and emotional disruption, which are increasing in the current context of hyperchoice. Moreover, conjoint analysis proves to be a useful method for comparing the importance of different choice attributes related to quality.

Of course, our study shows limitations that lead to a few suggestions for future research. It would be interesting to increase sample size in order to ensure a better representation of the Belgian population. Next, it would be interesting to extend the target population to international tourists. Finally in this study, the brand attribute reflects the legal status of a tourism activity (independent/franchisee) rather than the signature of a company (e.g., Ibis, Novotel, etc.), which may explain why brand is not that important in tourists’ preferences. Therefore, it would be interesting to test the influence of concrete brand names on consumer choices.

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Driving first time spectators and repeat spectators to cultural events: "Sa Sartiglia" Carnival, Sardinia (Italy)

Giacomo Del Chiappa
Department of Economics and Business (DiSEA) & CRENOS
University of Sassari, Italy
E-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it

Giuseppe Melis
Department of Economics and Business
University of Cagliari, Italy
E-mail: gemelis@unica.it

Marcello Atzeni
Department of Economics and Business
University of Cagliari, Italy
E-mail: marcelloatzeni@unica.it

Introduction

Events are an important motivator of tourism (Getz, 2008) and play a highly relevant role especially for rural and peripheral destinations (Lee, Kyle, & Scott, 2012). So far, a vast amount of literature has been devoted to the analysis of impacts generated by events; these are usually categorized in economic, socio-cultural, environmental, physical, political, as well as touristic (e.g: Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris & McDonnel, 2006). This research examines the differences in expenditure and satisfaction level between first-time and repeat spectators to a cultural event, as well as in their intention to return and to recommend the host destination.

Literature review

To date, exiting studies (e.g. Getz, 2008), have taken into consideration several types of events: cultural (festivals, carnivals, etc), political and state (summits, political events, etc.), arts and entertainment (concerts, award ceremonies), business and trade (meetings, conventions, etc.) educational and scientific (conferences, seminars, etc.), sport competitions (amateur/professional, spectator/participant), recreational (sport or games for fun), private events (weddings, parties, etc.). In the context of cultural events, carnivals provide opportunities to (re)interpret the symbols and rituals that shape and define the social existence of the hosting community and to let visitors actively experience the local identity and authenticity; this in turn, contributes to visitors feeling attached and psychologically committed toward the hosting destination, thus ultimately favouring their positive behavioural intentions (Lee et al., 2012). Tourism literature states that a deep understanding of the differences between first-time and repeat visitors, particularly in their pre-travel and post-trip characteristics (Oppermann, 1997), is relevant in developing effective tourism marketing strategies (e.g: Del Chiappa, Tinaz & Turco, 2014; Lau & McKercher, 2004), in applying market segmentation, and in building travel motivation and decision-making theories. Further, prior research offers a mixed picture of similarities and differences between the first time and repeat cultural tourists, with findings that are sometimes contradictory. For example, several scholars have concluded that first-timers stay longer, spend more money per night per capita, and are more satisfied than repeaters (e.g: Anwar and Sohail, 2004).
However, other research shows the opposite (e.g: Li et al., 2008). There remains a lack of consensus about first-time and repeat spectator spending behaviours, and which group is more receptive to satisfaction. Relatively few studies have been explicitly devoted to study this topic in the context of cultural events (e.g. Richards, 2002).

This study was therefore carried out to assess and compare the consumer behaviours of first-time and repeat visitors to "Sa Sartiglia" with the aim of investigating whether any significant differences exist between first-timers and repeat spectators in their spending behaviour, satisfaction towards selected event features, and their intentions to return and to recommend visitation.

**Methods & materials**

"Sa Sartiglia" is the main carnival event in the Region of Sardinia. It occurs every year in the city of Oristano, before Lent and attracts several regional, national and international visitors. For the purposes of this study, an ad-hoc survey was developed based on prior literature. First, respondents were asked to give some general socio-demographic information (gender, age, level of education, etc.) and to indicate whether they were first-time spectators or repeaters. Second, respondents were asked to assess their level of agreement (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree) with a list of items used to investigate their overall satisfaction, intention to return and to recommend the event, intention to post photos, videos or comments online (UGC), and the intention to revisit the destination for reasons other than taking part in the event again ("show casing effect"). The third section of the survey asked respondents to provide information about their average daily expenditure for accommodation and other services used during their stay (food and beverage, souvenirs, handcrafts, etc.). The questionnaire was originally developed in Italian and then translated into English, French, Spanish and German by professional translators, using back-translation for quality assurance.

Data were collected on-site during the days of the event (3-5 February 2014) with questionnaires administered face-to-face by 17 interviewers; at the end of the event a convenience sample of 262 complete responses was obtained.

**Research and results**

The sample was well-balanced in terms of age of respondents; a slight majority (38.56%) of middle-aged people (36-56 years old) was found. On average, the respondents were 48.7 years old, mainly women (63.33%), with a high school degree (42%) or bachelor degree (40%) and an annual income lower than € 28,000 (41.4%) or falling in the € 28,000 to € 55,000 bracket / range(28.45%). Respondents were mostly national (66.06%) or international visitors (17.94%) (mainly from France, Germany and Spain), whereas 16% were regional tourists; they were mostly travelling with a partner (39.6%), with friends (32.21%) or their family (18.8%), whereas a relatively small percentage were reported travelling alone (4%) or in organized group (3.69%).

Table 1 shows that respondents perceived the event as highly unique (M=4.72), were highly satisfied with their experience (M=4.72), were willing to recommend both the event (M=4.51) and the tourism destination in which it takes place (M=4.25); further, they seem relatively willing to share their experience over the web by uploading comments, reviews, photos and videos (M=3.53).
Table 1 - First time spectators and repeaters’ satisfaction, perceived uniqueness and future intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Mean</th>
<th>First-timers Mean</th>
<th>Repeating Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I’m very satisfied with the event</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>-0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This event is unique</td>
<td>4.725</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>0.648</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>-0.749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will participate in the next edition of</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.361</td>
<td>1.163</td>
<td>-4.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will recommend this event to friends</td>
<td>4.515</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.798</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will recommend this destination to</td>
<td>4.255</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>-2.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to come back to this destination just for a holiday</td>
<td>4.075</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.401</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>-2.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will share my experience using social media</td>
<td>3.535</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.623</td>
<td>1.663</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Probing deeper, repeaters ranked higher mean values in all but one (intention to recommend the event) of the statements used to investigate the aforementioned variables. However, based on independent t-tests, first time visitors and repeaters differ significantly just in terms of their intention to return to the event (p = 0.001) and in terms of intention to return to the destination (p = 0.005) and to recommend it to others (p = 0.036). The fact that first-timers and repeaters were not found to have a significantly different level of satisfaction seems to partially contradict prior studies reporting the former as being more receptive to satisfaction than repeaters (e.g. Anwar e Sohail, 2004).

To investigate which variables are likely to influence the visitors’ total expenditure, a regression model was run with prior visitation, age, gender, level of education, professional status, family income and geographical status (Sardinian spectators vs. national and international spectators) being the independent variables, and the total expenditure the dependent one (Table 2).

Table 2 - Spectators spending behavior: a regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Std Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-0.807</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.036</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.219</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional status</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.961</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical status</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>0.483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly income</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>2.156</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior visitation</td>
<td>-0.064</td>
<td>-0.978</td>
<td>0.329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-square</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj R-square</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-test</td>
<td>2.670</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results indicated that the model is significant (F=2.466; p<0.01) and summarized a total variance of 27.4%.
Findings reveal that age ($\beta=0.160; p=0.027$) and annual family income ($\beta=0.158; p=0.032$) exert a significant influence on the visitors' total expenditure ($p<0.05$). Contrariwise, the total expenditure is not significantly influenced by gender ($\beta=-0.036; p=0.421$), level of education ($\beta=0.0038; p=0.574$), professional status ($\beta=0.064; p=0.337$), geographical status ($\beta=0.046; p=0.483$) or prior visitation ($\beta=-0.064; p=0.333$). To obtain a deeper knowledge about the visitors' spending behaviors, the mean value of total expenditure by product category was calculated for first-timers and repeaters, and then a series of t-tests was conducted to analyze whether any significant differences exist (Table 3). Repeaters were reported to have a higher average expenditure ($M=135.49$) when compared to first-time spectators ($M=129.8$) and they appear to spend more for all but one product category (B&B). However, when independent t-tests were run, the spending behaviors of first-time and repeaters did not differ significantly. This result seems to confirm the idea that prior travel experience (i.e. repeaters) does not necessarily generate significant differences in visitors/spectators' preferences and consumption levels (Chang et al., 2013; Del Chiappa et al., 2014).

### Discussion and conclusions

Findings reported repeaters expressing higher satisfaction, more positive behavioral intentions and higher average economic expenditure than first-time spectators. However, repeaters scored significantly higher just when intention to return to the event, intention to return to the destination and intention to recommend it to others were considered. The fact that first-timers and repeaters were not found to have a significantly different level of satisfaction seems to partially contradict prior studies reporting the former as being more receptive to satisfaction than repeaters (e.g. Anwar & Sohail, 2004); on the other hand, results highlighting no significant differences in spending behavior confirm prior studies suggesting that previous travel experience does not necessarily affect visitors' preferences and expenditure (Del Chiappa et al., 2014). Finally, age and annual family income were found to exert a significant influence on the visitors' total expenditure; no significant differences were found based on gender, level of education, professional status, geographical status or prior visitation. Findings provide useful information to support the most effective communication and cross-selling strategy to be used to attract a balanced mix of visitors and to satisfy their needs. For example, one could argue that the lower average expenditure of first-time spectators is due to their relatively poor knowledge about the destination; hence, destination marketers should target these spectators with messages (e.g using the official web-site of the
event or any social media) aimed at providing as much information as possible about attractions and places to go shopping and buy souvenirs.

References
A community-based collaborative approach to policymaking in islands: a cluster analysis in the context of Costa Smeralda

Giacomo Del Chiappa  
Department of Economics and Business (DiSEA) & CRENoS  
University of Sassari, Italy  
E-mail: gdelchiappa@uniss.it

Vahid Ghasemi  
Department of Economics and Business  
University of Cagliari, Italy  
E-mail: Va.ghasemi1@studenti.unica.it

Marcello Atzeni  
Department of Economics and Business  
University of Cagliari, Italy  
E-mail: marcelloatzeni@unica.it

Introduction

It is widely recognized that residents play a relevant dual role in tourism development. On the one hand, the local community represents one of the main stakeholders as it is the one most closely affected by the positive and negative economic, environmental, and sociocultural impacts; hence, a deep understanding of residents' perception and attitudes towards tourism development is pivotal to obtaining their support for tourism projects (Ap, 1992), to foster their sense of belonging to the place and to plan a future course of action that being sensitive to their needs and desirers (Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinci, & Kaya, 2008) is able to guarantee the well being of the local community. On the other hand host community that is positively disposed, friendly and hospitable will enhance tourists’ experience (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000); further, the local community with its traditions, culture, and authenticity, is one of the main “attractions” for people whose travel reason is to experience and connect with the culture of their destinations (Murphy, 1985), thus meaning that the cohabitation and interaction host-guest is pivotal in shaping and co-creating the tourist experience.

Literature review

Researchers agree that a sustainable tourism development is possible when there is collaborative policymaking among local authorities, government agencies, businesses and host communities (Vernon, Essex, Pinder, & Curry, 2005). The local community will be more likely to support the tourism planning when it has been done taking into account their desires and expectations; hence, will be also more likely disposal to welcome tourists and will be also more inclined to spread by word-of-mouth a positive image about their destination, thus acting as brand ambassadors (Chen, Dwyer, & Firrth, 2014).

Factors affecting residents’ perceptions and attitudes can be categorised into extrinsic and intrinsic factors. According to Faulkner and Tideswell (1997), the former refers to the characteristics of the location with respect to its role as a destination, while the latter refers to the characteristics of the host community members. Among the extrinsic factors, researchers considered, for example, the degree or stage of tourism development, and the degree of tourism seasonality. Among the intrinsic factors, we could consider the perceived balance between positive and negative impacts, community attachment and concern (Besculides, Lee, & McCormick, 2002), involvement in tourism planning, geographical proximity to
concentrations of activity (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000), length of residency, level of contact with tourists, economic reliance and dependence on industry (Ap, 1992). Finally, among the intrinsic factors affecting residents' attitudes, the literature includes sociodemographic characteristics such as gender, age and level of education (Belisle & Hoy, 1980). Further, another factor moderating the residents’ attitudes towards tourism development is the so-called heritage proximity, which can be defined as "the perceptual distance between residents and heritage promotion in a particular location" (Uriely, Israeli, & Reichel, 2009, p. 859).

Few studies focus on analysing residents’ perceptions and/or attitudes towards tourism development can be found in the field of island tourism destinations. This paper aims at presenting and discussing the results of a cluster analysis applied to a convenience sample of 890 residents living in Arzachena, the municipality whose administrative boundaries include the greater part (90%) of Costa Smeralda, one of the most well-established tourism destinations worldwide.

**Methods & materials**

Based on prior studies on residents’ attitude to tourism, a survey was developed; it was composed of two parts. The first asked respondents about their general sociodemographic characteristics (gender, age, education, etc). The second invited participants to indicate their level of agreement with 31 statements related to: (i) tourism impacts (ii) the implementation of tourism policies and the consequences on local welfare; and (iii) the sense of community belonging. To this end, a 7-point Likert scale was used (1= strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree). Data were collected in 2011 through face-to-face interviews conducted by two trained interviewer. A convenience sample of 890 complete questionnaires were collected and used for statistics.

**Research and results**

Overall, the findings reveal that residents think that the positive effects of tourism development outweigh, even slightly, the negative impacts (M=4.86) and are willing to support a further tourism development (M=5.76), especially if it is sensitive to local tradition and able to guarantee heritage proximity (residents are currently concerned about this ability: M=3.99). Further they were reported not being extensively willing to support this growth by financially supporting promotion operations (M=3.03) or investing in tourism activities; rather they do this encouraging their children to undertake tourism-related training/education and to enter into a tourism profession (M=4.77). Further, they felt poorly involved in tourism planning (M=2.86), and that institutions should financially support locals, more than others, so that an endogenous tourism development can occur (M=5.86).

For the purposes of the study a factor-cluster analysis was adopted (Madrigal, 1995). Hence, an explorative factor analysis, Principal Component Analysis and Varimax rotation, was used to reveal the underlying factors in the data. Hence, five factors were identified (52.42% of total variance). The KMO-index (Kaiser-Myer-Olkin = 0.926) and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity (chi-square = 10603.820; p-value <0.0001) confirm that the results are appropriate to explain the data. Cronbach’s alpha was then calculated to test the reliability of the extracted factors; all values are 0.7 or higher, thus suggesting that the factors are reliable. Specifically the four factors were named as follow: “Sense of belonging” (28.58% of total variance), "Ability of involvement of local authorities" (8.5% of the total variance), “Attitude towards tourism development” (6.33% of total variance), "Support to local entrepreneurship" (4.74% of total variance) "Propensity to invest in tourism" (4.26% of total variance).

The scores of the five principal components were entered into a cluster analysis. A hierarchical cluster (Ward method – Manhattan distances) was performed and four groups
emerged. Then, a non-hierarchical method (k-means) was applied to factor scores defining the four different groups of residents (namely: “Indifferents”, “Critics”, “Moderate Supporters”, “Enthusiastics”).

"Indifferents" (N=163) are mostly females (55.2%), married or cohabitating (71.2%), administrative workers (25.3%), with a high school degree (52.5%). They have been living for more than 20 years in Arzachena (57.1%), reside close to the tourism area (65.9%). They express a relatively neutral position as regard to tourism impacts. Further, they think that it is important to maintain the traditions of the community (M=4.66) and ask for institutions supporting financially the locals, rather then others, so that they can invest in tourism businesses (M=4.18). "Critics" (N=165) are mostly females (59.1%), belonging to the age bracket 36-45 (44.2%), married or cohabiting (67.5%), with middle school (31.5%) or high school (49.4%). They have been residing in Arzachena for less than 5 years (19.4% between 5 and 10 years and only 53.9% from more than 21 years), reside close to tourism area (57.4%) and interact frequently with tourists (60.5%). They think that the positive effects of tourism development outweigh, even slightly, the negative impacts; in particular this happen for all aspects: economic (M=4.24), sociocultural (M=4.23), and environmental effects (M=4.81). Despite this they are very critic toward the way in witch local authorities manage the tourism development in the area. Despite this, they would experience a further tourism development (M=6.5) and for this they would also be willing to encourage their children to undertake training and a profession in the tourism sector (M=5.16).

"Moderate Supporters" (N=273) residents in Arzachena from long time (35.2% from more than 20 years) and near to the tourists areas (60% under 10 Km), 71% married or cohabitating, 52.2% whit high school degree, mostly retired (37.7%) or working as a administrative workers (24%). 58.1% declare to enter in contact with tourist in everyday life. People of this cluster have a positive attitude toward the tourism development in the area (M=4.91), but they are critics toward the managerial capabilities of local authorities (i.e. “Overall I feel involved and listened in the process of tourism programming for the destination” – M=2.32; “Local authorities are able to strike a fair balance between protecting the needs and interests of the residents with the need to increase tourist visitation” – M=2.51). This cluster is characterized for the very high sense of belonging to his community (M=6.28) and for the feeling of attachment to the community (M=5.68), declaring also that “It is important to maintain the tradition of the community” (M=6.62). "Enthusiastics" is the largest group (N= 289) and include mostly females (60.2%), married or cohabiting (72.6%) and with high school degree (47.6%); they have been residing in Arzachena for more than 20 years (68.5%), closed to tourism areas (66.9% under 10 Km). They express a very positive attitude toward the tourism development of the area (M=5.66) and think positively about the future economic health of the area (M=4.47). However, they are not willing to support the tourism development neither with a financial contribution to support tourism promotion (M=3.29) or personally investing in tourism activities (M=3.39). They are very satisfied for their living in the area (M=5.44), feel very attached to his community (M=5.82) and trust the ability of local authorities in running promotion operations that are able to exploit the destination identity and authenticity (M=5.13).

Tests associated with the chi-square (χ2) statistic show that significant differences exist between the segments based on length of residence (X2 = 48.093 p=0.000). No differences were found based on gender (X2 = 4.087, p=0.18), age (X2 = 14.971, p= 0.243), employment status (X2 = 10.811, p= 0.545), employment reliance on tourism (X2 = 1.21, p=0.25), marital status (X2 = 9.687, p=0.376), contact with tourists in everyday life (X2 = 25.99 p=0.1), level of education (X2 = 14.85, p=0.25), and geographical proximity to tourist area (X2 = 12.573, p=0.401).
Discussion and conclusions

Findings reveal that residents think that the positive effects of tourism development outweigh the negative impacts and are willing to support a further tourism development, especially if it is able to guarantee heritage proximity, especially encouraging their children to undertake tourism-related training/education and to enter into a tourism profession. However, respondents feel themselves poorly involved in tourism planning and do not think that institutions are currently doing enough to provide them, rather than others, financial support to invest in tourism businesses. According with the social exchange theory, findings confirm that residents benefiting from tourism are likely to perceive the industry as positive and are ready to support its further development. Further, they suggest that residents' perceptions and attitudes are not homogenous but, contrariwise to prior studies, significant differences do exist based just on length of residence; this could be explained by referring to the different settings where studies have been conducted, which are obviously highly site-specific and, therefore, hardly generalisable. Findings suggest policy makers and destination marketers should improve residents' involvement in tourism planning through various participation mechanisms, such as meetings, focus groups and surveys and should try to run marketing and promotion operations with the aim of achieving a higher degree of heritage proximity and tailoring internal communication just based on length of residence.

References


Introduction

Technological advancement and increased international competition affect the way in which places are imagined, perceived and consumed (Govers & Go, 2009). Interaction in material space (place), information space (online representations), mental space (perceived place image) and social space (sharing place experiences with or through social relations) are as complex as they are challenging to accomplish for a semiotic overview of the touristic destinations (Go & Van Fenema, 2006). As Castells (1996, p. 476) argues, in the network society “image-making is power making”. The purpose of this research is to analyse blog entries (narratives and photos) relating to Algarve experiences posted on the Algarve tourism board blog (http://blog.turismodoalgarve.pt/search/). Consumption experiences share the characteristics of other services, in the way that production and consumption take place simultaneously. Therefore, consumers, as well as other visitors and residents are also actively engaged in the process of creating and attaching meaning to place image. The attachment of meaning to life, to self in relation to events, people, and place is a continuous reweaving process. The formation of emotional and sentimental bonds between people and a place brings together the material formations on a geographic site and the meanings we invest in them (Altman & Low, 1992; Grupta & Ferguson, 1997). Social life now moves through nodes in one network or another, through points of power, convergence or translation but not necessarily anchored to any place. The places we build appear as clones of places elsewhere. Place attachment results from accumulated biographical experiences (Gieryn, 2000). Place attachment facilitates a sense of security and well-being, defines group boundaries and stabilizes memories (Halbwachs, 1980) against the passage of time. Place persists as a constituent element of social life and historical change (Friedland & Boden, 1994), revealing the richness of a place. Following this stream this paper aims to answer the following questions:

How is place sensed, perceived, recorded (what attributes are selected to experience and remember)?
Which senses do photos of the destination activate?
How do narratives mirror emotions and memories?

Considering the complex potential conflict between continuity and change - a common problem that most countries and corporations are facing, this research also aims to clarify and strengthen the identity of places as an issue crucial to its continuity.

Literature Review

The tourist experience is a socially constructed term whereby the meaning of the tourist experience is associated with multiple interpretation from social, environmental, and activity components of the overall experience. Csikszentmihalyi (1991), in his theory of flow
experience, argues that enjoyment or pleasure is the driver of optimal experience, which is made possible by high concentration and involvement, clarity of goals and feedback, and intrinsic motivation. Experiences have been reflected in an increasing body of literature (MacCannell, 1973; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Cohen, 1979; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Ryan, 1997), which established the theoretical context of the experience concept. Traditionally, experience has been defined as a personal occurrence with highly emotional significance obtained from the consumption of products and services (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), and emotions are translated into senses.

It has to be acknowledged that we make sense of the world not just through language, not just by talking about it, but through all our senses, and their extensions in the form of diverse media (Taylor 1994; Seremetakis 1994; Finnegan 2002; MacDougall 2006). Furthermore, there are some places and some issues that the senses and sense-based media can reach that words cannot, giving to the experience a meaning that outstrips the limits of perceived destination image. Echtner and Ritchie(1991, 1993) postulated the existence of a functional-to-psychological continuum in destination image, on which the different attributes were located. Analysis of destination image then moves from a traditional attribute-based measurement to a broader approach, capable of capturing its gestalt nature (Rodrigues, Correia, Kozak and Tuohino, 2015). So alternative methods of destination image measurement based on qualitative techniques have been recognized as critical to capture the holistic impressions associated with a destination. That gives rise to the formation of destination memory. In this era of globalisation it is consensual that we need a notion of ‘place’ which is stable, secure, and unique. According to Relph (1976), if places are “sources of security and identity for individuals and for groups of people, then it is important that the means of experiencing, creating and maintaining significant places are not lost” (1976, p.115). What emerges, therefore, is the issue that links place, self-identity, shared stories and collective memory in the context of the modern European city where dynamics overwhelm the stability which destinations need in order to position themselves.

Under this quest to give meaning to destinations, an emerging research strand shows the use of mixed-methods, both qualitative and quantitative (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Pike & Ryan, 2004). As a consequence, innumerable qualitative techniques have been used for destination image measurement, mostly covering techniques such as free elicitation, focus group, open-ended questions, in-depth interviews, and content-analysis (Gallarza et al. 2002). In line with this new approach, pictorial materials were used progressively in qualitative studies. The “pictorial turn” was underpinned by MacInnis & Price’s (1987) work and the relationship between imagery processing and consumer behaviour was examined. Their primary purpose was to demonstrate that both imagery and discursive information were used in evaluating a product (Rodrigues, Correia, Kozak and Tuohino, 2015). This research follows this stream and assesses Algarve meanings through a content analysis of narratives and photo elicitation.

**Methodology**

Bloggers create an account which allows them to post their individual journeys or invite others to post photos, histories or comments. The users who participate in our epistemological blog were Portuguese and non-Portuguese who sought to answer the question *What does the Algarve have?* Name and email were the only personal data requested from participants. Photographs were posted to illustrate the content. Overall there are 54 blog entries between May 2011 and August 2014. For this analysis the sample was restricted to blogs written in English and Portuguese, to avoid the bias of translations, and as such
residents and non-residents were included in the sample. Furthermore the analysis comprises photos aiming to illustrate their sensorial experiences via a semiotic approach.

The blog narratives were examined and findings presented, aiming to capture the senses that are evident in their discourse and complemented by their photos. The suggestion of qualitative methods emerged from the principal approach of this research to obtain in-depth understanding of how users perceive, interpret and communicate the social reality of the Algarve destination where these perceptions evolve. An inductive approach was adopted to address the research aims that are subjective in nature and addressed through an interpretative paradigm (Oliveira and Panyik, 2015). According to Decrop (1999), interpretivism in tourism related studies is better approached by qualitative methods. The qualitative approach used in this exploratory research is in line with the methodology of various studies that focus on the meaning and understanding of destination image (Echtner and Ritchie, 2003; Govers et al., 2007; Pike, 2002 and Tasci and Kozak, 2006).

As the objective is to interpret the content of narratives and pictures from our epistemological blog where the Algarve is the reference, a content analysis is the most feasible tool. Similar studies on destination image apply the same methodology (Volo, 2010; Wenger, 2007). Tourist destinations are not ontologically pre-given but, instead, socially constructed (Saarinen, 2004 cited in Morgan et al., 2011). According to McDougall and Fry (1974), the use of unstructured instruments, followed by content analysis and coding, is more appropriate in image research.

The 54 images included in the analysis were content analysed in terms of sense experiences evoked as applied in other studies of tourism photography (Fullwood et al, 2009; Garrod, 2008; Larsen, 2008; Lo et al, 2011; Markwell, 1997; Sternberg, 1997). Our methodology was performed at different levels: first, identification of which senses the photos of the destination activated; second, photos were aligned with discourse to ensure that what they (the photos) represent is what they bloggers say.

Measuring the content of imagery processing, mainly the visual imagery, implies the identification of the representations that tourists formed about the destination. Hunter (2008) suggests that representations offer a more direct way to understand the image, in terms of the tourist and in terms of the destination. This is due to the fact that representations are described as “true descriptions” (Brown, 1995 cited by Hunter, 2008). Therefore, the evaluations and analyses of destination image that use studies of representations have a significant value that cannot be ignored. The main question is to know how these representations can be identified. As Hunter states “representations in the form of photographs have become fundamental to the very reality of tourism” (2008, p.357). The mental picturing includes senses like smell, taste, sight, sound and touch. This much more holistic approach is in opposition to the “discursive processing” characterized by a partial view of individual features or attributes, as pointed out by MacInnis and Price (1987). As such, a complementary dual approach with pictorial image and discursive interpretation was adopted.

**Results**

The analysis of the 54 photos suggests that 87% correspond to the sense of sight, 30% correspond to taste, hearing and smell are matched at 37% and the touch with 43%. Furthermore, results show that sensorial experience arose in the combination of up to three senses with sight as the one that is combined with most others.

Text analysis showed that in the 54 posts of the tourists, 59% refer to the sense of sight, 46% correspond to the sense of touch, 18% to hearing, 31% correspond to the sense of smell and 31% to the sense of touch. Once more the senses are combined suggesting a semiotic approach to experiences.
The analysis also included the relative frequencies of the five senses present in the pictures and also in tourists’ transcripts. The sense of sight is present in the majority of the pictures and the sense of taste is that most referred to in the narratives of the tourists. Furthermore, smell is clearly the most exploited sense both in texts and in photographs.

In order to align the narratives of the tourists with the images to highlight the experiences memorized, we used a codebook that links verbs with statements to depict the most mentioned words when the topic is one of each sense. The tourists share their feelings as well as their sensorial experiences in order to emphasize their narratives giving a humanized perspective to this. Statements like this:

“I set out to experience you. I read a lot about your and listened to your music. Now that I’m here, I’m invaded by strange sensations that had not experienced before” suggest that hearing is the way to learn and memorize an experience tourists are willing to have. “... The Algarve is a place that welcomes immigrants as well as tourists! A place where you have a tasty and unmistakable food! A place with perfect beaches for all tastes! Words to describe what the Algarve has? No ... just visiting to find out.” This statement placed the emphasis of the experience on taste. Whereas this one puts the focus on touch: “The sand, the sea, the waves embrace my body” Further “The smell that is present all around us” is a sign that the sense of smell drove their decisions. Finally, the visual sense is in almost of the transcripts: 33 out of 54 transcripts refer to the visual signs of the destination. “Many say the Algarve is synonymous with crowds ... it is, but most of the time these crowds are so nice to see ...”.

Overall, the transcripts focus mostly on three topical issues when it comes to perceiving a destination: the place, the sea and the people. 53 out of 100 transcripts refer to between one and three of the topics recurrently, and these words account for 622 references among the 54 transcripts. Related to the above-mentioned topical categories are other words which appear with relevant frequency, as such as beach, sun and summer, which account for 4.66%, 4.18% and 1.45% of word frequencies in a total of references of 3555 words (after removing stop words).

Referring to the five senses, sight is the most mentioned (224 occurrences) and smell has the least references with only 59 occurrences. On the other hand, the Algarve appears to be related to the sense of sight with 62 references, followed by taste (48) and touch (47) and 21 and 12 references for the senses of hearing and smell. The word sea is related to all senses except hearing. The word people is also related to the senses with a special focus on sight: 20 out of 50.

Conclusions

Such a research approach has the advantage of recognizing the significance of destination memory not just at an individual level, but also at a social level. It is clear from the results analysed that residents/tourists with their sense of themselves could be ambassadors and simultaneously bound up in the people’s sense of the Algarve as a destination. Place attachment, as the destination place is dynamic has as much of the dweller’s imagination as it does repertoire of tourist experiences.

The tourist destination must evoke novelty, but continuity must be at the same level in the imagery of those who experience it. Emotions indeed play an important role in the tailoring of quality of life in relation to place attachment and belongings. The identity construction process is related to the lived experiences and the experience as a means body, the great mediator of this relationship (Mearlau-Ponty, 1971). This process of internalization, where the body incorporates the place that remains in memory and establishes ties and sense of place, arises related to a place whose social, cultural and spatial organization are not at all unknown. The most evident manifestation of emotions are the transcripts humanized by the
verbalization of their sensorial experiences. These emotional states are also evident in photos that complement them and are totally aligned with what they declare, which confirms that a photo is worth more than 1000 words. This research is exploratory in its essence and biased by the nature of the blog. It is a step forward towards introducing pictures and emotions into tourism destination image research.

Bibliography


Host Perceptions of Tourism Development: The Case of Petra

Prof. Dr. Mithat Zeki Dinçer
Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Economic Policy
mzdincer@istanbul.edu.tr

Prof. Dr. Füsun İstanbullu Dinçer
Istanbul University, Faculty of Economics, Tourism Management
istanbul@istanbul.edu.tr

Zaid Alrawadieh
Istanbul University, Institute of Social Science, Tourism Management Department
zaid_rawadieh@yahoo.com

Introduction

The nature of tourism sector requires “consumer” to move to where the service is provided. Consumer’s movement to a different place leads to a direct encounter with those who offer services and those who live where they are offered. This encounter results in a set of changes in the host community’s life. While tourism development may result in positive economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts such as creating jobs, improving life conditions and preserving natural environment, evidence of several negative impacts cannot be overlooked (e.g. traffic congestion and inflation).

Jordan is a young tourist destination in the Middle East where tourism plays a pivotal role in the national economy. Although located in a tumultuous region, Jordan appears to enjoy a satisfactory level of growth in its tourism competitiveness in the Middle East market. Tourism receipts in Jordan increased from about 1461 million JD in 2006 (MoTA, 2007) to 2923 million JD in 2013 (MoTA, 2013). By choosing Jordan’s main tourist destination, Petra, as a case for this study, this paper aims at examining the impacts of tourism development as perceived by the host community.

Literature review

Host perceptions of tourism development have been the focus of several studies in different geographical contexts. Earlier research tended to highlight the economic benefits brought about by tourism (Pizam, 1978). The negative impacts caused by mass tourism shifted the attention to both positive and negative consequences of the tourism industry. Since then, numerous studies examined resident’s perceptions of socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism development (Brunt & Courtney, 1999; King, Pizam & Milman, 1993).

While tourism increases personal income and creates job opportunities, it often increases prices of goods and services (Pizam, 1978; Var, Kendall & Tarakcioglu, 1985). Often, landowners and businessmen benefit most from tourism, whereas local people suffer from increasing costs of living. The sociocultural impacts of tourism have also received much attention by a number of scholars. Tourism is considered to be an opportunity for communities to get to know other people and different cultures. Yet, tourism led to commoditization of culture, religion and social values.

Nature is often considered the basic element of tourism. The deterioration of nature results in the deterioration of tourism. The preservation of natural environment is one of the positive environmental impacts brought about by tourism. However, unplanned and uncontrolled development can result in disturbing the ecological system, causing pollution and deterioration of wildlife.
Several studies suggested that residents who depend on tourism for their livelihood had more positive attitudes compared to those who were not dependent on it (Haralambopulos & Pizam 1996). Tourism proved to be useful in providing several economic, sociocultural and environmental benefits. Yet, costs of tourism development on local community not cannot be overlooked.

Host-tourist interaction in Jordan has received little attention. In an earlier study on Jordan’s most important tourist destination, Petra, Shoup (1985) found that tourism development in the city had led to major changes in the community's way of life. Although local community used to consider Westerns as addicted to alcohol and sex, yet, demonstration effect was evident through imitating Western tourists in dress and manners. Shoup also noted that people in Petra were more affected by Arab tourists, particularly those coming from Saudi Arabia than Western ones.

Some scholars noted that little research has been conducted on residents’ attitudes toward tourism in the developing countries (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon 2010). The significance of this paper, therefore, lies in its contribution to the existing literature on the perceptions of host residents toward tourism in a developing country.

Methodology

This paper aims at examining the resident’s attitudes toward tourism development in Jordan’s main tourist destination, Petra. For the purpose of this study, a self-administrated questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, the first section includes questions concerning demographic characteristics, while the second part aimed at measuring the impacts of tourism as perceived by host community using a 35-item scale developed by Ap and Crompton (1998). Ap and Crompton’s scale was developed to measure both the belief and evaluation components regarding perceived tourism impacts. To measure the belief component, respondents were asked to rate the level of change related to each item on a five point Likert scale (1= large decrease, 2= moderate decrease, 3= no change, 4= moderate increase, and 5= large increase). To measure the evaluation component, respondents were asked to rate their level of like or dislike with each item on a 5 point Likert scale where (1= dislike, 2= somewhat dislike, 3= neither like or dislike, 4= somewhat like, and 5= like). Thus, a respondent who believed that tourism had led to “positive attitudes of local residents toward tourists” may have indicated a score of 5 for this item. If the respondent’s evaluation of this change was something he or she liked, a score of 5 would be assigned. The multiplied score for this item would be a maximum of 25, which indicates a strong and favorable perception with the attitudes of local residents changed by tourism. In this paper, the same methodology was adopted. The factor analysis of the 35-scale resulted in excluding 6 items. Therefore, the new scale consisted of 29 items.

Two close-ended and two 5 point Likert scale-based questions were adopted from Milman and Pizam (1988) to examine residents’ overall attitude toward tourism. The questionnaire was first written in English, then translated into Arabic by professional bilingual who is specialized in tourism management. Two Arabic-native speaker academicians specialized in tourism management were asked to revise the translation, and in the light of their comments and critics, the final version of the questionnaire was designed. By using a stratified sampling technique, 220 questionnaires were equally distributed to industry-involved and non-involved respondents in Petra. Two local interviewers working in tourism industry were trusted to distribute the questionnaires. In addition to the interviewers being part of the local community, Petra is one of the author’s own community, which resulted in easy access to the local people and residents’ willingness to participate in the survey (Sherlock, 1999). Data was collected in the first half of January 2015 which is considered a
low season in the city. Of the 220 questionnaires 208 were returned. Twelve questionnaires were excluded from the final analysis for the massive amount of missing data. Therefore, 196 questionnaires were usable (112 questionnaires completed by tourism-non-involved respondents and 84 questionnaires completed by tourism-involved respondents).

**Results**

*Demographic profile of respondents:*

The overwhelming majority of respondents were male (79 %) who were married (64 %), holding a bachelor degree (57 %) and living in Petra for more than 15 years (75 %). The median age of most respondents (41 %) was between 25 and 34 years. About 57 percent of respondents who were involved in tourism industry reported to be working in hotels and 8 percent were working in travel agencies, while most of those who are not involved in tourism industry were civil servants (70 %).

*Overall attitude toward tourism*

Results suggested that host community in Petra generally favored tourism development. About 76 percent of the sample favored somewhat or strongly favored the presence of tourism in the city. The majority (57 %) said that tourism activities improved somewhat or significantly improved the image of Petra. More than half of the respondents (about 52 %) reported that they would willingly take jobs in the tourism industry. Fifty four percent said they would suggest to their friends or relatives to take jobs in the tourism industry.

*Perceived impacts of tourism*

Principle component factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to determine the underlying factors. Only items with factor loadings and commonalities greater 0.4 were included in the final factor structure. Therefore, 6 items of the original scale were excluded. The factor analysis generated 7 factors with relatively high internal consistency ranging from .77 to .91. The coefficient of internal consistency of the total scale reliability was calculated as 92 indicting a high reliability of the instrument (Nunnally, 1978).

As it is illustrated in table 1, items related to the cultural impacts of tourism received the highest mean scores. In addition to that, local community in Petra seems to acknowledge tourism for it is contribution to the development of the local services.
Table 1: Host's Perceptions of Tourism Development in Petra

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impacts of Tourism</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social and Cultural</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=10.69; Variance=34.49; Alpha=.88)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand for historical activities and programs</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand for cultural activities and programs</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of cultural facilities and activities in the community</td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to learn about other people and cultures</td>
<td>14.22</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness/recognition of the local culture and heritage</td>
<td>12.86</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of entertainment in the area</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities to meet interesting people</td>
<td>14.27</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=3.21; Variance=10.38; Alpha=.88)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal income of local residents</td>
<td>11.49</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of income going to local businesses</td>
<td>11.50</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revenue generated in the local community</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment and development spending in the area</td>
<td>11.08</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of shopping facilities in the area</td>
<td>11.48</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Crowding and Congestion</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=2.41; Variance=7.78; Alpha=.91)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of crowds that restrict what activities you do in public areas</td>
<td>9.48</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of crowds that affect your enjoyment of activities in public areas</td>
<td>9.21</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of traffic congestion in the area</td>
<td>10.14</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise level in the community</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community attitude</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=1.98; Variance=6.40; Alpha=.88)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community spirit among local residents</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride of local residents</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive attitudes of local residents toward tourists</td>
<td>11.62</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Services</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=1.51; Variance=4.87; Alpha=.77)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical ability of local services (e.g. police, fire, medical, and utilities)</td>
<td>13.93</td>
<td>6.69</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of local services (e.g. police, fire, medical, and utilities)</td>
<td>13.87</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial resources of local services (e.g. police, fire, medical, and utilities)</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of urbanization (city-type development) in the area</td>
<td>13.36</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Costs and Taxes</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=1.32; Variance=4.26; Alpha=.89)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of local property taxes collected</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of local sales taxes collected</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of local taxes collected</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental</strong> <em>(Eigenvalue=1.21; Variance=3.91; Alpha=.82)</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife (plants, birds, and animals) in the local area</td>
<td>11.10</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of natural environment</td>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>5.69</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural environment</td>
<td>10.49</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The independent Samples T-test was conducted to determine whether there is a significant mean difference between respondents based on their involvement in the tourism sector. Interestingly, the results suggested that respondents depending on tourism as their main resource of income showed more concern about "crowding and congestion" caused by tourism activities in their city (P-value=.039).

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Discussion and Conclusion

This paper showed that the host community in Petra has positive attitudes toward tourism development. It also suggested that social and cultural impacts of tourism such as “opportunities to meet interesting people” were most favored by surveyed sample. Host community is also assumed to favor tourism development in the city for the role of tourism in bringing about better local services.

This paper examined resident's perceptions of tourism in Petra, which mainly caters cultural tourists. It would difficult therefore, to generalize the findings without conducting similar research in different destinations in the country. Another major limitation of this paper is that respondents may be biased as they were approached by interviewers known to them and were asked to give information for researchers also partially known to them. Future research may approach the topic from a cross-sectional perspective within the tourism industry.

Reference
Three Types of Industrial Tourism In Japanese Manufacturing Companies based on Marketing Strategies

Yosuke Endo
No Affiliation
Tokyo, Japan
tmu.tourism.endo@gmail.com

Introduction
The main focus of this study is industrial tourism. From previous tourism studies of Japan, Suda (2006) defines industrial tourism as “tourist visits to industrial heritage sites, production sites, and exhibition places which deal in products.” In recent years, the Japanese government has attempted promote industrial tourism through the Tourism-based Country Promotion Basic Act (Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism, 2012). Considering the current situation, it is expected that industrial tourism will be a growing segment in the Japanese economy, not only for the tourism industry as a whole, but also for other industries such as manufacturing.

Although the promotion of industrial tourism is a new movement in Japan, Western scholars have discussed industrial tourism from different perspectives. For example, Frew and Shaw (1995) analyze how industrial tourism has a positive impact on tourist motivation, and Frew (2000) points out the potential of industrial tourism as a tourism resource. There are also claims that industrial tourism will contribute to the development of cities and local communities (Otgaar et al., 2010). In addition, some scholars discuss the benefits of industrial tourism for the companies that manage industrial tourism sites (Brumberg & Axelord, 2002; Rudd & Davis, 1998). Based on these studies, it is commonly believed that industrial tourism will have positive impacts on various areas of tourism.

Literature review
According to Bregman (2011), industrial tourism is a marketing tool for companies. For example, Frew (2000) claims that industrial tourism can be used to improve a company’s corporate image. Furthermore, Azevedo (2004) states that industrial tourism can be effective for corporate branding through customer communication. Similar to Azevedo’s claim, Dodd (1994) clarifies that wine companies often utilize wine tasting visits to acquire more customers. Moreover, Coles and Hall (2008) investigate industrial tourism of German automobile companies and discuss how industrial tourism can be used to build their brands. Similarly, Suda (2006) claims that industrial tourism provides tourists with unique opportunities to understand a company’s production process and feel the “production spirit.” This effect is referred to as customer experience (Schmitt, 2000). Schmitt proposes the concepts of experiential marketing and customer experience, which are the total experiences that customers gain through interactions with companies. Thus, corporations can use industrial tourism as a form of experiential marketing. In addition, Schmitt (2011) claims that customer experience is an important element of building corporate brands. These studies show that providing a unique customer experience is a powerful method of branding.

Otgaar (2010) notes the benefits of companies utilizing industrial tourism and also concludes that the development of industrial tourism requires companies to have polices that promote tours of their facilities. Building upon Otgaar’s study, this paper focuses on Japanese companies’ corporate policies on industrial tourism. The purpose of the study is to clarify the relation between Japanese companies’ corporate policies and their industrial tourism.
management. We expect that their corporate policies are closely related to the development of industrial tourism in Japan. Our survey includes manufacturing companies that produce consumer goods because their industrial tourism sites are popular among tourists (Trip Advisor, 2013). It seems that these companies use industrial tourism to enhance customer communications and promote product branding. Our study reveals which companies contribute more to the development of industrial tourism in Japan.

Methods and material

To gather information for our study, we administered questionnaires and interview surveys regarding industrial tourism sites managed by Japanese consumer goods companies (e.g., factories, corporate museums, and showrooms). These manufacturing companies comprise several product types (e.g., food, beverage, household commodities, automobiles, and consumer electronics). These surveys were conducted from 2010 to 2014. We sent a total of 170 survey requests and obtained 95 valid responses. Our study then applied statistical methods to analyze the data. First, the survey results were converted to binary data in a cross-tabulation table. Using the converted data, we conducted correspondence analyses to reveal the features of each company. Correspondence analysis explains the relationships between the column and the row of our cross-tabulation table. The results allow us to evaluate which companies tend to attract tourists, and which companies have a policy of collaborating with the tourism industry to increase leisure visitors.

Results

Figure 1 shows the results from our correspondence analysis. This graph shows the relation between items of the column and the row of the cross-tabulation table, and it shows the variation of industrial tourism management. Table 1 provides the category score from the correspondence analysis. The first axis of the map indicates whether companies attract leisure visitors or not, while the second axis conveys whether companies collaborate with the tourism industry or not. Through observing the distance between the column item and each company, we can recognize the features of industrial tourism management of each company.

Our results suggest that industrial tourism of Japanese manufacturing companies is mainly classified into three types: (1) tourism-oriented, (2) specified-customer-oriented, and (3) education-oriented. With respect to their corporate policies, it is suspected that their industrial tourism strategy is based on several marketing strategies. With (1), Japanese companies are positive to increase leisure visitors in their industrial tourism for the purpose of company profits. These companies are willing to collaborate with the tourism industry. Type (1) is a company’s flagship marketing because it focuses on public relations, customer communications, and corporate branding (Kent & Brown, 2009). On the other hand, some Japanese companies tend not to collaborate with the tourism industry with (2) and (3) because their targets are not leisure visitors. Rather, (2) and (3) are social marketing and relationship marketing (Berry, 1995; Kotler, 1971; Lazer & Kelly, 1973; Morgan & Hunt 1994). Although the strategy of (2) is to attract consumers for customer communication, its targets are local residents or loyal customers. With (3), Japanese companies use industrial tourism for educational purposes such as social studies in schools or for employee training. Considering the three types, we conclude that their marketing strategies lead to the variations in industrial tourism management by Japanese manufacturing companies.

Additionally, companies in industries of certain product types present significant points in our analysis. For example, most of the food and beverage companies tend to focus on the tourism-oriented type and the specified-customer-oriented type. On the other hand, automobile companies and major confectionery makers manage their factory tours due to
social studies of student groups in the local community. Industrial tourism of Japanese automobile companies are applicable to (3), the education-oriented type.

**Figure 1:** Correspondence analysis of industrial tourism of Japanese manufacturing companies

**Table 1:** Category score of the column in correspondence analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements of the Column</th>
<th>Axis 1</th>
<th>Axis 2</th>
<th>Axis 3</th>
<th>Axis 4</th>
<th>Axis 5</th>
<th>Axis 6</th>
<th>Axis 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Visitor</td>
<td>-0.676</td>
<td>-0.731</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>-0.196</td>
<td>-0.034</td>
<td>0.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student or Business Visit</td>
<td>2.143</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.534</td>
<td>0.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Profit Purpose</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>-0.484</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.282</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>-0.416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSR or Business Visit Purpose</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
<td>-0.088</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>-0.591</td>
<td>-0.655</td>
<td>-0.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profitability</td>
<td>-0.957</td>
<td>1.059</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>-1.045</td>
<td>-1.163</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location Strategy</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>0.126</td>
<td>-0.776</td>
<td>-1.121</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>-0.252</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>-0.884</td>
<td>1.789</td>
<td>-1.819</td>
<td>1.481</td>
<td>-0.182</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>-0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration Policy</td>
<td>-0.393</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>-0.574</td>
<td>0.057</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion and conclusions**

Pertaining to the industrial tourism of Japanese manufacturing companies, the tourism-oriented type can be regarded as comprising advanced cases because of their positive policy on industrial tourism for leisure visitors. It is expected that their flagship marketing strategy
contributes to industrial tourism development throughout Japan. However, it should be noted that this type is one of three that manufacturing companies use to promote industrial tourism. In order to develop industrial tourism, we should pay attention to corporate policies of each company based on their marketing strategies. Porter (2000) states that the essence of strategy is choosing what not to do. In accordance with Porter, the question is whether Japanese companies should have a strategy to attract the tourism-oriented type or not. If companies want to be visible to a large number of consumers, their corporate policies are suitable for this type of industrial tourism. Otherwise, they may consider the development of the specific-customer-oriented type or the education-oriented type of industrial tourism in accordance with their marketing strategies. For example, they could employ a strategy that targets local residents and loyal customers rather than generic tourists.

References


Non-woody forests products and the utilisation by the tourists in Training Forest Enterprise Masaryk Forest Krtiny (Brno, Czech Republic)

Jitka Fialová
Jiří Kadlec
Hana Kubičková
Mendel University in Brno, Faculty of Forestry and Wood Technology
Brno, Czech Republic
jitka.fialova@mendelu.cz

Introduction

The popularity of spending free time actively in the forests is on the rise. This trend is mainly obvious in the forests that surround large towns and cities. The Training Forest Enterprise Masaryk Forest Křtiny (TFE MF Křtiny), surrounding especially the north-western part of Brno, is not an exception.

Non-woody forest products (NWFP) have important commercial, environmental, social and recreational roles in many European forests. They also have a relevant place in the multifunctional sustainable forest management paradigm, being the main source of income from forests in several regions. Mendel University in Brno (MENDELU) as the partner in COST Action FP1203 did the additional research in the forests owned by the university. The researchers were in the year 2014 finding out the ideas about the NWFP in the selected region, what kind of products are the tourists using for their daily life and the state of the knowledge about the NWFP. The role of the tourism operators can be seen in the promotion of the NWFP. We see the experience of tourists in for example picking the berries as really memorable. The operators should know where is it possible to bring something from the forest to the tourists home and where not. The issue we are addressing is the sustainable tourism and marketing tourism places and spaces. It is very important to know preferences in different tourists segments and their expectations when tourists entering forest area. Then it is possible to prepare correct information for tourists and encourage tourism in the region.

Literature review


It is very important to know what tourists are looking for in destinations (Peters, M. et all 2011) for encouraging of tourism destination competitiveness (Enright, M.J., Newton, J. 2004).

Methods and material

Based on the literature review the methods were chosen.
For the monitoring of the tourists number the automatic reader was chosen. The cooperating company, Nadace Partnerství, o.p.s., has installed automatic reader of hikers and bikers to the road in the district for the purposes of visitor monitoring of selected forest hauling road in TFE MF Křtiny. The monitoring device was installed in July 2014 and the monitoring was conducted until November 2014. Students of MENDELU in Brno performed manual calibration counting in July 14-20, 2014, in the monitoring place. The trail visitor monitoring used automatic readers Pyro Box Compact from Eco-counter. This device counts all users of trail (hikers, bikers, in-liners, etc.) without distinguishing among them. Counting is based on the temperature difference between a human body and the surroundings. The readers can distinguish the direction of the movement and are installed in the narrowest places of the trails in the way which prevents counting two persons walking side by side as one. The data are stored in one-hour intervals. (Fialová et al, 2014, Fialová, J., 2015)

The NWFP research has been done in the form of questionnaires in three places for four months (one whole week per month including weekends) - July to October - so the most important months for the highest proportion of the NWFP to collect. The students and employees from MENDELU asked the people to answer several questions about their status, average income, the main reasons why they came to the area and some questions were connected to the NWFP. The questioning was performed in July 14-20, August 11-17, September 15-21 and October 13-19, 2014 – each day from 9 PM till 5 AM.

The NWFP questions were concentrated on the mushrooms, decorative elements (leaves, decorative foliage etc.), medicinal herbs, parts of trees, and another forest fruits. The question of the Christmas trees is important in the Czech Republic as well. Some questions in the questionnaire were connected to the main species of the Christmas trees and the source of those trees.

Results

The main goal of the article is to define the state of the utilization of the NWFP in the area close to the second largest city in the Czech Republic. The data from the research are still in the process but we can present some results already. The number of the tourists from the automatic reader in one hauling road is 1025 in the week of calibration. The main portion of it is presented of the bikers.

Generally the people who asked the respondents usually had the problem with the people in the age of 35-50. Those people were focused just on them and their achievement (e.g. on the bike). The retired people and the people who did not reach 35 were really helpful in the research.

The total number of the filled in questionnaires is 1589 in all the three places. Not everybody was happy to answer all the questions, so the number of the respondents answering the questions connected to the NWFP is limited. In this number of the answers we could generalize some ideas about the state of the touristic area utilization and the NWFP utilization. What we can already read from the data is that 25 % of the tourist in the area are collecting the herbs, 28 % of the tourist are gathering pieces of the trees and decorative fruits (nuts), nearly 60 % of them are using the non-artificial Christmas trees (21 % of it is Spruce sp., 14 % of it is Pine sp. and 35 % of it is Fir-tree sp.) and nearly 32 % of the respondents are going to the forest to pick-up the mushrooms.

The partial concrete results can be seen in the tables 1, 2 and 3.

As we asked about the social status we can generalize that usually the businessmen use the natural Christmas tree. It can be a question of money because there are differences in Christmas tree species prices and Fir is the most expensive Christmas tree.
The plants that are collected the most are *Urtica dioica*, *Betula pendula* and *Tilia cordata*. Usually the women are collecting the medicinal plants and mostly the pensioners – 50% of the ladies pensioners collect this. This can be connected to the past when the tradition of collecting of the medicinal plants was inveterated in the Czech families and this tradition is still forwarded from generation to generation.

As the tradition of collecting mushrooms and berries from the forests is inveterated in the families really deep, more than half of the people collets berries and mushrooms. About 71% of the pensioners are picking the berries such as *Vaccinium myrtillus* in the proper forest stands, *Fragaria vesca* (but really limited amount) or all kind of the edible mushrooms (such as *Boletus edulis*, *Leccinum crocipodium* or *Xerocomellus chrysenteron*).

The way how the students addressed the people in different places can be seen in the figure 1 and 2.

The research will be processed this year (2015) on the TFE MF Křtiny again in July, August, September and October. After this research we will be able to compare the preferences during the years and different places in the area of TFE MF Křtiny.

**Table 1:** Results to the question – Do you use the non-artificial Christmass tree for the Christmass?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your status?</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>total</th>
<th>NO - in %</th>
<th>YES in %</th>
<th>total in % from all respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pensioner</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>41,5</td>
<td>58,5</td>
<td>23,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unemployed</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>45,2</td>
<td>54,8</td>
<td>4,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>businessman</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>32,8</td>
<td>67,2</td>
<td>8,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>37,5</td>
<td>62,5</td>
<td>11,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>household</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>45,7</td>
<td>54,3</td>
<td>10,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employed</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>41,7</td>
<td>58,0</td>
<td>41,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>689</td>
<td>40,9</td>
<td>59,1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2:** Results to the question – Do you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your status?</th>
<th>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your status?</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>DO you collect the medicinal plants in the forest? (herbs, part of trees..)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Results to the question – Do you collect the forest berries and mushrooms?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your status?</th>
<th>Do you collect the forest berries and mushrooms?</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pensioner</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>29,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>70,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>163</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unemployed</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>46,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>businessman</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>47,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>52,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>household</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employed</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>43,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>56,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td>278</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total nr. of the respondents</td>
<td></td>
<td>681</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: The monitoring on the locality of Kopaniny (photo by Jitka Fialová)
Discussion and Conclusions

Results of our survey showed tourists preferences in different NWFPs and their expectations during their visit in the area of TFE MF Křtiny. We can recommend to forest management to concentrate on advertising of their Christmas trees production in nearby city Brno. Second recommendation is connected with information tables where it is important to put pictures and description of mushrooms and plants which tourists can pick and information about localities where it is possible without negative influence to protected areas. The third important task is the education of the tourist operators about the NWFPs to inform people for example from abroad about the possibilities of the forests in the Czech Republic.

Acknowledgement

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Digging deep into the experience – how can flow and immersion bring a finer understanding of the tourist experience

Isabelle Frochot
Université Savoie mont blanc, France
Isabelle.frochot@univ-savoie.fr

Statia Elliot
University of Guelph, Canada

Introduction
The experience has been an object of major interest in the managerial and academic spheres over the last decade, is not just a buzzword. Experience is at the heart of consumption, it is what consumers have come to seek, to live, and it is time invested to create well-being and long lasting memories. In tourism consumption, the experience is a topic that has been the object of interest for several decades. Even if tourism academics have not necessarily used this specific term to describe what takes place during the experience, tourist marketers, sociologist, psychologists and geographers have gained an in-depth understanding of what lies at the very heart of a holiday and how various elements might contribute to its development. Indeed, over the years, various concepts have emerged to describe the core of the experience: enjoyment, pleasure, well-being, peak experience, immersion, flow, etc.

Two concepts that are of interest to study the dimensions of the experience are those of flow and immersion. These concepts have been studied over the years and bring a useful framework to analyse the processes at stake in the experience. However, differences between the two concepts are not always evident and more investigation is needed to further define them and, most importantly, understand how they interact with each other. It is also important to investigate how these notions evolve over the whole duration of a holiday.

This study aims to clarify how both concepts co-exist and interact with each other within a holiday stay on a mountain resort. A study on 10 participants, studied on a daily basis bring some useful information on both immersion and flow within their experience and brings some interesting managerial implications.

Literature review
Csíkszentmihályi (1975, 1997) first identified the concept of flow as a condition among artists during their creative process. This state was characterized by a total absorption in the moment at the expense of any other activity (e.g. physiological needs, loss of sense of time). Flow is characterized as an optimal mental state of intense concentration whereby individuals feel completely absorbed in what they are doing. Whether in sport, play, recreation, Internet searching, or education, to achieve flow there must be a balance between challenge and skill, otherwise the result may instead be boredom or anxiety. Flow has since been developed and used in other areas of consumption, particularly in recreation and leisure (Arnould and Price, 1993 and 2000; Celsi, Rose and Leigh, 1993; McGinnis, Gentry and Gao, 2008; Tinsley and Tinsley, 1986; Tsau, Yen and Hsiao, 2013).

While some researchers suggest that consumers need an extraordinary event to create an intense and unforgettable experience (Arnould and Price, 1993; Pine and Gilmore, 1999), others indicate that not all experiences need to be extraordinary to procure immersion (Carù and Cova, 2003; Fornerino et al. 2008). This aspect is important to take into consideration since in the case of tourism, consumers seek at times calm and relaxing moments, thus immersion can be achieved through non-extraordinary experiences. This concept was echoed
by Ritzer (2004) when he developed the idea that the contemporary consumption universe had standardised the consumption experience and needed to be ‘re-enchanted’. Contemporary consumers were described as seeking varied and absorbing experiences that would take them away from their everyday world by propelling them in a circled, secured and thematised universe (Firat, 2001; Goulding, 2000; Ritzer, 2004).

Immersion is created when a consumer comes in contact with an enterprise’s experiential environment. Carù and Cova (2003) define immersion as “a feeling of well-being, development and satisfaction” (page 60) and describe a process whereby consumers are totally absorbed by the experience and their senses are stimulated by the surrounding environment (Carù and Cova, 2006). Carù and Cova’ research also identifies that immersion is both a process and an outcome of the experience. We are looking in this study at immersion during the experience (as an outcome), that which is described by Cova as characteristic of detachment from everyday life and that allows to achieve a state of relaxation (table 1). When comparing the two notions, flow appears to represent a high point of the experience, probably one that is necessary to cut tourists free from any other elements. Immersion would represent a milder sense of detachment, however because its intensity is less pregnant and its learning processes more important, it requires a more intense co-creation process (whereas flow exists in its spontaneity).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 1: Comparison</strong> of the dimensions of flow and immersion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Immersion</strong> (Carù and Cova, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detachment from everyday life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achieving a state of relaxation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nesting – developing a sense of being “at home” by developing a familiarity with the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stamping – meaning making by being able to compare the tourist environment to that of everyday life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigation – explore, signposts to identify key reference elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Methodology**

In this study, the use of qualitative data collection, rather than quantitative, was seen as the most appropriate option if the researchers wanted to deeply analyse all the components of the experience. The ESM approach was seen as comporting some limits as the random approach would have meant that respondents might not have been surveyed at the highest points of their experience. Moreover, interviewees were undertaking various activities and it would have been problematic to interrupt them especially in deeply involving activities such as skiing. Instead the respondents were interviewed each day of their holiday and the data was collected over a five-day period: Monday to Thursday at the resort, one day after their return (Friday) and one year after their experience. The sample comprised 10 volunteer senior-level students of a tourism university program, undertaking a four-day stay in the resort of La

Plagne, France. A total of 38 semi-structured interviews were undertaken, transcribed and content analysed by the team of researchers to identify the patterns of experiences and to assess the interplay between flow and immersion. Additionally, and to more precisely identify the evolution of flow and immersion, the researchers asked respondents to rate their daily experiences on a 1 to 10 scale, whereby 1 was equivalent to their daily life experiences, whilst 10 corresponded to an optimal experience (Figure 1). Whilst this measure might not be perfect, it was deemed appropriate to encourage respondents to define those moments in comparison to what a daily, current, normal experience would represent. Every time the respondents identify a peak, they were then encouraged to describe those experiences in order to identify to which extent they represented episodes of flow. The objective here was not to identify satisfaction but to assess how respondents described and qualified those specific moments. Since those peak moments were all positive occurrences, no specific negative elements emerged from the interviews.

Findings and Implications

First and foremost, the interviews clearly revealed episodes of both flow and immersion. Unsurprisingly flow was strongly associated with the activity of skiing (e.g. concentration, rewarding, loss of self-awareness and time), although a snowshoeing experience proved to be very efficient in providing intense flow (albeit of a different nature, where challenges and skills were balanced at a lower level). Immersion was also existent and presented itself through a complete sense of detachment (and conscious willingness) to detach oneself from everyday life. Immersion was expressed as a state of total absorption that could be global, but could also be invoked by very simple moments (e.g. drinking a hot chocolate on a chalet terrace, walking in the snow, “good tiredness”, etc.). To more precisely identify the evolution of flow and immersion, the researchers asked respondents to rate their daily experiences on a 1 to 10 scale, whereby 1 was equivalent to their daily life experiences, whilst 10 corresponded to an optimal experience (Figure 1).

![Figure 1: Patterns of a Ski Resort Experience](image)

Results show that respondents’ disparate levels of experiences at the start of their stay are significantly influenced by their pre-acquired level of skiing and previous experience with ski resorts (experienced skiers already know what to expect and get excited about their stay...
much earlier than un-experienced skiers, enabling faster immersion). However whilst there is intense variability of levels of immersion at the beginning of the trip, the respondents quickly start to converge, and culminate together in a very high pick on day 3; a day where the weather improved, and both skiers and non-skiers could enjoy the mountains (and especially the view). Logically, a good weather improved the experience but the notion of the view, of taking a fuller perception of the location (the sheer beauty of the landscape and grasping a sense of the place, were mentioned predominately). On the second day, participants also experienced a high peak (slightly milder) associated with the snowshoeing experience. Notably, it seems that a peak can take place every day as long as one special activity (at least) occurs. For instance, on day 2, the two participants who did not participate in the snowshoeing activity did not experience a peak. Equally on day 4, when participants left the resort at the end of the afternoon, the weather was too poor to ski and boredom started to set in for many, affecting a drop in immersion.

One year later, when interviewed again, what stand out are, unsurprisingly the peak episodes of the experience, especially the snowshoeing event and the third day with good quality skiing. This in itself corroborates partially the peak-end rule (Fredrickson, 2000) which states that only the peak and end episodes are those remembered. In this case the peak episodes remembered where those attached to strong emotions, however no end-moments were identified.

The positive outcomes of immersion were deeply felt by the study respondents, from a sense of well-being, accomplishment, to peace, calm, magic and Zen. The feeling of immersion was more complex than what described Carù and Cova (2003), if indeed the sense of detachment was important, it appeared to be a prerequisite to the experience of deeper feelings highly enjoyable.

When identifying contributors and inhibitors to immersion, six dimensions emerged from the analysis: social, physical, natural, psychological, sensorial, and environmental. Of interest was the analysis of how those elements could be connected to managerial implications. Table 2 summarizes how resort managers might translate those results into product and service developments.
Table 2 – Managerial implications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Contributors to Immersion</th>
<th>Inhibitors of Immersion</th>
<th>Positive outcomes</th>
<th>Managerial Implications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Friends, group, bonding,</td>
<td>Foreign to group, outsider</td>
<td>Feeling a part of the group</td>
<td>Group events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Activity: ski, snowshoe, walk</td>
<td>Lack of experience</td>
<td>‘Good’ tiredness, sense of accomplishment</td>
<td>Optional lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Snow, winter, fresh air, white, open, landscape, sun</td>
<td>Bad weather, poor conditions, no sun, cold</td>
<td>Calm, peaceful, happy, magical</td>
<td>Nature experiences for non-skiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>Autotelic personality, positive attitude, open</td>
<td>Stress, nervousness, hesitancy</td>
<td>Well-being, pride of achievement, relaxed</td>
<td>Offer incentives to all levels of skiers; create positive ambience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensorial</td>
<td>Music, videos, smells of fresh baking</td>
<td>Bad smells (in bar), distaste for type of music playing</td>
<td>Zen, disconnected, unselfconscious</td>
<td>Appeal to all 5 senses, sights, sounds, smells, tastes, and even encourage the touch of snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Chalets, village, runs, lifts, low level buildings, charm</td>
<td>Non-authentic, old buildings, buildings that block view</td>
<td>Comfortable, cozy, secure</td>
<td>Alps design and theme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Overall, this study (within the limits of its sample), points to the different elements that influence the evolution/construction of an experience. The pattern of experiences shows that while a peak cannot be maintained throughout the duration of a trip, a peak is necessary every day otherwise immersion will suffer. Immersion is clearly not just a milder version of flow, it is boosted by flow experiences but, in itself, also relates to other dimensions of the experience, especially the need to get away by immersing in a different environment, and thereby distancing oneself from everyday life. Respondents’own characteristics will necessarily influence their perception of the experience, however other elements provided by the resort play a significant role. The study therefore points to the strategic place of activities.
and events’ provision to create flow (and thereby stimulate immersion) but also to the
necessity to consider the experiencescape (theming, design, planning), as an important
contributor to immersion. The study also identifies that consumers are co-creators of their
own experience and well-being by deliberately acting upon the ingredients of their experience
and selectively perceiving the experiencescape.

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Evaluating Effects of SNS on Tourism Recovery in a Rural Area Hit by the Great East Japan Earthquake by Focusing on Volunteer Tourism

Miho Fukui
Yasuo Ohe
Chiba University, Department of Food and Resource Economics
Chiba, Japan
yohe@faculty.chiba-u.jp

Introduction
Social network services (SNS) or social media has become increasingly popular. However, there has been little investigation on how to effectively mobilize this newly emerging tool to promote tourism, especially in rural areas. The aims of this paper are twofold. First, among social media we explore the role of Twitter for tourism promotion, especially by focusing on the recovery process of tourism in a rural area affected by the huge earthquake and tsunami, magnitude 9.1, which hit eastern Japan in March 2011. Second, to approach the first purpose we compare two types of tourism: conventional ordinary tourism and “volunteer tourism”. This means that this paper takes a comparative perspective between tourism in an emergency situation and tourism in an ordinary setting. It was the Kobe-Awaji great earthquake in 1995 when the significance of volunteer tourism in disaster-hit areas was widely recognized for the first time in Japan (Nakao, 2002). Just after the 2011 earthquake and tsunami, a massive number of volunteers came to these areas to help in the recovery work from the devastation such as removing debris and helping evacuees rehabilitate their lives in Iwate prefecture. To approach these aims, by focusing on Iwate prefecture, we employed the text-mining method and econometric time series regression models to explore factors related to these two types of tourism. Finally, policy recommendations were suggested.

Literature review
The topic of this paper covers areas overlapping three domains, i.e., disaster in tourism, volunteer tourism, and social media. Although these three areas have attracted growing interest in tourism research and there has been a large increase in such studies, the topic encompassing an overlap of areas has been little studied. Firstly, with respect to literature on disaster and tourism, Ritchie (2009) conducted a system-based approach to the crisis and disaster management for tourism and mentioned that tourism organizations should work with media to ensure provision of consistent and accurate information to the public and stakeholders. Scott and Prideaux (2010) dealt with safety and security in tourism and recovery marketing after crises and included interesting chapters related to the topic of this paper. Specifically, Volo (2010) focused on the role of destination marketing organizations’ websites in communicating tourism crises caused by the avian flu in 2006 and evaluated these websites as an effective tool to better share information. Albattat and Som (2014) focused on the impact of natural and man-made disasters on tourism business in Thailand and pointed out the role of media in disseminating correct information.

As an econometric evaluation of the impact of earthquakes on tourism inflow, Mazzocchi and Montini (2001) applied event study methodology to tourist arrivals in Central Italy. It is natural that this paper did not focus on the roles of social media, which at that time was newly emerging. In short, although in crisis and disaster management of tourism many authors stressed the role of media to disseminate correct information to the public, the roles of social media in tourism recovery in disaster-hit destinations have not been studied.
Secondly, studies on social media in tourism have been published recently at an explosive pace. Leung et al. (2013) conducted a literature review on social media in tourism and hospitality and stressed the importance of social media for tourism competitiveness. Minazzi (2015) conducted full-fledged research on social media marketing in tourism and characterized WOM (word of mouth) and eWOM (electronic word of mouth). Nevertheless, eWOM was not fully referred to as a disaster or crisis communication tool. The main research attention was focused on tourism marketing, e.g., national tourism organizations (Hays et al., 2013), airline companies (Hvass and Munar, 2012; Dijkmans et al., 2015), hotel industry in Hong Kong (Chan and Guillet, 2011) and in the U.S. (Leung et al., 2015), nature-based tourism (Wood, et al., 2013), and recreation and educational institutions (Zehrer and Grabmüller, 2012; Hajli and Lin, 2014). Schroeder et al. (2013) investigated the roles of social media in crisis communications among international tourists and mentioned that social media is increasingly used to communicate with and by tourists in times of crisis while stressing further study of social media as a means of crisis communications. This study fills the gap in this respect.

Thirdly, research on volunteer tourism has been extensively conducted since the 2000s. Wearing and McGehee (2013a) conducted a large number of literature reviews. International volunteer tourism often has been studied from pro-poor perspectives (Wearing and McGehee, 2013b); Borland and Adams (2013) for cases in Central America, Conran (2011) and Mostafanezhad (2014) for cases in Thailand, Coren and Gray (2012) in Vietnam and Thailand, Chen and Chen (2011) in China, and Crossley (2012) in Kenya. As far as the authors’ knowledge, no studies have focused on disaster and volunteer tourism.

Methods and material

We employed a text-mining method to find keywords used in the official Twitter account issued by the Iwate Prefectural government, which is one of the top popular official Twitter accounts in this country, and time series regression models to identify factors that promote the two types of tourism and to statistically test whether the tendency of repeat visits exists by considering the time lag of each tourism demand. Data were collected using official statistics of monthly incoming numbers of ordinary tourists and volunteer tourists from January 2010, before the earthquake, to March 2013, two years after the earthquake. Tweeted information was provided by Iwate Prefecture.

We estimated demand determinant time-series models for conventional ordinary tourism and volunteer tourism, respectively. The explained variables were the numbers of incoming tourists to Iwate in terms of conventional ordinary and volunteer tourism that were obtained from different public data sources. As explanatory variables, we considered monthly dummy variables to control seasonal fluctuations, the counted frequency of tweeted keywords related to local tourism resources such as “cultural heritage”, “festival”, and “shellfish”, which reminds people of a local delicacy, and to volunteer-related words such as “recovery/reconstruction” and “volunteer”. We also tested the repeat-visit effect for these two types of tourism by using the number of tourists one month before the present data.

Results

Before the estimation, we conducted unit root tests, i.e., Augmented Dickey-Fuller tests and Phillips-Perron tests, to confirm the stationarity among variables for the models and found there was non-stationarity, so that we took the first-order-difference models. The results revealed that, first, the number of volunteer tourists compensated for the decrease in the number of ordinary tourists in the disaster-hit coastal area (Table 1). Second, tweeted information on cultural resources and local specialties had a positive relationship with the number of incoming tourists while information on rehabilitation/reconstruction had negative effects. In contrast, third, tweeted information on tourism resources worked negatively toward the number of volunteer tourists while
that on rehabilitation/reconstruction and on volunteers worked positively. Fourth, it was revealed that there was a repeat-visit effect for volunteer tourists, which verified the effectiveness of tweeted information for the promotion of repeat visits.

**Table 1: Results of time series estimation model on no. volunteer tourists**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explained variable</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III-1</th>
<th>III-2</th>
<th>III-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ΔT_{t-1} (1st stage lag)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.52***</td>
<td>0.57***</td>
<td>0.58***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>6983**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>4005*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>3557*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>-8540***</td>
<td>-8378***</td>
<td>-8109***</td>
<td>-9914***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6089**</td>
<td>-4630*</td>
<td>-7354***</td>
<td>-4806**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ“tourism resources”</td>
<td></td>
<td>-140***</td>
<td>-143***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ“Hiraizumi”</td>
<td></td>
<td>-460***</td>
<td>-574***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ“heritage”</td>
<td></td>
<td>-954***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ“volunteer”</td>
<td></td>
<td>329**</td>
<td>472***</td>
<td>278**</td>
<td>447***</td>
<td>321***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary Dummy variables of earthquake</td>
<td></td>
<td>9982*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiraizumi world cultural heritage dummy</td>
<td></td>
<td>-8452**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiraizumi world cultural heritage temporary dummy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td>3483***</td>
<td>-678</td>
<td>1158</td>
<td>1338***</td>
<td>954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DW static</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjusted R square</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.4683</td>
<td>0.3511</td>
<td>0.5885</td>
<td>0.7256</td>
<td>0.7216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***, **, * indicate 1%, 5%, 10% significance, respectively.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

This paper quantitatively clarified by the text-mining method and time series regression models that conventional ordinary tourism was substituted by volunteer tourism in the tsunami-hit coastal areas. Although tweeted information was effective for both types of tourism, necessary information should properly be provided for those tourists with different orientations.

The results of this paper also indicated that volunteer tourism for recovery work in disaster hit areas has various impacts not only on the disaster-hit areas in physical terms, but also for people outside of the disaster-hit areas because this type of volunteer tourism causes people to realize the weakened solidarity among people in every modern society and help them take action to reverse this trend even if temporarily. This paper clarified that modern information technology can help people take action to connect with each other in the time of emergency. At the same time, we should also recognize that interest in volunteer tourism for disaster-hit areas is diminishing as time goes by.

Consequently, it is important to design support measures that enable the local tourism sector to attract incoming tourists after a drop in volunteer tourism as reconstruction of the disaster area progresses. In this context, our results suggest how to effectively utilize Twitter for this purpose.

**Acknowledgement**

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Economic Crisis and Residents' Perception of Tourism Impacts in Mass Tourism Destinations

Joan B. Garau-Vadell
University of the Balearic Islands
joan.garau@uib.es

Desiderio Gutierrez-Taño
Ricardo J. Díaz-Armas
Universidad de la Laguna-Tenerife

Introduction

Some of the mainstream European traditional tourism destinations located in southern Europe (e.g., Spain, Italy, Portugal, and Greece) are currently facing a severe economic crisis. Research suggests that in times of economic uncertainty, perceptions and attitudes are subject to various types of economic and psychological influences (e.g., Voon & Voon, 2012) and it could be expected that residents’ perception of tourism impacts and support varies.

In the past, a large number of variables affecting residents’ perceptions have been examined. However, there is a scarcity of research on the influence that economic crisis exercises on residents' perceptions (Smeral, 2009). This lack of research restricts from fully comprehending how individuals respond to tourism development as well as from delineating the role of the economic context in this process (Stylidis and Terzidou 2014). Furthermore, most of the literature usually has been based on research conducted in depressed economies, with a surprising absence of mainstream tourism destinations, such as the Caribbean or the Mediterranean resorts. These destinations with dominant tourism sectors and/or significant economic dependence on tourism, have been practically excluded from the research (Sharpley 2014). The existing research usually lacks from a temporal perspective and provides static views of residents' perceptions (Huh y Vogt 2008).

To fill in the research gap, this study compares data obtained in two prime mass tourism destinations such as Tenerife and Mallorca (Spain) collected in 2006 and 2014. In 2006, data were gathered in a booming economic environment and few years later, a second measurement was taken in a long lasting economic crisis context. The final goal of this paper is to advance on the understanding on how the economic environment affects perception of tourism impact and support to tourism and discuss the destination management implications that may derive from the results obtained.

Literature review

One of the most relevant theories dealing with residents support is the Social Exchange Theory (SET). The SET holds that residents will give their support in case of positive results in the comparison of the perceived positive and negative impacts of tourism (Ap 1992, Lindberg & Johnson 1997; Gursoy et al. 2002; McGehee & Anderreck 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Garau et al. 2013). According to this theory, residents will support tourism development whenever they perceive a positive balance in their relationship with tourists (Allen et al., 1993). Inversely, residents will withdraw their support if perceived costs outweigh the benefits (Lawson et al 1998).

This study follows the SET theory and proposes that support to tourism development will vary along an economic crisis period due to the variation of the residents’ perception of tourism impacts. In times of economic uncertainty, individual’s perceptions and attitudes may vary (e.g. Voon & Voon, 2012). In accordance with the view that economic gains are the most
visible and powerful motivations for desiring tourism development in a community (Gursoy et al 2002) we can hypothesize that:

**H1: In a situation of economic crisis support of residents towards tourism increases**

A large number of positive and negative tourism impacts have been identified in the literature review. These impacts may be summarized into four dimensions: economic impacts, social impacts, cultural impacts and environmental impacts (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004).

Although, there is a shortage on research aimed to understand how the financial and economic crisis influences residents’ perceptions and attitudes toward tourism (Smeral 2009), and most of this research has been conducted so far in remote, emerging or very little developed resorts (Sharpely 2014), including destinations such as Idaho (Gursoy 2004) Shiraz in Iran (Aref et al. 2009), Uganda (Lepp 2007), Mauritius (Nunkoo and Ramkisson, 2010), or Kavala in Greece (Stylidis & Terzidou 2014), there are evidences that the perceived state of the local economy influences the perception of impacts of tourism (e.g. Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004, Stylidis & Terzidou 2014).

Economic gains are the most visible and powerful motivations for desiring tourism development in a community (Gursoy et al 2002) and the vast majority of previous studies support the idea that the perceived economic impacts of tourism have a positive effect on residents’ support for tourism development (e.g. Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Jurowski et al., 1997), therefore when residents perceive a bad local economy, they may appreciate the economic benefits deriving from tourism development and reduce the perception of its economic costs (e.g. Aref et al. 2009). Seemingly, as the possibility to access to jobs is usually extremely valued by individuals suffering from unemployment (Sverke, Hellgren, & Naswall, 2002), in a context of economic crisis with large unemployment figures, when the tourism industry seems to be the sole generating employment sector residents will probably strongly perceive this economic benefit. Following this discussion, we can hypothesize that:

**H2: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the economic costs of tourism declines.**

**H3: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the economic benefits of tourism increases**

In the social and cultural dimensions, certain studies acknowledge that residents may often be ready to sacrifice some of their social assets when they share a final belief that tourism can create new economic opportunities (Kayat 2002), reduce their perception of social and cultural costs and become more tolerant to the negative impacts of tourism if they forecast an economic profit (Stylidis & Terzidou 2014; Nunkoo & Ramkisson, 2010; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004;). In certain cases, even residents who do not directly benefit from tourism, in the context of a depressed economy, can dramatically increase their support to tourism; fearing that if the tourism sector fails, ultimately it will end up negatively affecting them (Wyllie 1998). Based on this premises we could hypothesize that:

**H4: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the social costs of tourism declines.**

**H5: In a situation of economic crisis the perceived social benefits of tourism increase**

**H6: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of cultural tourism costs decreases.**

**H7: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the cultural benefits of tourism increases**

With respect to the environmental dimensions, some research has shown that residents may accept negative environmental impacts if they foresee economic benefits (Kayat 2002), in certain cases residents fail to perceive negatively some of the impacts generated, even neglecting such relevant aspects as pollution or congestion (Nunkoo and Ramkisson, 2010; Lepp 2007). Also, perception of some positive impacts such as a better appearance of the...
community (Perdue et al., 1990) may also be more appreciated. According to these findings the following set of hypothesis can be formulated.

H8: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the environmental costs of tourism decreases.

H9: In a situation of economic crisis the perception of the environmental benefits of tourism increases.

Methods and material

The empirical research of this work was conducted in Tenerife and Mallorca (Spain), two top international mass tourism destinations hosting each more than 5M and 9.6M tourists in 2014 (CAIB 2014). As many southern Europe countries Tenerife and Mallorca have been affected by a strong economic crisis. In the case of Tenerife, the largest of the seven Canary Islands, the GDP from 2007 shows decline until 2013, the employment indicators also show a clear negative trend from 2007 reaching 30% levels of unemployment by 2013 (CES Canarias, 2013). In the case of Mallorca, from 2008 until 2010 negative GDP growth has been observed of -2.7% in 2009 and -0.9% in 2010. Since then, a technical stagnation has been observed, with growth levels below 0.6% (IBESTAT, 2013). The economic crisis of the Balearic Islands is also reflected in the rate of unemployment, which has gone from about 7% in 2007 to over 26% in 2013 (EPA, 2013).

In this bleak environment, tourism has been one of the very few industries performing positively. In the case of Tenerife, the number of tourists has increased since 2007, reaching a total of 4.9 million in 2013 (Turismo de Tenerife, 2013). In this period, the weight of tourism on Tenerife’s GDP, has increased from 27% in 2009 to almost 30% in 2012, generating 34.7% of total employment (Exceltur, 2012). In the case of Mallorca since 2006 the number of tourists has remained broadly stable at about 9.6 million tourists (CAIB 2014). The tourism industry in this destination generates more than 25% of total employment and has been the economic sector in which the least number of jobs were lost, although not massively, in this period of time it has generated some net employment (IET, 2013).

Existing tested scales (Diaz and Gutierrez 2006, Gursoy et al 2004, Nunkoo and Remission 2010) were adapted to the specificities of the research. The final perceptions measurement scale includes 24 statements related to economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts. The perception of economic costs and benefits on each dimension were measured by constructs formed by three items each. Similarly, the measurement of the support of residents to tourism development was carried out using a construct conformed by three statements generated from the literature review. Respondents were asked to grade their level of agreement to the formulated statements in five-point Likert scales.

In order to explore the reliability and validity of the constructs used to measure each of the analyzed dimensions, and in accordance with Chin (1998), Nunnally (1978) and Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggestions, it will be calculated the loading factor, the composite reliability (FC), the Cronbach’s Alpha and the average variance extracted (AVE). Also, according to Chin (1998) suggestions, to ensure the discriminant validity required to the constructs, the square root of AVE is compared to the correlations between constructs.

The total sample used in this study consists of 1.605 individuals, 602 from Tenerife and 1.003 from Mallorca. 1071 questionnaires were collected in 2006 and 534 in 2014. Information was gained through self-administered questionnaires in the place of residence of respondents.

To reduce the possible biasing effects of the sampling in the results obtained, and assure that variations in the perceptions were not caused by differences in the sample structure, the sample was weighed based on the weight each of the independent variables (age, gender,

To determine whether substantial variation occurs on the attitude of the residents towards tourism and how tourism impacts are perceived, a set of T-test will be conducted. These tests are aimed to compare whether average values of the results found in 2006 significantly differ from the ones obtained in 2014. As independent variable, the year of collection, (2006 and 2014) has been used. The dependent variables were considered to be the constructs used to measure the "support for tourism development" and each of the constructs used to measure ‘perceived costs’ and ‘perceived benefits’ on each of the dimensions analyzed. Findings confirm that the economic downturn substantially favors the development of positive attitudes towards tourism, especially due to a significant reduction in the perception of costs associated with tourism development.

Discussion and Conclusions

It seems that, in an economic crisis, individuals change their perceptions and priorities and try to adapt to the new situation, failing sometimes to perceive as negative as before, some of the previously perceived negative impacts. This trend can clearly be observed in the evolution of the perception of negative impacts, in both destinations perception of costs score significantly lower in 2014 than in 2006. In accordance, and confirming the SET theory, the reduction in the perception of costs, and the increase, or no significant change of the perceived benefits, would be the basis on which a greater residents’ support to tourism is built. This enhanced support can also be explained by the general belief that tourism can create opportunities that will help avoid financial hardship, which can also push residents who do not benefit directly from tourism to increase their support in the fear that negative effects may arise if the tourism sector fails (Wyllie 1998).

These conclusions lead us to a point of the crucial challenge that economic crisis poses to destination managers. In an economic crisis context, residents may develop a more permissive view that, if not properly managed, can lead into uncontrolled expansion periods that can irreversibly damage environmental, cultural or social assets. The consequences of such development can negatively affect the authenticity and the attractiveness of the destination, and seriously threaten its sustainability.

Tourism destination managers will therefore have to assume the important responsibility to run their policies without compromising the sustainability of the destination. Otherwise, the negative effects on the natural and socio-cultural environment may undermine the economic viability of tourism in the long run. In fact, the crisis period should be seen as the time to avoid short-term approaches and rather lay the basis for ensuring the sustainability of the destination and obtaining long-term support from residents.

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The challenge of rebranding a traditional manor hotel into a wellbeing hotel for people under 35

Evariste Habiyakare
Eva Holmberg
Haaga-Helia UAS
eva.holmberg@haaga-helia.fi

Introduction
Rebranding is a common strategy in the hotel industry today, both among hotel chains and privately owned smaller hotels. The aim of this study is explore whether the rebranding attempts by of a traditional manor hotel into a romantic getaway for especially younger couples have been successful or not. The study was conducted during fall 2014.

Rebranding hotels
Aaker (1996, 7) defines a brand as “a name, term, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of their competitors.” Consumers are loyal to a brand because that gives them the benefits they are seeking, for instance safety, reliability or familiarity or boosts their status and self-esteem (Tasci and Kozak 2006; Johansson and Carlson 2014).

Brand identity is the core of the brand communicated to potential and existing customers. In order to be successful, the brand identity should be clearly defined (Johansson and Carlson 2014). Brand identity corresponds to what some experts call the essence of the brand. The brand essence can be stated in a short sentence or with a few words. The brand attributes are adjectives used to describe the essence or identity of the brand (Keohane 2014). Brand image is the associations and attributes consumers connect to the brand (Kotler and Pfoertsch 2010). Thus, the brand identity is defined by the organisations owning the brand whereas brand image is the associations of the customers in the market (Johansson and Carlson 2014).

Rebranding is often about changing the name or logo of an established brand for instance due to two companies merging or the brand associations of a company or product being too negative. Sometimes rebranding can also be done by repositioning the brand or by redefining the brand attributes in the same time, as the name and logo of the company are untouched. Rebranding is especially common in hospitality, finding the right segment is not enough anymore, rather it is about finding a niche and creating an identity that is distinctive compared to competitors. (Hanson, Mattila, O’Neill & Kim 2014)

Target hotel
The hotel in focus in this study is a Finnish privately owned manor hotel, with 24 rooms in the manor house and 199 in a wing from the 1970ies. Services provided include also spa and conference services and it is located in the Uusimaa region in Finland. The hotel used to have two main groups of customers. The first customer group of the hotel used to be business tourists staying overnight in connection with meetings and conferences and the second used to be Finnish war veterans whose rehabilitation has been supported financially by the state. Due to the economic recession, the share of the first group has declined from almost 80 percent of all customers to about 50 percent during the last years. The second customer group has lost its importance due to natural reasons, there are not that many war veterans from the Second World War. The hotel has also always attracted a smaller number of individual customers, who have been attracted by the brand created by the family owing the hotel.
Since the number of hotel guests belonging to the traditional customer groups is difficult to increase, the management team of the hotel decided to rebrand the hotel for new groups of customers, couples under 35 interested in romantic holidays. New services like butler services have been introduced in order to provide more luxury. The other brand attributes the hotel has chosen to highlight in their marketing communication to support the brand are pampering, excellent service, delicious food and good quality-price ratio. Thus, the wellbeing services offered by the hotel are highly stressed in the newly defined brand attributes. These attributes have been used both on the company’s Internet page, in social media such as Facebook and Instagram and in newspapers to attract people belonging the age group under 35 who are necessary not aware of the hotel.

Methods
The aim of this study was to find out whether the rebranding attempts have been successful, i.e. does the new brand identity created correspond to the image of the hotel especially by people under 35?
The data was collected by third year students at a University of Applied Sciences during late fall 2014 and combined both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Data triangulation was respected by 9 semi-structured interviews, a social media analysis and by nethnography.

Results
In this section, the key findings are presented by a critical assessment of the existence of a gap between the brand identity and the hotel brand image among the target audience. In order to have a complete picture of the brand and the image, we add an additional dimension related to the image of the hotel in general.

The image in general
By looking at the image of the target hotel in social media and in the interviews, the hotel seems to get positive feedback. Respondents go on praising the hotel as being nice, amazing, imposing and stunning. In social media, the SPA is considered as luxurious, fantastic, wonderful place to relax and pampering. The manor house is described as elegant, beautiful, immaculate and fabulous. This could be illustrated by the following statement from one respondent:

“In the summer this hotel is breath-taking and fantastic place to go and hold a party or wedding during that time”

Looking at the perceptions about the rooms, there is a great variation in answers and this depends on the part of the hotel where the respondent has stayed. The business rooms were described as being too small and too old fashioned. There was also an impression that the manor building was contradicting the image outside and inside:

“The manor building is beautiful but the conference zone is not so nice looking”

On one hand, guests who stayed in the manor have no complaints at all, they describe the manor rooms as luxurious, clean, tidy, functional and comfortable. In addition, the manor and surrounding is seen as positive, quality place, good impression, very peaceful, a place to relax, and expensive but worth the money.

On the other hand, the ordinary hotel rooms are being criticized and one could find a big contradiction between the proposed attributes and the perceived brand.

“If you are going to that hotel you should book a room from the manor, not the hotel because it is boring”

For instance, several comments points to the fact that the rooms were boring, no air conditioning, cold, expensive, DDR style and some of the commentators would never
recommend that hotel to their friends. The contradiction is illustrated in the following statements:

"The main building is very beautiful but once you step inside, it is as if you travelled to the 1980s or something like that"

While some comments praised the SPA as “very peaceful” and having good treatments and as the best SPA hotel they have ever known, majority was disappointed and found that:

“Nothing special, full of Russians/elderly people; small and disappointing”

“The manor is much nicer than the SPA hotel and the SPA department needs to be renovated”

**The brand attributes**

Of the key brand attributes delicious food raised both positive and negative comments as well. For instance, some people describe the food by using positive adjectives such as fresh, healthy, nutritious tasty and delicious. However, a big majority of the comments were of the view that the quality of the food did not match the price.

“Food is boring and overpriced and quality of food is not that good”

“I think the hotel should put more effort at least when it comes to food to make it trendier and not so lame perhaps”

The level of service quality attracted both positive and negative comments as well. Surprisingly, the majority described the service as rude, disappointing, problematic, and many were worried about the decrease in the level of service as it is illustrated in the following statement:

“The quality of service is bad and tired, and the place is dead. It is only a shadow of what it used to be some time ago”

“The Service at the restaurant wasn’t the best, the servant was quite rude at first. Otherwise everything was really nice, but if I owned that place, I would decorate the hotel interior again (not quite fancy)”.

The attribute good price-quality ratio was generally not associated strongly with the image of the hotel. For instance, in social media it became clear that many did not see the hotel as anything for them since the services were perceived as expensive. When it comes to the brand attributes romantic and pampering most data collected support the fact that the hotel is both romantic and a place for pampering yourself.

“Absolutely yes! At our office we have about once in a half year a hotel day, when we choose some treat from the beauty salon. It’s usually some special massage or facial treat.”

“I think I’m not the right person to discuss romantic holidays. But if I was planning something like that, that hotel would definitely be one of the alternatives. I also have many friend couples that have visited it for their romantic holiday. The place surely is very romantic, and lots of activities you can do together. And good food to eat together!”

**Conclusion**

As it was stated in the beginning of this paper, the target hotel wants to create a brand image corresponding to the following attributes: delicious food, pampering, romantic, personalized service and good value for money.

By analyzing the above results, it is possible to depict a certain level of discrepancy or even contradiction in the brand identity and the brand image of the studied company. Despite new channels for marketing communication and the use of new types of messages and images, it seems that the company’s image does not correspond to real perceptions of the potential customers under 35 years old. Customers who are familiar with the hotel see it as romantic
and pampering but many are not associating good value for money and personalized, excellent service to the brand. In general, the awareness of the hotel as a whole was rather low. The rebranding strategy was implemented less than a year ago thus it is likely that the new marketing communication tools like videos in Youtube have not yet reached all potential customers.

Today’s customers are more demanding and have access to a lot of information. Due to their increasing welfare, people are travelling more than before. This may give them a critical edge to scrutinize any service provider by comparing service quality, price and place with similar places they have visited. Thus, the hotel must focus especially on improving the service level in order to reduce the gap between the desired brand identity and brand image.

As the Disney Insitute (2015) puts it:

“Brand loyalty is established organizations consistently deliver superior value relative to their brand promise”

**Literature**


The value chains and innovative potentials in rural wellbeing tourism

Anne-Mette Hjalager
Professor, Research Director
Danish Centre for Rural Research
University of Southern Denmark
Hjalager@sam.sdu.dk

Introduction

This paper takes a critical view on the use of the value chain concept in tourism research, and it exemplifies this with the case of wellbeing tourism in Northern European rural landscapes. The paper claims that the traditional and most often seen tourism destination logic of the value chain may compromise an informative and co-production oriented inquiry into the true potentials of rural wellbeing tourism.

Literature review

Over the past years tourism practitioners and researchers have embraced the value chain model. However, going into detail with the practice and research, it appears that the application of the model takes place in two rather incompatible ways:

- **The destination logic.** In this logic the destination is analyzed as a composition or sequences of services that the tourists can benefit from during their entire holiday. Destinations with a varied amount of products that are transparently and accessibly linked together and cover all needs from prior to the travel decision to after visit services, are considered more likely to create higher values for the tourists than destination with weaker product coherence (Gibson et al, 2005; Song et al, 2012; Weiermair, 2006). Moreover, the tourism businesses will benefit to the extent that the value chain satisfies the totality of needs for tourists, and providers will profit extra if tourists are ready to pay for the additional and comprehensive services.

- **The supply chain logic.** The logic relies more on Porter's (1985) original production oriented model. Any single tourism product consists of a chain of production steps, where material and immaterial resources are added subsequently. At each step, new value is added to the product or service. The production may take place in a single organization from the very start to the delivery, or it may be produced by a number of actors in a supply chain. The focus in this logic is on the business models and how value is generated across sectors by refining and developing products (Nordin & Svensson, 2007; Rønningen, 2010). The point of view in the supply chain logic refers to the business and production logics, and the value chain may be completely different from what the tourist will experience. Well-coordinated supply chains will enhance profits at each step in the chain, and potentially also benefit tourists with lower prices.

In tourism research, the destination value chain logic seems to have received far more attention in tourism context than the supply chain model.

The rural is not a uniform concept, as landscapes and climates differ. Hence, also wellbeing attributes may vary according to spatial contexts. As noted by Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper (2009), even otherwise quite standard spa facilities attempt to diversity by relating
carefully to the local ambience. The composition of a value chain for rural tourism depends on the types of landscape and configuration of rural life and activity (Bell et al 2010), and the paper addresses the issues in four territorial categories: 1) Abandoned rural areas and wildernesses, 2) Extensive culturalised areas, 3) Stable agricultural areas, 4) Idyllised rustic areas.

**Method & materials**

The paper is a conceptual contribution based on literature reviews, however with a special reference to tourism in Northern European peripheral regions. Systematically, it relates the destination value chain logic and the supply chain logic on the one hand with the potentials for tourism related business creativeness in the four spatial categories on the other hand, and it points to actions applicable for tourism business enterprises and destinations. This approach has not been seen in previous studies of wellbeing tourism.

**Research and results**

The main results of the research are summarized in the table, with a focus on the actions and product types.
### Table 1: Summary of action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination value chain</th>
<th>Supply value chain</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bonding resources, plentification and unification of the product image</td>
<td>Bridging resources, creating value innovations in tourism and other sectors</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilderesses, remote and protected areas, low population density rural zones, abandonment zones</td>
<td>Embedding tourism in extraction functions query, forestry, hunting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guiding services which link sights, services and experiences into flows and packages</td>
<td>Citizens/tourists science, investigative tourism, participation in wellbeing research projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-service provision, e.g. retail, renting, angling permits, trails and related (paid) services</td>
<td>Media productions in connection with tours, for example expedition bulletins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme based wilderness all inclusive hubs, for example hunting, health, spa</td>
<td>Conservation holidays co-creating healthier landscapes or environmentally safe tourism facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonding resources, plentification and unification of the product image</td>
<td>Bridging resources, creating value innovations in tourism and other sectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and forestry landscapes and competition about resources</td>
<td>Healthy food development and subsequent new delivery systems that includes tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm relaxation and participation in farm life activities, for example growing/gathering/preparing food etc.</td>
<td>Bio-energy exploitation for wellbeing tourism products, for example heating of spas and spa products and ingredients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Touring, for example horse riding, dog training or other animal related wellbeing services</td>
<td>Participative landscape arts and landscaping, creating and amending the landscapes for wellbeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry spas and resorts that exploit micro-climatic conditions in a composite product</td>
<td>Urban or close-to-urban leisure husbandry – chicken, bees etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idyllic rural landscapes, closer to urban areas</td>
<td>Traditional spas in untraditional settings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial landscaping, and provision of catering, accommodation and other services in connection with sceneries</td>
<td>Bonding resources, plentification and unification of the product image</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion and conclusions
The value chain can open the analytic mind, but more operatively and practically, it can be seen as is a diagnostic tool. Hence, the chain model can assist in identifying:

- The dynamic linkages between productive activities. How are different links in a chain tied together, what is the “glue”? What is the geographical distribution of the different links in the chain? When one link in a chain is changing, what will happen with prior and subsequent links? Will new value windows for profit arise, or will the opportunities be closed in the case of changes?

- Constraints and levels of inefficiencies that prevent the further addition of net value, innovation and competitiveness. What missing links prevent the emergence of an efficient and attractive rural wellbeing cluster? What elements are underperforming? What landscape related resources are inactive in the tourism value chain, and could they be activated?

- Recognition of value created in and beyond tourism. What are intrinsic interdependencies and flows created in the supplier part of the value chain? In a rural development perspective, is the economic turnover larger among suppliers than in core tourism actors? Are jobs in the supplying sector more favorable in terms of payment, competence requirements and seasonal issues? Can outsourcing or insourcing benefit the local tourism labour market?

In a wider perspective, the value chain analysis can inform policymakers at local and national levels. It can be a way of identification of points of entry for policy. Value chain analysis can help the re-assessment of the economic power of target beneficiaries and “rules of the game” in the value chain, and clarify structural impacts.

This paper takes into account the different types of landscapes that decisively affect the composition of the value chains and the logics of their development. In the tourism literature, this approach has not been implemented to any significant degree, particularly not the supply chain version. There is a need, with more concise empirical studies, to validate and to enrich the concepts and to test the diagnostic as well as the policy prospects.

References

Japanese Wellbeing Tourists: Motivation Factors and Segments

Hiromi Kamata
Shukutoku University, Faculty of Business Administration
Saitama, Japan
hirom-k@mercury.ne.jp

Yuki Misui
Takasaki City University of Economics, Faculty of Regional Policy
Gunma, Japan

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine the motivation factors of Japanese wellbeing tourists, and to derive the types of tourists (segments) by benefit segmentation. After segmenting the tourists, the relationship between motivation and overall satisfaction, and the corresponding effect on wellbeing are analyzed. We think that visits to spas probably have some effect on the wellbeing of tourists.

In this paper, we refer to spa tourists as “wellbeing tourists,” and have focused on Japanese spa tourists who have visited Hakone, one of the most famous and popular spa destinations in Japan (located approximately one hour from Tokyo). Hakone offers various kinds of hot springs, an unspoiled natural environment, and views of the nearby Mt. Fuji. Almost all tourists enjoy the opportunity to visit a spa. However, as different groups of tourists have different motivations for visiting, we predicted that their satisfaction levels and the corresponding effect on their wellbeing would vary according to their motivations.

To explore this question, we developed and tested a hypothesis. From the results of our analysis, we have suggested some implications for the marketing of spa destinations.

Spa tourism is very popular worldwide. However, it must be noted that the “spa tourism style in Japan” is different from those in other countries. As Lee and King (2008) mentioned, the hot springs tourism sector in Asia is different from that in Western countries. In Asia, natural hot springs have been used for leisure. Almost all Japanese-style inns (ryokan) have various hot spring baths both indoors and outdoors. Typical tourists spend their time in spa destinations by soaking themselves in hot springs, eating local foods, strolling, visiting nearby tourist spots, or engaging in other activities (hiking, skiing, etc.). They seek an enjoyable time with family, friends, or colleagues. Japanese-style spa tourism is mostly for pleasure-travel rather than being medical or healthcare-related. Based on these differences, it can be predicted that the motivation factors of Japanese wellbeing tourists will be different from those of other countries.

Literature review

There are many previous studies related to tourist motivation factors and segmentation. Dolnicar (2002) proposed two fundamental ways to classify or segment individuals. One is the typological approach, which is similar to a priori segmentation. The criteria of this approach are known in advance. The other approach is data-driven segmentation (a posteriori segmentation), and has received increased attention (Dolnicar, 2004). According to Cha, McCleary and Uysal (1995), there are two dimensions of tourist motivation—push and pull motivation. Tourists are pushed by their own internal forces, and pulled by external forces, such as the attributes of the destination (Bieger and Laesser, 2002).
There are many studies on spa tourist motivations or valuations (Snoj and Mumel, 2002, Alen et al., 2006, Pesonen et al., 2011, Kamata and Misui, 2015 etc.). Various motivation factors (benefits) of spa or wellbeing tourists have been defined in previous studies. Here, we reviewed representative studies. Pesonen et al. (2011) conducted benefit segmentation for deriving the potential wellbeing tourists of Savonlinna region in Finland. They constructed 18 benefit statements based on previous studies, except for six, which were considered for the original characteristic of Savonlinna. The reason mentioned for considering six statements are that tourism benefits are often attached to a specific destination, vacation, or activity, and cannot be generalized. Four segments were derived from the benefit segmentation using these 18 statements. Pesonen et al. (2011) provided the implications that one segment enjoys nature-based passive wellbeing, whereas other segments prefer buying wellbeing.

Kamata and Misui (2015) used 54 items for the motivation of spa tourists based on research by the Jalan Research Center (2007). Then, seven motivation factors were derived from these 54 items. They divided the respondents into five segments by these seven motivation factors through cluster analysis, and revealed that the common important factors of all segments are “soothing quality” and “release from routine.” Although they succeeded in revealing the common important factors among Japanese spa tourists, some assignments have remained. One of the assignments is to determine whether in each spa the motivation factors and segments differ or not.

Based on these studies, this study attempts to reveal the motivation factors of Japanese wellbeing tourists, and derive the type of tourists (segments) by benefit segmentation. Post segmentation, the relationship between motivations and overall satisfaction, and the effect on wellbeing examined by each segment are analyzed.

Methods and material

Our analysis included several steps. First, web-based research was conducted to collect data from spa tourists who visited Hakone between 2013 and 2014. We focused on adult overnight tourists (not students) between the ages of 20 and 60, who resided in the Tokyo Metropolitan area. We asked respondents to answer questions about their motivation for traveling to Hakone. Both “push” and “pull” motivation factors are considered, as seen in the results of Kamata and Misui (2015). The respondents answered using a five-level scale [push motivation: five (expectation) and one (no expectation); pull motivation: five (important) and one (unimportant)]. In addition to motivation items, we asked the tourists for their overall satisfaction level, and the effect on their wellbeing, which is categorized into 10 items. Respondents’ travel profiles (including duration, companion, and expenses) and demographic profile (including gender, age, family status, and educational level) are also ascertained.

Next, segmentation analysis is conducted to divide the tourists into segments. This study uses the factor-cluster analysis. After segmenting the respondents, the socio-demographic and travel profiles of each cluster were developed, and compared using a Chi-square test to find statistical differences among the clusters. This analysis clarified the number of segments and the characteristics of each. After factor-cluster analysis, SEM was conducted to test the relationship between motivations and overall satisfaction, and the effect on wellbeing. We thus analyzed all respondents and each segment.

Results

1) Tourist motivation and segmentation

Seven motivational factors were derived from the factor analysis. Each motivational factor reflected the elements it contained. Relaxation, curiosity, spending time with a companion, and culture are the “push” motivation items. Hot springs, destination, and inn are
the “pull” motivation items. The cluster analysis using these seven motivational factors was applied to three segments. The share of each segment and the average score of each motivational factor are shown in Table 1. The characteristic of each segment was derived by carrying out a Chi-square test that used the demographic and travel profile data. Each segment was named after a characteristic. We summarized each characteristic as follows:

Cluster 1 “Relaxation seekers”: The important factors for this group were the Relax factors. A relatively high proportion of travelers in this cluster listed “Invited by companion” as their reason for travel. The number of repeat visits was also relatively high. These tourists are mainly in their 40s–60s. They tend not to pay for souvenirs.

Cluster 2 “Active tourists”: For these tourists, all the factors were important. They first decided to travel to Hakone, and had a relatively high number of repeat visits. They tended to stay at expensive, favorite inns. These tourists were mainly in their 30s, with a high level of education.

Cluster 3 “Tourists who seek to relax with a companion”: These tourists chose Hakone as their destination to enjoy a relaxed time with a companion using the budget plan of an inn. Most of these travelers were first-time visitors to Hakone. They paid relatively little, and were mainly in their 50s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Cluster analysis results</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sample (number of respondents)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot springs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending time with a companion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Relationship between motivations and overall satisfaction, and the effect on wellbeing

SEM was conducted by Amos. The path figure is shown in Figure 1, and the result is shown in Table 2. The goodness-of-fit of models cannot be considered high by the value of GFI, CFI, and RMSEA. This is included in our future assignments.

From the result, there is seen a positive relationship between overall satisfaction and wellbeing. Wellbeing items also have a positive relation in every model. The coefficients are
different among clusters, and the characteristics of each cluster are reflected. For example, in cluster 1, the coefficient of “relaxing without thinking” is the highest, because tourists in this cluster seek relaxation. The motivational factors that comprised “pull” motivation items were not related to overall satisfaction; hot springs, destination, and inn. In “All” and “CL3,” the factor of curiosity was negatively related to overall satisfaction.

Figure 1. Path figure
Discussion and conclusions

In this study, we segmented Japanese spa tourists by their motivation factors, and tested the relationship between motivation and overall satisfaction, and the effect on wellbeing. Although the goodness-of-fit was low, the results of SEM showed that the relationship between motivation, satisfaction, and the effect on wellbeing differ by segment.

A possible future assignment involves improving goodness-of-fit for models. We should aim to revise the path figure to improve the models.
Acknowledgement
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Asserting the Significance of the Brand Elements in Destination Branding

Stella Kladou  
Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield, UK  
S.Kladou@shu.ac.uk

Eirini Rigopoulou  
Athens University of Economics and Business, Greece

Mihalis Kavaratzis  
University of Leicester, UK

Eleftheria Salonika  
Athens University of Economics and Business, Greece

Introduction
A place brand is completely different from other brands (e.g. Govers and Go, 2009), yet many scholars and most of the practitioners continue to treat place brands as a simple case of conventional branding. Thus, on the one hand, some scholars understand place brands in a static way, ignoring that places are not formed through one-way message transmission and cannot be manipulated. This rather mechanistic approach highlights the importance of the brand elements as a communication vehicle for the identity itself. On the other hand, others recognize place brands as dynamic, multifaceted, complex entities calling for a personalized and experiential approach, rather than declaratory to mass audiences (e.g. Mayes, 2008; Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013).

There are significant indications that place identity construction is a dynamic, complex process (Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013). Thus, brand elements - as identifiers and, at the same time, among the received stimulus by the recipients - are expected to be included in this process with an interactive and dynamic way.

This study aims to contribute to the broader understanding of the role of brand elements in the identity-based approach to place brand theory, according to the dynamics presented in the Hatch and Schulz (2002) model of organizational identity. In fact, the proposed contribution involves the impact of the brand elements on the four processes and behavioural decisions.

Literature review, methods & material
As Hatch and Schultz (2002) argue, the brand is formed at the interplay of culture, image and identity and Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) explain that the brand plays a role in the four processes of expressing, impressing, mirroring and reflecting. We propose that brand elements have an active role to play in all four processes. At the same time, this fourfold role of brand elements also (again partly) determine the brand’s influence on peoples’ behavioural intentions towards the destination. Thus, five relationships between the constructs examined here form the themes under investigation.

Brand elements are key instruments in the sub-process of impressing, which refers to the way in which the brand leaves impressions in peoples’ minds (Orth and Markewitz, 2008). It is considered here that specific brand elements (i.e. the name, logo and tagline) have the power to leave their ‘marks’ on the perceptions people hold of the branded place. These

marks provide the ground for remembering the destination and for holding positive images of it (Parkerson and Saunders, 2005). In order to investigate and ascertain this power of the brand elements, recall and recognition of them will be measured.

Brand elements also help the process of mirroring the images of others, which refers to the ways in which people are affected by what other people think in their evaluations of destination brands (Ruzzier and De Chernatony, 2013). This is best represented in the construct of brand reputation and since reputation is the outcome of the cumulative image, the Forbrum et al. (2000) Reputation Scale will be utilized. The relationship between brand elements and reputation dimensions (visibility, distinctiveness, authenticity, transparency and consistency) has already been demonstrated in the context of an organization (Bosch et al, 2005).

Brand elements are supposed to assist the process of reflecting, which refers to the ways in which the ideas and images of outsiders are incorporated in the destination’s culture and identity (Gnoth, 1998). The attitude parameters according to Henderson and Cote (1998) were chosen as indications to the particular topic. Following socio-cultural understandings of tourism destinations (e.g. Saraniemi and Kylanen, 2011) and in line with Hatch and Schultz’s (2002) ‘full stakeholder’ perspective, we accept here visitors as an integral part of the destination system and therefore treat them as part of the destination’s culture.

Brand elements are also supposed to act as key instruments of expressing the place’s culture and making it known to others. This is a major function of all brand symbolism and it is a role of destination brands that is widely accepted and endorsed in practice. A common branding device, namely the positioning statement was instrumental as the anchor for the destination’s culture and has been utilized in order to examine the capacity and suitability of different brand elements to express cultural understandings.

According to the last proposition, one of the major justifications of all branding efforts and the investment they demand is the potential of the brand to influence the behaviour of consumers. The existing correlation between favourable brand image and behavioural intention is indisputable (Leisen, 2001). When it comes to destinations, the image and brand formation is a complex process, which embodies various messages and their interactivity (Moutinho, 1987) but is also considered to influence visiting intentions. For instance, Kotler and Gertner (2002) assert that the country image influences travel decisions and destination brands are considered important in persuading people to visit certain places (e.g. Morgan et al, 2002). The impact of the place brand elements on behavioural decisions was investigated by addressing direct questions as regard to the intention to revisit and the intention to recommend the destination to others.

Methodology

Greece, a country ranked among the most popular tourist destinations worldwide was used as the referral country for the empirical validation of the study. Given that the evaluation of a logo/brand element is affected by the pre-existing attitudes and relationship toward the brand, the fact that the respondents are already visitors indicates their positive disposition when asked to evaluate the brand. First, the respondents were asked to identify the country-related slogan/tagline/logo they recalled best. Then, they were asked to fill-in a questionnaire designed to explore the above-mentioned themes. The brand elements used in the study were drawn from recent campaigns as developed by the Greek National Tourism Organisation. For pre-testing purposes, the questionnaire was administered to a small group of ten visitors to Greece.

This study differs methodologically from existing literature (e.g. Lee et al. 2012) as it (1) addresses actual visitors, which proves the success of the destination in attracting them and,
therefore, provides a chance to examine the role of brand elements in this success; (2) investigates the relative strength of different elements towards a fixed reference point; and (3) explores the link and assessment of alternative brand elements within the identity-based approach.

A total of 201 questionnaires were selected, compatible size with other studies with a similar topic (Stephens et al., 2011) and SPSS was employed.

**Research and results**

Regarding the relative importance and role among the three examined brand elements, analysis reveals that “name” comes out on top, but all three score at a moderate level. Focusing on the strength of leaving impressions on others, we measured the recall as well as the recognition of the tagline and the respective logo; 96% of the respondents were unable to recall any tagline and 1 to 3 respondents recalled maximum 6 other taglines.

The perceived contribution of each element according to the Reputation dimensions seems to be moderate (Table 1).

| Table 1: The contribution on Reputation [Mean Scores in 5-point Likert scale] |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| NAME | TAGLINE | LOGO |
| Visibility | 3.46 | 3.28 | 3.46 |
| Distinctiveness | **3.48** | **3.34** | 3.45 |
| Authenticity | **3.48** | 3.28 | 3.23 |
| Transparency | 3.17 | 3.03 | 2.94 |
| Consistency | 3.31 | 3.14 | 3.02 |

Each traveller then evaluated one’s first-to-be-recalled brand element (Table 2). The Henderson and Cote (1998) in this case allowed for an evaluation of important attitude parameters.

| Table 2: Evaluation of brand elements [Mean Scores in 7-point semantic scale] |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| NAME | TAGLINE | LOGO |
| Dislike – Like | **5.46** | **5.00** | **5.00** |
| Good – Bad | 5.41 | 4.87 | 4.89 |
| Distinctiveness – Non Distinctiveness | 5.35 | 4.79 | 4.75 |
| Interesting – Not interesting | 5.27 | 4.88 | 4.75 |
| With Quality – W/O Quality | 5.11 | 4.88 | 4.76 |

Finally, we incorporated a positioning statement as the one that best expresses the cultural meanings of Greece. This was presented and read to the participants. Again, findings revealed a moderate relevance with and impact of the 3 brand elements.

Our study empirically supports the view that traits and characteristics of the place are the most influential decision-making factors. The impact of the three most outstanding brand elements (name - tagline – logo) is shown to be relatively low (5-point scale).
### Table 3: Impact on decision-making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>TAGLINE</th>
<th>LOGO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence on destination decision</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination image</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason to revisit</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason to recommend</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This supports the argument that has been made repeatedly in the place branding literature that campaigns and similar tools are not sufficient on their own (see Anholt, 2007; Govers and Go, 2009). Such tools are useful only as reinforcement of a branding effort that concentrates on the whole wide range of elements that combined actually form the place brand (see Kavaratzis, 2004) and incorporates what local residents think and feel (e.g. Lichrou et al, 2010).

### Discussion, conclusions and limitations

This study connects the brand elements with significant, in the brand management literature, constructs (e.g. Reputation and Attitude formation), although limited sample size blocks generalisations. Our research does not consider other macro-perspectives (e.g. the particular politico-economic context is out of its scope), yet confirms the relatively limited impact of the destination brand elements on the visitors’ behavioural decision.

In detail, all three brand elements have an impact mostly on the ‘liking’ aspect, thus on image creation. Destination branding practices may still heavily focus on precisely these elements, even in the country put in the scope (i.e. Greece in the first half of 2015 is planning to invest approximately 10 ml Euros on a new logo and tagline). On the other hand, the study offers adequate proof of the need to move destination branding beyond the design of slogans and promotional campaigns and towards different directions. It also provides support for the identity-based view of place branding examined in the first part of this paper.

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Tourism Experience - Service Experience

Henna Konu
University of Eastern Finland, Centre for Tourism Studies
Savonlinna, Finland
henna.konu@uef.fi

Abstract

It is noted that tourism is highly experiential service industry. Tourism studies have included approaches from different disciplines to examine the tourism experience and tourist experience, and several conceptual analysis are made about them. However, there have been only a little discussions about tourism experience as a service experience. Hence this will be the aim of this study.

The concept ‘service experience’ is connected to the utilisation and consumption of services and it may refer to process or to the outcome of the service i.e. customer value. A customer will have a service experience regardless of the type of service (s)he is consuming, but the nature of the service experience can differ in relation to what type of service is consumed.

Tourism services are regarded experiential and complex services. A tourism service product differs from several other services because the duration of the service experience is longer, as the experience of the overall tourism product comes from a set of service modules and encounters. The tourism (service) experience is an individual experience that includes the personal experience of the service process that leads to the experience of the outcome of the service. The experience may afford the consumer various consumption values and it may also include extraordinary and ordinary experiences. This study argues that it is crucial to recognize the special characteristics of a tourism experience and include process and outcome aspects of the experience concept when tourism services are developed.
How Tourists Use Nature? The Case of Great Masurian Lakes, Poland

Sylwia Kulczyk
University of Warsaw, Department of Tourism Geography and Recreation
Warsaw, Poland
skulczyk@uw.edu.pl

Marta Derek
University of Warsaw, Department of Tourism Geography and Recreation
Warsaw, Poland

Małgorzata Kowalczyk
Institute of Spatial Management and Housing
Warsaw, Poland

Edyta Woźniak
Polish Academy of Sciences, Space Research Centre
Warsaw, Poland

Introduction

It is commonly perceived that humans’ contact with nature is one of the ways to achieve a high quality of life (MacKerron, Mourato 2013; Gilbert, Abdullah 2004). Tourism opportunities that appear thanks to environmental diversity and quality can be concerned as a benefit that nature supports to human beings (MEA 2005).

In Poland, the Great Masurian Lakes, situated in north-eastern part of the country, are considered to be a tourist destination possessing high natural values. Although previous research reported that contact with nature is regarded as important by tourists visiting the region (Kulczyk 2010), the majority of tourist infrastructure as well as tourist traffic is concentrated in a few bigger towns of the region. This pattern is of course infrastructurally conditioned (e.g. transport network), but nevertheless induces questions about the importance of nature for tourists and their well-being.

Literature review

Spatial relations are essential in geographical research. There are two areas of research that need to be combined to describe people-nature spatial interrelations: mapping of nature/landscape suitability (supply side) and analysing visitors’ mobility (demand side). However, the level of development of this two areas remains unequal. Nature suitability assessment methods are well developed, with Recreation Suitability Mapping and Landscape Potential concept being implemented all over the world (e.g. Gül, Örücü, Karaca 2006; Willemen et al. 2008). On the other hand a deficiency of data on tourists’ mobility and preferences is reported to be an important impediment to the assessment of spatial patterns of tourism and recreation (Lew, McKercher, 2006; Tran, Ralston, 2006). On a general scale it is possible to assess functions of nature and its benefit to tourism using national statistics and general reports on people preferences (Paracchini et al. 2014). For more detailed studies obtaining field data on tourists’ mobility is indispensable. Such studies are the most frequently conducted within protected areas or in cities, where the limited area makes tourism monitoring easier (Shoval, Isaacson, 2007; Kajala et al., 2007). The resulting studies describe that the patterns of nature-tourist interrelations depend mostly on the level of
familiarity with the area (Kaltermborn, Wiliams 2002), the form of activity (Schmitz, Aranzabal, Pineda 2007) and the personality type (Beeco et al. 2013). They are also deeply rooted in tourists’ culture and their background (Stedman et al. 2007).

This paper aims at analysing how tourists use nature in Poland’s greatest lakeland, the Great Masurian Lakes. It is a very well-known tourist region in Poland and clean natural environment is its most important attraction. We will focus on tourists’ activities and, hence, on identifying those features of nature that are essential for them. Therefore, the main research questions are:

- How much is nature important to tourists and their activities?
- What are the patterns of tourists’ nature-based activities?

Methods and material

There are several methods that allow to describe tourists’ spatial activities, such as surveys (see for example Ritchie, Burns, Palmer 2005), self-mapping (e.g. Gimblett et al., 2003) and GPS tracking (e.g. Beeco, Hallo, Brownlee 2014). Previous pilot research proved, however, that tourists are not familiar with maps and have problems with using them. It is difficult to use GPS tracking in research concerning a lot of different activities as well as in large, open spaces. Therefore, an approach based on on-site surveying tourists was used. As Wall Reinius (2011) points out, questionnaires are widely used for collecting data on tourists in nature areas. A total of 516 interviews were conducted with tourists in 9 places throughout the whole area. In order to adequately assess the place-specific activities of tourists a survey was conducted in the centres of the municipalities, in front of convenience stores (or small supermarkets, if there were any). We assumed that every tourist, no matter if he is a sailor or a leisure tourist, has to purchase food and drink, from time to time at least. Filter questions were used in the beginning of each survey to sort out respondents who were not eligible to take part in the survey (like local inhabitants or people whose stay in the region was not connected to tourism or leisure). Deliberately, the survey was not conducted in tourist centres, tourist accommodation facilities, marinas, or any other tourist establishments, in order to avoid any particular activity having an undue influence (because it is obvious that we can expect sailors or other tourists interested in water-based activities to be found in marinas or near the shores of a lake, and leisure tourists in hotels, etc.). In this way we tried to get a sample as reliable as possible in terms of representativeness of the activities undertaken by tourists. The survey was carried out in two weekends and two different working days in the summer of 2014, in the morning, during the day and in the evening, simultaneously in all 9 locations. The survey was conducted in Polish language as Poles constitute the main group of the region’s visitors. Before this survey a pre-survey was made by interviewing 50 tourists in 4 biggest towns to ensure that the questionnaire was complete, clear, and reliable.

The questionnaire contained sections dealing with general questions about the visit (such as travel reasons, length of stay, accommodation), very detailed questions about what activities and where exactly were undertaken during staying in the region, a question concerning an importance of different values of the region for a tourist, as well as questions about respondents’ socio-demographic background. Tourists were also asked to evaluate the area’s key characteristic landscapes presented on 10 different photographs. Finally, data were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) to make calculations and statistical analyses and ArcGIS programs to visualize where visitors declared undertaking the activities.

Results
Applying the approach outlined above, we expected to find out what are the most important activities undertaken by tourists visiting the Great Masurian Lakes. The first step in analysing the quantitative data was a frequency analysis. It appeared that swimming in a lake or in a river, walking and sunbathing/picnicking were the most popular activities (they were declared as “undertaken often and very often” by 76%, 62% and 55% of the respondents, respectively). The group of tourists who participated in water sports was also quite large - 45% of the respondents declared they were engaged in one of the following activities either often or very often: sailing, kayaking, scuba-diving, windsurfing, using a boat or a pedalo, or doing motorboat sports. 82% took part in one of these pursuits at least once during their stay.

As it can be seen, respondents declared they had been undertaking nature-based activities to a large degree. Consequently, when they were asked to indicate factors that were important for their well-being in the region, they pointed out a proximity to water and forests as well as a distance from human settlements. The least important factor was a cultural and entertainment offer. Therefore, we can conclude that tourists spending their time in the Great Masurian Lakes not only need nature in order to undertake their favourite activities, but they also appreciate its values.

The next step is to look at the places where respondents declared they were undertaking these activities. Using spatial analysis we expect to find out to what extent these places concentrated near human settlements, or, on the contrary, in the “real wilderness”. Maps based on the geographical information given by the respondents will be prepared and analysed.

Another important factor to verify is the declared place of stay (accommodation) of the respondents. As mentioned earlier, tourist facilities are concentrated mostly in a few bigger towns of the region. However, there are a number of small cottages or guesthouses located in the natural environment. We can also assume that there would be a number of tourists who sleep in their tents or on their yachts in the outdoors away from provided accommodation. An analysis of the exact locality of the accommodation will be conducted in order to discover how many respondents stayed in towns and how many of them preferred places closer to nature.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

The paper examines how tourists use nature in Poland’s largest lakeland. In particular it proves what nature-based activities are carried out by tourists and where. It verifies tourists’ practices in one specific region. Therefore, the scope of the interpretation of the presented findings is limited to this area. However, encounters between nature and humans, practices of tourists in the natural environment and a question of how much nature is in nature-based tourism still remain unclear and requires more research. This study aims at answering some of these questions using the case of the Great Masurian Lakes.

**References**


Consequences of Introducing Eco Labels- and Schemes to Tourism Accommodations: Is Social Responsibility Inducing Value Co-creation?

Sonja Sibila Lebe  
Borut Milfelner  
University of Maribor, Faculty of Economics and Business  
sonjasibila.lebe@guest.arnes.si

Introduction  
When talking about the service dominant logic (SDL) concept, which Vargo and Lusch developed in 2004 we are focusing on the interaction between customers (in our case tourists) and organizations. This paradigm caused the shift of the focal point from value creation towards value co-creation. This means that during the value creation process not only the service provider creates value: tourists themselves contribute their active part in service co-creation, too. This is not all: Vargo and Lusch (2008) also state that value is co-created through joint efforts of firms, employees, customers, stakeholders, government agencies, and other entities related to any given exchange, but is always determined by the beneficiary who, in most cases, is represented as customer. We are thus talking about a very complex system of interactions and interdependencies that can only be managed with joint and coordinated actions of all parties involved. Frow and Payne (2011) brought understanding of this new paradigm to the point, calling for a more holistic approach inside the SDL. They stressed that value generation occurs as co-creation between various stakeholders, acting as a value alignment mechanism within the marketing system.

The point we intend to illuminate in this paper results from this paradigm shift to co-creation: we are discussing some of its consequences in the field of social responsibility (SR).

We argue that the next shift in thinking/perception actually occurs as its logical consequence – yet has not been discussed/made conscious until now, namely: modifying creation into co-creation automatically means modifying responsibility into shared responsibility.

Amongst many service activities that can add value to tourists, several aspects of SR have been proposed and researched. CSR (corporate social responsibility) activities proved to have the potential of creating stronger relationships between firms and stakeholders (Peloza and Shang 2011). In some cases, small hotel guests’ value perception was higher when introducing social responsible practices (Zupan and Milfelner 2014). However, tourism providers are often uncertain about the value of CSR, despite the existing proves that innovation towards more SR can represent a mean how to add value and augment the firm’s competitiveness (Štrukelj and Šuligoj 2014). An enterprise has several possibilities how to demonstrate its SR, among others e.g. to undergo a certification process for an independent and renown sustainability certificate- or scheme. The earned eco-label signals to the customers that they are buying services/products from enterprises that try harder than the average to reduce their negative impacts on the environment, and that they are actively complying with sustainability matters. Some best-known examples in Europe are the EU Ecolabel for holiday accommodations (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/ecolabel), the Scandinavian “Nordic Swan” (www.nordic-ecolabel.org) or the “Bio Hotels” in German speaking countries (www.biohotels.info).

Some authors are investigating the role of introduced socially responsible practices in tourism on value creation (e.g. Caruana et al., 2014; Lo and Lee, 2011; Andereck, 2009).
However, the way how specific activities implemented by the suppliers who are applying SR concepts (such as eco-labels and schemes) can contribute to tourists’ perceived value has not been addressed sufficiently, since past research has mainly dealt with general measurement of overall value perception of tourism services that included SR elements.

Intending to fill this gap at least partly, we decided to test several issues of socially responsible practices such as eco-labels and schemes. We presume that the results are of interest to researchers and to practitioners when they are addressing the topic of introducing social responsibility measures in tourism accommodations.

First, several studies concerning services that included social responsibility (SR) dimensions show that the perceived value and its outcomes (e.g. service quality, satisfaction, loyalty) are high, but it is unknown, in which way SR praxis (such as eco-labels and schemes) add and create value in the co-creation processes.

Second, until now it is unknown how the part of value added that results from introducing SR-measures into accommodation operations is influencing the perceived quality and the overall satisfaction.

Therefore, the main purpose of our research was to conduct a two-fold qualitative and quantitative research on a sample of eco-certified tourism accommodation providers (TAP), all offering wellness services, and their customers (tourists) in order to illuminate the role of value creation activities in value perception.

![Figure 1: Scheme: Impact of social responsibility measures on guest satisfaction](image)

Our analysis addresses several aspects of social responsibility (SR) that are included in different segments of the EU Ecolabel criteria. We can consider the latter as the proof of enterprise’s SR (Lebe and Vrečko 2014). Such analysis, which to our knowledge has not yet been addressed in the literature, can provide several guidelines for TAP when they are in the process of introducing eco labels and schemes, and related SR services.

**Literature review and hypotheses development**

Service providers usually search to add value primarily for the benefits of higher sales and higher profitability. In order to be successful in doing so, it is important to consider the entire value chain and to understand that perceived value in tourism is interrelated with
other concepts, such as service quality perception and satisfaction. Higher perceived quality usually leads to perceived value, since perceived quality is the customer's overall subjective assessment of service superiority (Zeithaml, 1988). In order to achieve the creation and co-creation of value, TAP have to address the problem of how to deliver quality services, and how perceived quality services would influence the satisfaction. The latter is important when their aim is achieving higher sales levels and higher market shares (that usually result in higher profitability for the service providers). Therefore, we presume that one of the important service provider's reasons for introducing an eco-label/scheme is the expected result in form of a higher tourists’ perceived value.

Some qualitative research outside the field of tourism has shown in what way the SR can contribute to the customer value (e.g. Peloza and Shang, 2011) – yet this is not the only element that has to be taken into consideration. It is sometimes hard to distinguish which element of the services is contributing to the overall value creation, especially when several stakeholders are involved. In order to get a closer insight, we focus primarily on tourists’ perceived benefits and sacrifices. The value judgement is defined as the customers' assessment of the value that has been created for them; it represents the result of trade-offs between all relevant benefits and sacrifices in the given specific situation (Ulaga and Chacour, 2001). In our research we examine both dimensions that are important in the process of services delivery (for example in the process of energy saving, water saving, in waste separation measures, etc.). Perceived sacrifices are important since some studies show that even people who actively engage in environmental protection during their daily activities engage in negative SR practices during their vacation (Juvan and Dolincar, 2014). This means that some SR praxis can be perceived as different forms of strains and burdens, and as such as sacrifices. We therefore propose the first hypothesis:

**H1: Services upgraded with SR measures (implemented due to obtained eco-labels and schemes) create value in the co-creation processes.**

Concerning the perceived value effects, multiple dimensions of perceived value (e.g. functional, emotional and overall value) are known to influence the tourists’ satisfaction. Empirical results in- and outside the tourism sector give indications that higher perceived satisfaction is a result of perceived value (e.g. Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Satisfaction in times leads to higher customer loyalty, and, when services are concerned, to positive “word of mouth” communication. Our second hypothesis is therefore based on linking the consumer’s positive experience, gained from benefits, and their intention to behave based on this eco-experience in the future socially responsibly.

**H2: Perceived benefits related to eco-labelled/certified services are positively related to tourists’ satisfaction and their intentions to behave socially responsibly in the future.**

**Methodology**

According to the set goals, we organised the research in the fall of 2014 and in the first seven months of 2015. We divided it into three steps: analyses of the supply side, analyses of the demand side, and analyses of the local environment (only in rural areas). At this moment, the first step is completed, the second one is ongoing, and the third one is planned for autumn/winter 2015.

The first step consisted of conducting semi-structured in-depth interviews with six wellness accommodation providers in Slovenia (thus the supply side) and was completed in the fall of 2014. All properties included into this research were either eco-certified or have already entered the certification process for the EU Ecolabel for tourism accommodations (EU-ETA) and were close to completing it and being licenced. This phase had three goals:
Find out major motives why the accommodation has decided to apply for the EU-ETA,
Determine the evolution in CSR-behaviour in the property after attaining the EU-ETA, taking into consideration several viewpoints: providers’, customers’, and the one of the local population, and
Investigate the accommodations’ plans for the future, mainly in the field of marketing, as seen through the lens of CSR.

In the second step, we collected information from tourists who were staying in the six accommodations that we included into the research. We developed a structural questionnaire and used it on a representative sample of tourists who booked the abovementioned accommodations. The selected factors were aligned with those providers’ delivery package elements for which we expected to be important in the value co-creation process. We addressed four major groups of topics:

Importance of factors influencing the decision to book an eco-accommodation (seasonal fruits/vegetables supply from local producers, organic food availability in the accommodation, natural materials used by construction and furnishing, eco-certificate, offering healthy stay, eco-friendly behaviour/eco awareness of the staff, SR);
Perceived value factors, which we divided into two major clusters:
Possible sacrifices: active participation in energy saving measures, water saving measures, waste separation, hazardous waste delivery, charity collection activities;
Possible benefits: perceived added value due to accommodation’s eco-certificate; organic food and beverages consumption; healthy surroundings; use of environmental- and human-friendly cleaning agents; locally gained/produced artefacts and products available for purchase on accommodation grounds; cooperation with the local community; wellness programmes based at least partly on ecology; counselling guests on healthy ways of life, and workshops on ecology topics.
Perceived service quality (factors influencing the decision to book an eco-accommodation);
Overall satisfaction with delivered services, and
Intentions to behave socially responsibly in the future.

The content validity of the developed measurement instrument was addressed with the help of two academics from the field of tourism marketing research. Additionally, we tested the convergent validity of the scales with the exploratory factor analysis, and the reliability with the Cronbach alpha calculation. The Hypothesis 1 is tested using the descriptive comparative analysis between benefits and sacrifices. The Hypothesis 2 is tested within the multiple regression models assessing the interrelationships between the tourists’ perceived benefits related to eco-labels and schemes services, perceived quality related to eco-labels/schemes services, and tourists’ overall satisfaction. In addition, the mediating influences between three constructs will be tested using the methodology proposed by Preacher and Hayes (2008).

This paper is limited to the analyses of the demand side only (step 2 of the research) due to space limitation (not to exceed the usual length of a paper).

Discussion and Conclusions

As this research is still underway, in this abstract, we can only list our expectations regarding the results. Within the results (gained during the opinion poll), we intend to concentrate on perceived value deriving from social responsibility and eco-friendliness of

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2 The opinion poll is still under go in the time of setting up the abstract for the paper.
some selected wellness accommodations in Slovenia that hold the EU Ecolabel for tourism accommodations.

We expect the results to:
Confirm/refute our hypothesis, and to be additionally able to
Suggest distinguished profiles of guests visiting eco-accommodations, and
Gain deeper insights of the fact that tourists are not only co-creating the service they are consuming, but also taking a share of social responsibility for the service consumption.

We also expect to be able to detect a segment of tourists who can be distinguished for their SR concern from the average, and much more from tourists who do not accept (no matter for which reason) their part of social responsibility.

We suggest introducing the term “social responsibility literacy”, and to start talking about socially responsible or social responsibility mature tourists as of individuals who consciously and actively participate in SR measures (no matter whether they are at home or whether they live in a tourist accommodation).

To our knowledge, this point has not been tested and discussed from this point of view before; this paper thus brings new cognitions and represents a contribution to new knowledge building in the field.

**References**


Engaging with nature: A Japanese approach to co-creating nature based tourism experiences

Young-Sook Lee
UiT The Arctic University of Norway
young-sook.lee@uit.no

Nina Prebensen
HBV, Buskerud and Vestfold University College / UiT The Arctic University of Norway

Introduction
This paper contributes to our understanding of East Asian ways of co-creating tourism experiences in nature based attractions. Recent studies suggest that nature base experiences in the fast growing East Asian markets should not be viewed as an replica of Euro-Western or homogeneous experiences. ‘Shengtai luyou’ in China may be analogue to Western ecotourism where the meaning of nature, practice of tourism as well as governmental policy framework reflect Chinese culture and social characteristics (Buckley, Cater, Linsheng, & Chen, 2008). Lee, Weaver & Lawton (2013) identify a South Korean form of ecotourism where the society’s indigenous cultural philosophies provide the backbone of the meaning and practice of the South Korean form of nature based tourism experiences. Following the lead of these researchers, the present work researches the meaning of nature by Japanese nature based attraction visitors. It is important to recognized emic approach to cultural positions and its wider implications in tourist behavior (Watkins & Gnoth, 2011). Considering that tourism experiences are an all-encompassing interactions among many players such as tour operators, destinations, activities and tourists themselves (Prebensen, Vittersø & Dahl, 2013), the concept of service dominant logic (Penaloza & Venkatesh, 2006) is increasingly viewed relevant in tourism studies.

Connecting the these relevant arenas together, the present paper serves as a departure point to explore Japanese tourists engagement with nature through by understanding their meaning of nature. Thus, this study takes an emic approach to understanding Japanese tourist market. It subsequently hopes to contribute to the unraveling of the intricate processes of co-creating tourist experiences by the Japanese market.

Literature review
Service dominant logic and the significance of tourists’ position and role in creating and co-creating their experiences constitute theoretical foundation in this paper. Vargo & Lush (2004) suggest a shift in the view of the customers’ role in production and consumption practices, including the primary unite of exchange, the determination and meaning of value, the role of the customer, the nature of the firm-customer interactions and the source of economic growth. The change from a product-centric logic to a new service-dominant logic include an emphasis on intangible services, value as perceived and determined by the consumer in use as benefits of specialized knowledge and skills they label as operant resources. The customer is further delineated as co-creator of the service, and wealth obtained in the form of economic capital from consumers to firms in the application and exchange of operant resources by consumers and firms. With this theoretical perspective as foundation, Penaloza & Venkatesh (2006) suggest a paradigmatic shift from marketing techniques and concepts to markets as a social construction. Their argument is composed of six facets, in which the one deals with “revisioning the creation of value in markets to include meanings” and another “addressing more explicitly cultural differences between nations in
level of development” (Penaloza & Venkatesh, 2006: 299), both in which is fundamental underpinnings for the present paper.

As the capacity of the East Asian market headed by China is proven to be the fastest growing market by 2020, tourism practitioners and researchers have been investing their work on better understanding the growing market of East Asian tourists. Before the year 2000, Asia as a whole in relation to nature based tourism was a place to be visited by international (largely Western) tourists, thus main discussions in the region were more on product development or adopting Western practices for a better provision of tourist experiences to Western tourists (Lew, 1996; Dowling, 1997). From the turn of the new century, however, debates have emerged on the Asian form of ecotourism where Weaver (2002) argues that distinct form of Asian ecotourism exist albeit influences from the West would be strong. Another view on Asian ecotourism suggests that ecotourism that we know of is indeed a Western construct and Asian practice of ecotourism-relevant activities need to be researched (Cater, 2006).

More recently, studies demonstrate distinct forms of ecotourism in China (Buckley, Cater, Linsheng, & Chen, 2008) and in South Korea (Choo, & Jamal, 2009; Lee, Lawton, & Weaver, 2012; Lee & Mjelde, 2007). On Japanese market, importance of tour guides in ecotourism was highlighted, linking this phenomenon to the country’s tourism policy framework (Yamada, 2011). In tourism, where the experiences are co-created through interactions between the service providers and tourists (Prebensen, Vittersø & Dahl, 2013), recognizing the tourists’ departure point in terms of - what nature means to the tourists - is an essential element for tourism industry and researchers alike. Taking this line of research enquiry further, the current paper researches on one specific East Asian nature tourist market: Japan.

Specific research question addressed in the papers is `what is the meaning of nature to Japanese tourists who visit nature based attractions?’. From this study, we may advance the current understanding of East Asian nature based tourists market. This can further contribute to learning the Japanese ways of co-creating experiences in the nature based tourism context.

Methods & materials

With the defined research area and the research question, this paper employs an open-ended survey method. A nature based attractions near Tokyo has been chosen to approach and solicit the visitors to participate in the open ended question survey. Due to time constraints of the visitors during their nature based attraction experience on their weekend, an open-ended survey was deemed more appropriate than an in-depth interview approach. Over 150 participants in the nature based attraction provided their meaning of nature when they visit such an attraction.

Content analysis of the responses are employed for this paper as the paper aims to identify Japanese indigenous interpretation/meaning of nature, which may influence their ways of interacting with nature hence co-creation of their nature based experience. Data coding has been conducted, following three steps by Corbin & Strauss, 1990) for qualitative data coding practices. This coding was to ensure the underlying principle of this study is to understand from the data generated rather than imposing a structured framework on the collected data (Glaser & Strauss, 2009). In order to enhance validity and credibility of the analysis result, researcher triangulation (Miles & Huberman, 1985; 1994) was performed.
Research and results
Main results expected in the paper are the meaning of nature from Japanese perspective. The results can serve as the ground for establishing Japanese ways of interacting and co-creating experiences in nature based attractions.

Discussion and conclusions
The findings from the current paper are expected to contribute in two ways to the existing body of knowledge. First, they provide the ground for establishing Japanese meaning of nature in the context of tourism, possibly reflecting the society’s cultural and historical influences to the notion. Secondly, the theoretical ground can be further related to the ways, in which Japanese tourists co-create their nature based tourism experiences. It is also expected that the findings may contribute to the tourism industry their efforts to design and provide nature based tourism experiences to Japanese visitors.

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Value Co-creation in Re-branding Tourism Destinations - A Case Study from Two Tourism Business Networks

Arja Lemmetyinen
Tanja Lepistö
Kati Suomi
Lenita Nieminen
Turku School of Economics at the University of Turku, Pori Unit, Finland
arinle@utu.fi

Introduction

The evolution and shift in logic according to which brand construction and branding constitute a collaborative, value-co-creation activity among firms (Merz & Vargo, 2009) and destinations with all their stakeholders motivated the research undertaken for this study. A destination can be defined as a set of institutions and actors located in a physical or virtual space where marketing-related transactions and activities take place challenging the traditional production and consumption dichotomy (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011). In our view, actors focusing on the co-creation of a destination brand constitute a tourism business network, defined by Lemmetyinen (2010, 20) as an intentional network of firms engaged in activities and controlling resources in connection with other actors.

In competitive global environments, places and regions need to maintain and develop their distinctiveness by amalgamating images, identities and resources into coherent visitor experiences under a common brand (Richards, 2011). According to service-dominant logic (SDL), customers, employees and other actors become effective and efficient resource integrators in value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; 2008). The focus is on service systems, defined as a configuration of customer and service-provider resources that support and guide the value co-creation that results in customer experience (Payne et al., 2008). All value creation is co-creational, and service providers and customers always act as co-creators (Vargo & Lusch, 2004; Grönroos, 2012). Shaw et al. (2011) stress the need for tourism management to join the wider debate within the mainstream management literature applying S-D logic in this context.

We adopt Perks et al. (2012, 2) definition of co-creation as the joint creation of value by a firm and its network of entities, including customers, suppliers and distributors. In our study these entities are members of tourism business networks. Direct interaction among the co-creating parties is essential for value co-creation to happen (Grönroos, 2011; Grönroos & Ravald, 2011).

The tourism industry is characterized by high-contact services (Grissermann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). Studies on value co-creation in the tourism business (Chathoth et al., 2013; FizPatrick et al., 2013; Cabbidu et al., 2013) emphasize the role of co-production and co-creation (Shaw et al., 2010). Sørensen and Jensen (2015) point out the particular limitations of service encounters in tourism concerning the potential for knowledge development and value creation. Changing them into experience encounters would overcome these barriers and further enhance the potential for innovation, highlighting the need in the industry to “reframe business to respond to competition, new market conditions, and customer requirements” (Edvardsson & Enquist, 2009; Edvardsson et al., 2011). Hankinson and Lomax (2006) mention that re-branding is about real change in the organization and its values.
Value co-creation stemming from the cultural heritage of a destination and specific local needs is the key element in community building, particularly in the context of tourism entrepreneurship. In this framework branding signals the identity of a learning environment. (Lemmetyinen & Go, 2010.) Recent literature calls for the development of practices for collaborating with partners (Barczak, 2012) and extending the co-creation to include more stakeholders (Frow et al., 2015). We aim to identify the processes that enhance the distinctive branding of a region by analysing the prerequisites for building a brand for wellbeing tourism - “an entity including diverse products and services aiming to promote and maintain holistic wellbeing” (Konu, 2010, 42; http://www.visitfinland.com.) Recent studies on tourism and the creative economy also emphasize the need for cross-sector collaboration and convergence to stimulate innovation and development (OECD, 2014).

Methods and data

The study analyses the value-creation processes among entrepreneurs, public-sector agencies and other collaborators in two cases located in rural Finland. For three years two of the authors followed the cases in their attempts to re-brand their offerings as wellbeing destinations, thus enhancing understanding of changes in value-creation processes (Ring and Van de Ven, 1992). The first case, the Ironworks Village, has a rich industrial history and architectural value. The ironworks was founded in the late 15th century and has been in the hands of one of Finland’s oldest family businesses since the 1860s. The company still owns most of the historic buildings and offers guest services in the Ironworks Village. The municipality coordinates the network of service providers and has launched a project to develop wellbeing services to attract new residents and tourists to the area. The second case is a small country spa and resort founded in 2008 by an architect who was fascinated by the cultural heritage of this historic Villa Area. She and her husband bought an old villa built in 1860 and renovated it to become a spa and their private home. The site dates back to the 1850s and is among the best preserved villa areas in Finland. The Spa entrepreneur’s vision is to offer customers experiences of life as it used to be, with servants, gardeners and chauffeurs. Although good at networking, she does not belong to any communities or networks creating value for her service provision. The two cases are likely to replicate or extend the emergent theory of value co-creation in re-branding tourism destinations (cf. Eisenhardt, 1989). Our choice (cf. Yin, 2003) is justified given the expectation that the two analyses would enhance understanding of more cases (Stake, 1998). The data was collected from participative observation (cf. Tedlock, 2000); in-depth interviews (cf. Riessman, 2004), policy documents and web sites. The following research questions comprised the sub-goals of the study: 1) What are the perceived benefits that motivate members of a tourism business network to form a common brand? 2) What are the perceived risks that keep actors from participating in a coordinated network brand?

Research and Results

The first aim of the study was to identify the perceived benefits of forming a common brand in a tourism business network. Strong municipal support has been a lifeline for the micro-entrepreneurs in the Ironworks Village in terms of strengthening the relationships between the actors. The big company’s role as initiator and coordinator has enhanced the joint re-branding as a wellbeing destination. The second aim was to identify the perceived risks that kept actors away from the coordinated network brand. The re-branding work started in the late 1990s but stopped partly due to personnel changes at the big company, which owns most of the buildings in the area. With regard to the Villa Area, the City has shown no interest in revitalizing its old (cultural) history, and the regional DMO sees no value in re-

branding. Without support from these local institutions the spa entrepreneur will have to find partners and private investors who share her values and vision of the area’s cultural heritage if she is to brand it as a well-being destination.

Discussion

Our preliminary results show that co-creation motives among network members are connected to their belief in the benefits of the brand. There is an apparent need to make the network participants’ outcomes (VAI decision making and outcomes) more visible and thus more likely to be perceived as rewards rather than risks (e.g., Lemmetyinen and Go, 2010). Given that the two empirical cases represent (cultural) tourism, the results may not be directly relevant to other industry sectors. Stakeholders in the field could nevertheless benefit from the best practices.

References


www.visitfinland.com

The opportunities for cultural tourism development in Canada - case of St. Jacobs, Ontario, Canada (co-creation experience with a local community)

Marica Mazurek, MSc, PhD. candidate
University of Matej Bel Banská Bystrica, Slovakia
marica0011@yahoo.ca

INTRODUCTION

The tourism marketing strategies are becoming more sophisticated because the tourists expect a spectrum of different experiences and tourism products while visiting destinations. Community investment into the business of culture is important for the improvement of sense of a place and marketing. A majority of marketing principles that have to be recognized by successful tourism destinations represent the main components of the product marketing mix, for example the marketing of the special “terroir” of destination (place), determining of the main attractions of the core products defining in the destination’s main cultural product offer. People and knowledge potential of a region, belong to the crucial leading factors of competitiveness. Cultural tourism, which relies on highly educated and skilled labor due to the educational content, depends on the marketing tool “people”. For this reason, it is crucial not only to educate people, but also to create their relationship and attachment to the destination and willingness to co-operate and be a part of the product offer. However, there might be specific obstacles in a community based on the different cultural or religious background. For this reason, even the best prepared marketing and branding strategies can fail due to the insensitive commodification of a place. St. Jacobs in Ontario, Canada is a good example of a sensitive approach to cultural tourism in a combination with a rural and agritourism. The purpose of this case study and research is to point out at the possibilities of development of cultural tourism in culturally sensitive places and to build an attractive cultural product, e.g. to preserve a sustainable environment and apply marketing principles. Nowadays, in tourism development is crucial to apply the principles of ethics and this example might be one of good practices in the world.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The success of place-based development through place branding is based on the combination of the cultural atmosphere and natural environment of a place. Place-based development through place branding is aimed at increasing the quality and attractiveness of a place, creating a unique identity and image for a place and making connections between people living in a place. The place identities are highly dependent on the place and people living in a place and influence the images of a place. For these reasons, forming of uniquely appealing place characteristics, as well as connections between visitors and the place should be central in the place-based development strategy. In this concept culture is crucial for the comparative advantage. Mc Kercher and du Cros (2002) defined cultural tourism as visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific, or lifestyle/heritage offerings of the community, region, group, or institution. Creative tourism is a development of cultural tourism but goes a step further, encouraging participation, not simply observation. "Creative tourism involves learning a skill on holiday that is part of the culture of the country or community being visited. Creative tourists develop their creative potential, and get closer to local people, by actively

participating in workshops and learning experiences that draw on the culture of their holiday destinations” (www.creativetourism.co.nz/index). In some cases to become a part of local community could be difficult. One of the obstacles could be a distinctive cultural group of people who cannot be forced to be a part of that tourism product. There might be some rules how to involve such communities, respectively to create them the conditions, which could be culturally friendly. Wall and Matthieson (2006) mentioned a research of Affeld (1975, p. 109) dealing with the cultural impacts of tourism on the tourist, the host and mentioned the tourist-host interrelationships. The authors also mentioned the studies dealing with the impacts of tourism on creation of different political, religious, cultural problems (among the mentioned authors by Wall and Matthieson, 2006 were for instance the authors Jafari, 1974, Ryan, 1993, McKercher and du Cros (2002), Jaffari (2001). These impacts could be based on different reasons as Wall and Matthieson (2006) mentioned, for instance traditions, religious beliefs, customs, lifestyles, dress codes, attitude against strangers. For this reason a creation of a place product offer in some destinations might be challenging and requires an enormous knowledge of local environment and sensitive place branding and marketing practices. Wall and Mathieson (2006), Go and Govers (2009) mentioned a danger of commodification and staged authenticity, which both means a loss of authenticity. Go and Govers (2009) also mentioned the idea of Dietvorst and Ashworth (1995, p. 7) that the extent by which the identity of place is experienced and to what degree places are authentic. In order to protect a community and to preserve the authenticity, Murphy (1985) argues that “tourism relies on the goodwill and cooperation of local people because they are part of its product” (p. 153).

Local people can create positive environment for tourists or can be a source of tension and stress for tourists and vice versa. Co-creation factor in this relationship is crucial. Tourists can be a reason of creation of negative externalities for local people. Gearing and Swart (1976) classified these negative factors as “production externalities, externalities of consumption, externalities of environmental protection and socio-cultural externalities” (p. 14). In a community, as stated by Singh (2003) “all persons and public and private bodies are affected positively and negatively by the impacts of tourism development. People’s participation through power sharing, social cohesion and knowledge enhancement is very important in community development” (p. 19).

METHODS AND MATERIALS

A case study dealing with cultural tourism examples, which has been collected in the primary research (personal experience during 4 years of study stay and work in Waterloo region) and the secondary research (documents, videos, literature) has been used. Creswell (2007) describes a case study as cases bounded by time and activity and the researcher collects detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time, involving multiple sources of information rich in context to understand the phenomenon. He states that a case study is a strategy of inquiry that allows researchers to explore in-depth a program, event, process or one or more individuals.

Smith (2010) considers case studies as designed to offer ‘deep’ insights, including conclusions based on the context of the topic being studied, and involves the use of multiple methods and data sources. The author (ibid, 2010) stresses the importance of case studies for the rich understanding of interest and deeper insights into the phenomenon under study, which cannot be achieved through other methods. Three possible approaches are familiar in case studies and Stake (2005) recognized intrinsic, instrumental and multiple case study design. The discussed case study could be categorized as intrinsic due to a fact that it provides a space to learn about a phenomenon, to understand it and this is a main purpose of a study, e.g. to understand a case without testing a theory.
In order to pursue this goal, our advantage is to be able to participate at several excursions and study trips in St. Jacobs and to participate at classes with experts in tourism community development, tourism marketing and cultural tourism at the University Waterloo, Canada. The case study is based on several discussions and personal interviews with academics, personal observations and discussion with local people and business representatives as well as employees of businesses in St. Jacobs (stores, farmer market representatives), visits of St. Jacobs and personal experience. The existence of several academic research studies, which have been also studied, contributed to the knowledge of problematic and cultural milieu (Dahms, 1991; Mitchell & de Waal, 1998, 2009; McClinchey & Carmichael, 2010) as well as personal discussions and lectures and visits of St. Jacobs with Prof. Stephen Smith, Waterloo University (now Guelph University in Canada), Prof. Geoffrey Wall from Waterloo University and Prof. Marion Joppe, Guelph University in Canada. In order to support and justify a choice of case study for our research we use the argument of Yin (2003a) who claimed a case study to be “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p. 13). A typical example in tourism and management studies might be the implications of cultural tourism, where different methods and topics could be applied to deal with the commodification of culture, acculturation, empowerment of host communities, globalization, etc. In the future, socially responsible tourism topics will have even more influence on research and practice. For this reason sometimes blending of methods and disciplines is also a good example of a holistic view of the phenomena, as is drawing on results obtained through the lenses of different disciplines, methodologies, cultures, etc. In our case, we decided to look at the problem from the point of view of marketing, management and partially also applied social sciences as history, cultural studies, anthropology, and geography in order to understand a problem with more complexity. The innovative approaches in tourism policy, management, marketing and environmental protection has embraced the need to look at tourism as an activity requiring a more holistic approach. Based on systemic thinking (Mulej's Dialectical System Theory), which has been also explained by Božičnik and Mulej (2008), the synergy of different viewpoints within economic, social, and environmental development (in which tourism development is also embedded) have to be taken into account. Tourism development has to be attained by accepting the rules of socially responsible activity, not only seeing it as a phenomenon of value creation and economic growth.

RESEARCH AND RESULTS

According to Multicultural Canada, in the world live about 1.7 million baptized Mennonites in 83 countries. In Waterloo Region live about 20,000 Mennonites in three main groups, e.g. Old Order, Conservative and Modern. The Old Order Mennonites are a unique culture with own faith and life style. They reject modern life (prefer traveling by horse and buggy) and live on the farms. Visitors to St. Jacobs are interested in rural and especially cultural tourism. They are looking for the opportunity to authentically experience other places, peoples, and cultures. Mennonites' rural history in the area has now become a part of the cultural tourism setting that attracts many visitors each year. Tourism brochures and travel articles about St. Jacobs highlight many examples of built heritage, such as The Village Silos, The Mill, the original Home Hardware, and the West Montrose Covered Bridge (Luke and Durand, 2009). Several critics and academics have warned of the possible loss of heritage and culture through tourism and its commodification. One example comes from the tension in St. Jacobs between the locals and the tourists. Using religion, history, and lifestyle as a tourism attraction can be a difficult and it requires sensitivity and forward-looking planning. Tourism
academics and experts are cautious against tourism development that strays too far from the original culture of the area and allows tourism to overwhelm the culture it is promoting (Mitchell, 2009).

Based on several former studies and discussion results (McClinchey & Carmichael, 2010, Mitchel & de Waal, 1998, 2009, Dahms, 1991), St. Jacobs was originally only a settlement of Mennonites, which is situated in the Waterloo Region in Ontario, Canada. The village is situated very close to the important knowledge triangle of cities Kitchener, Waterloo and Guelph as well as a town Cambridge. St. Jacobs is also not too far from a financial centre of Canada, Toronto and a capital of a province Ontario. Dahms (1991) mentioned that a location to major junction and transportation facilities (Highway 401) and close distance from the Greater Toronto Area was a reason of good connection with markets interested in special cultural places with a distinct Mennonite culture. People who are interested in excellent rural products offered by local farmers and Mennonites as well as in cultural heritage of Mennonite people and clean environment with culinary specialties and family attractions, might be fully satisfied in this small village. St. Jacob is very popular with regular farmer markets, which take place twice a week in the southern part of the village. Market is well known for livestock sale and exchange and visitors have the opportunity to taste local food. Mennonite families participate regularly at these markets and their products bear names of producers (brands of a family). In many cases, they present also pictures of their farms and photos of family members in the stores where they sell their products. The quality of production and a way how they sell products, for instance, in traditional cloth, which is typical for their lifestyle, is very attractive for the buyers. Despite of it, their role is not to become a stage of authenticity or tourism attraction, but it is only their way of life and everyday routine. In branding, very important might be not only to create an image for a destination and brand identity, but to use a special ambassador of a place with a vision to promote a place. In case of St. Jacob this role was fulfilled by a person who was one of Mennonites and his name was Milo Shantz. Milo Shantz was a leader of the livestock exchange business and one of the creator of the Mennonite Visitors Centre.

Another great example of successful development and co-creation among the community and local entrepreneurs was a case of the Mercedes Corporation, which is the owner of 50% of real estate and outlet mall and participate also in Farmer’s Market. It seems to be very important also for this company and local people to be attentive to the Mennonite Story Visitors especially from the point of view of preservation and sensitiveness to local distinct culture of Mennonites. This might be a good example of a symbiosis of local business representatives, community, public sector and a specific distinct culture like Mennonites and also it might be a good example of the implementation of ethical approach in entrepreneurship and community development. The brand “St. Jacobs Country” is owned by a private Mercedes Corporation, there is an active co-operation of other community partners who are also creators of branding strategy of St. Jacobs. In this case, partnerships are very effective due to a majority of ownership of Mercedes Corporation and this is a good example of private and public partnership in tourism. An important fact for success in branding and marketing strategies as well as in business strategies plays a coordinative function and hegemony of ownership which is embedded in Mercedes Corporation. Trust, leadership, and cultural sensitiveness are crucial for successful stories of destinations, especially with the ambition to be also popular places for business, leisure and entertainment. Similarly has approached this problem also Dahms (1991) who underlined not only the entrepreneurial success, but also heritage and amenities. Strategic management, strong leadership and vision, governance and coordination through partnerships are key elements of successful stories of cultural and historical places as well as places with the ambition to succeed generally. For
instance in case of Mercedes company, which is a brand owner of this place, the opportunities for co-operation and participation are very effective and a strong image and message is a result of common synergy. Ownership of Mercedes Company in St. Jacobs might be a good example of the successful branding and financing of tourism and community development.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Tourism development creates in a community new relations, partnerships, positive environment and multiple beneficial economic effects or negative effects. Impact of tourism on communities is crucial in creation of communities’ attitude to the development. The synergy of community interests and entrepreneur’s interests in tourism development is the optimal outcome of a symbiosis of these two elements in economic, social and natural environment. There could be 4 scenarios in this relationship (Singh 2003, p. 26) in the relation to community and tourism:

- **Win-win** – development of tourism in community is beneficial also for community,
- **Win-lose** – community benefits, but tourism suffers,
- **Lose-win** – the case when tourism entrepreneurs benefit more as a community and community suffers due to the decisions against community,
- **Lose-lose** – a case where both community and tourism suffer (in a case of mass development of tourism and a creation of negative externalities).

“When examining the role of the community in tourism it is impossible to separate the social, economic and political processes operating within a community from the conflict which occurs between stakeholders” (Singh 2003, p. 100). There exist distinctive communities created by specific cultures and religious groups, which require a specific approach. The authors as Ap and Crompton (1993), Brown and Giles (1994) mentioned the possible responds of residents, a community to tourism development, e.g. embracement, tolerance, adjustment and withdrawal. There exist specific minorities or communities, which might be difficult to demonstrate this approach due to their cultural and religious belonging. Despite of being a part of cultural product in a community, the lifestyle of these people should be respected and the community and visitors have to be tolerant to their specific way of life as well as people involved in business activities of destinations. For this reason it is crucial to be able to combine marketing and management of a community with the sensitive and sustainable development of a place as a part of the ethical approach to entrepreneurship.

Case of St. Jacobs is a real story of success of the cultural sensitivity, tourism development, partnership co-operation and branding strategy effectiveness. Despite the fact that St. Jacobs is a village and a rural destination, the way how local initiatives are managed, development is understood and the trust is created, is a reason why brand St. Jacobs is so successful. Despite a fact that Farmer Market has been fully destroyed by a fire in 2013, the local initiative to revive new place with the same function, joint the local community and businesses (a documentation in appendix). People were so attached to this place and not only local people, but also people from neighboring communities and visitors. Sense of place, place attachment, good image and feeling about a place are crucial for successful branding strategies.

There might be visible one important factor, which is crucial in branding, e.g. the brand identity and brand personality concept. In case of St. Jacobs was the identity formed by the existence of a distinctive cultural group of people which influences the uniqueness of brand of this village. The uniqueness means also the protection of a place against copying the special character of a place. Despite of a fact that some managerial and marketing strategies could be somehow copied or implemented (sometimes with more or less success because not all

copied or benchmarked processes are the same as the original), the distinct culture and uniqueness is hardly to be copied and transferred because it is specific only for that particular place.

In conclusion, a strategic innovation concerning the approach to branding places and co-creation of local community with local businesses might be a good initiative in the improvement of processes in destinations. Existing balance of the environment, natural or social and the economic activities of human society might be a goal of positive approach to cultural tourism development in destinations. St. Jacobs must be thankful to the attributes of such people as Jacob C. Snider, one of famous people of this region and entrepreneur (Dahms, 1991), Milo Shantz and the representatives of the Mercedes Corporations and its partners, however, also a community of local patriots and Mennonites who create a mosaic of this special place, which is so difficult to forget.

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Appendix:

Photo of former Farmer's Market St. Jacobs and after a fire

Source:
https://www.google.sk/search?q=st.+jacobs+farmers+market+new+building&biw=1680&bih=885&noj=1&site=webhp&tbm=isch&imgil=TueZqG5Ccy3LJM%253A%25
Sustainable Tourism and Marketing in Zambia: The Case of Nature as Driver of the Tourism Sector

Dr. Martin Mbewe
Dr. Wilson Silungwe
Hotel and Tourism Training Institute, Lusaka, Zambia
Corresponding author: mbewemartinn@yahoo.co.uk

Introduction
This paper is an analysis of secondary literature on sustainable tourism and marketing with a specific focus on nature-based tourism in Zambia. The Victoria Falls, bordering Zambia and Zimbabwe, and the wildlife assets are the two major categories of natural resources that are the draw-cards for national and international tourism in Zambia. The protection, conservation and management of these natural resources are, therefore, essential for the survival and sustainable growth of the tourism sector over both the shorter and longer terms. This will ensure that the benefits derived from these natural resources accrue to and meet the needs of both the present and the future generations within the context of sustainable development.

Together with the inputs from the tourism industry, the analysis is intended to showcase sustainable tourism in Zambia. The paper then raises questions for future research to find answers to input into the development of a set of guiding principles for achieving sustainable tourism, marketing and promotion of local and international visitation to the country's tourist attractions.

Literature review
Zambia has been a tourism destination, for both local and international tourists, predating the country's independence in 1964. The country's tourism sector comes only third after mining and agriculture in contributing to the nation's Gross Domestic Product. The tourist attractions are its abundant natural beauty that includes waterfalls, among them the world renowned Victoria Falls, a United Nations Heritage Site and one of the seven wonders of the world; twenty National Parks (NPs) and thirty-six Game Management Areas (GMAs) with one of the largest concentrations of wild animals in Africa; conservation areas for a spectacular variety of wild animals and bird species; a rich cultural heritage; a number of traditional ceremonies and adventure activities. The Victoria Falls, because of its uniqueness to Zambia and on the world stage, is currently the major focus of Zambian tourism (Liu and Mwanza, 2014; Mbewe et. al., www.zambiatourism.com).

The analysis and understanding of the national and international value of Zambia’s tourism and its sustainability must be contextualised within the larger realm of sustainable development. To be sustainable, tourism “must take full account of its current and future economic, social-cultural and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP, 2005).

Tourism, as an economic activity (job creation, foreign currency earner, source of disposable income, growth of transnational corporations, stimulates inward and industrial investments), has an effect on the environment of the destination and this contributes to the desirability and attractiveness of a tourist destination. Thus, the protection and conservation of environmental resources, upon which the tourism industry depends as primary inputs in the production of the tourist output, are prime considerations for the tourism industry (Swarbrook, 1999; Lim and McAleer, 2003).
Culturally, the aim of sustainable tourism is to carefully (re)integrate tourism into local and regional culture and not to integrate culture into tourism. The locals at tourist destinations need to be given the opportunity to not only keep their traditions for visitors, but also live family culture and rites to the exclusion of strangers (Baumgartner, 2008).

Socially, the quality in tourism is determined by the quality of service and, therefore, the improvement of the education and social protection levels of those employed in the tourism industry are of utmost importance. This social dimension mainly concerns the high proportion of adolescents and women as well as the high seasonal unemployment which have to be taken into account and require specific legislative and voluntary measures. Then there are needs of special guest groups comprising those aged 50 and more; the people with special needs (“physically challenged”); non-smokers; families with children and single travellers who have special demands on accommodation, destinations and transport service providers. In order to be successful with these important parts of touristic target groups, potential special needs have to be considered. Thus, there is need for equity to ensure that all stakeholders in tourism are treated fairly; there are equal opportunities for both tourism employees and tourists; the tourism industry is ethical in its dealings with both tourists and suppliers and that the host governments are ethical in dealing with host populations and tourists; and, finally, tourists treat those who serve them as equal partners and not as inferiors (Baumgartner, 2008; Swarbrook, 1999).

Methods and material

Available secondary literature on sustainable tourism and marketing in Zambia in general and on the Victoria Falls and wildlife assets in particular, were reviewed and analysed. Chi-square ($\chi^2$) and Descriptive statistics were used to test for differences in visitors to the National Parks; employment and income levels in the tourism sector. Trend analysis was used to analyse differences in visitors to the Victoria Falls since there were only two variables; year and number of visitors. For the $\chi^2$ analyses, the probability of committing a type-1 error (alpha) was set at 0.05.

Results

Zambia's tourism marketing strategies

The Zambia Tourism Board (ZTB), Zambia’s only tourism marketing agency, specializes in two forms of Tourism marketing strategies: Domestic and International tourism. The international market is the major focus with 60% of the investment and the remaining 40% is on the domestic market (ZTB, 2013).

Domestic Tourism

The target for the domestic market is the middle class and mainly for leisure, focussing on travels between municipalities within the country. The ZTB promotes, supports and markets domestic tourism by participating in various local tourism-related events including the Zambia International Trade Fair, Agriculture and Commercial Shows and Traditional Ceremonies. The institution also hosts tourism programmes related to the marketing of Zambia’s tourism attractions on national and private television and radio stations.

International Tourism

The ZTB often undertakes marketing initiatives in different existing and potential tourism source markets to create destination awareness for Zambia; mainly in African, Europe, China, India, North America and Australia. The institution also markets Destination Zambia via international media and travel agents in these regions.

Visitors to Zambia’s National Parks
Over a five-year period, 2009-2013, a total of 314,069 national and international tourists visited Zambia’s National Parks (Zambia Tourist Board Annual Report 2013; Ministry of Tourism and Arts: Tourism Statistical Digest (2013). The distribution of visitors was different and statistically significant on origin ($X^2 = 9556.763, p<0.0001, df = 16$) (Table 2). The majority of visitors originated from Europe followed by those from Zambia. On a yearly basis, however, the numbers fluctuated but substantially increased in 2013, Table 2.

Table 2. Chi-Square Tests for national and international visitors to Zambia’s National Parks (2009-2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>$P &lt; .0001$</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visitors</td>
<td>64,76</td>
<td>50,51</td>
<td>63,89</td>
<td>57,70</td>
<td>77,28</td>
<td>314,06</td>
<td>9556.76</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

National and international visitors to the Victoria Falls (2004-2013).

A total of 1,384,090 tourists visited Victoria Falls from 2004 to 2013 (Government of the Republic of Zambia, Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2013). A trend analysis indicated fluctuations across the years in the number of visitors, with 2005 having recorded the highest number (Figure 1). In that year, 2005, Zambia launched the “Visit Zambia Campaign” and the increase could have been attributed to the launch. The sharp reduction in 2006 could have been due to the worldwide economic downturn that affected many tourist destinations that period of time. There was, however, a modest visitor-increase from 2011 to 2013 probably a sign of improvements in the world economy.

![Visitors to Victoria Falls, 2004-2013](image)

Figure 1. Visitors to the Victoria Falls, 2004-2013

Employment levels and accommodation earnings in the hospitality and tourism industry

Between 2012 and 2013, a total number of 101,629 people were employed in Zambia in the hospitality and tourism industry consisting of 45,035 males and 56,594 females (Government of the Republic of Zambia, Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2013). The distribution of employees was different and statistically significant on Province ($X^2 = 273.383, p<0.0001, df = 9$) (Table 4).

Table 3. Chi-Square Test for employees in the tourism sector across ten Provinces of Zambia (2012-2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Provinces</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>P &lt; .0001</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of employees</td>
<td>101,629</td>
<td>273.383</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Lusaka and Southern Provinces of the country recorded the highest number of employees due to the increase in the number of hotels and lodges. The Southern Province is home to the Victoria Falls and the Mosi-o-Tunya National Park; two nature-based sites that support eco-tourism. Additionally, Livingstone, Zambia’s tourist capital is located in Southern Province and attracts a lot of international and domestic tourists visiting the tourist attraction sites. These numerous tourist visits have increased the need for investments in the tourism establishments that, in turn, have resulted in increased employment levels.

In terms of annual direct tourism-related earnings the country earned totals of USD 441,062,536.48 and USD 540,209,718.40 in 2012 and 2013, respectively (Government of the Republic of Zambia, Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2013). The descriptive statistics on earnings indicated statistically significant differences on the type of tourism earnings in the two years analysed (p<0.0001) (Table 4). The highest earnings came from accommodation establishments followed by car hire, travel agents and hunting concessions.

Table 4. Descriptive analysis for annual earnings from Tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>P &lt; .05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Provinces</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>208645434.29</td>
<td>272629306.68</td>
<td>240637370.49</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>423877619.15</td>
<td>55169463.02</td>
<td>479957375.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Southern Province recorded the highest earnings from accommodation establishments due to high tourism activities in Livingstone and Siavonga, an attractive tourist destination on the banks of Lake Kariba. Tourist draw cards in Livingstone, besides the Victoria Falls and the Mosi-o-Tunya National Park, include bunji jumping, elephant back riding, walking with the lions, boat cruise, flying over the Victoria Falls, water rafting and museums.

Discussion and conclusions

The Victoria Falls and the wildlife assets are Zambia’s back-bone of tourism. Most international and national visitors to these tourism draw-cards originate from within Africa, Zambia included, followed by the Europeans. This suggests need for the Zambia Tourism Board (ZTB) to concentrate their tourism promotions on this market in order to attract more revenue into the country’s economy. Furthermore, it is logistically cheaper for African tourists due to shorter distances. On the other hand, it may suggest that ZTB is not doing more in promoting these tourist attractions in the markets that have fewer visitors into the country. In both scenarios, there is need for ZTB and other relevant tourism research institutions to deliberately embark on market research to identify alternative tourism products to continue attracting both repeat and new tourists alike.

The high employment figures in tourism activities, especially accommodation, in Lusaka and Southern Provinces suggest high and selective concentration of tourism investments at the expense of other regions that may need to benefit from tourism. It may also suggest that there are no potential and attractive tourism destinations in the other regions. There is need, therefore, for thorough research efforts to discover and aggressively market potential tourism
attractions in these otherwise neglected regions to create possible employment opportunities for local communities.

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www.zambiatourism.com
Re-examining the concept of value in tourism

Scott McCabe
Nottingham University Business School, UK
scott.mccabe@nottingham.ac.uk

Introduction

It is over ten years since Prahalad and Ramaswamy introduced the concept of value co-creation into the marketing lexicon, sparking a paradigm shift in thinking in marketing theory and practice about the fundamental basis of exchange relationships (2004). Of course, in tourism marketing, this merely confirmed what was accepted almost as taken for granted - an implicit understanding about the very foundations upon all tourism business is based: that the experience of the customer is central to value perceptions, and that each customer intrinsically co-produces and consumes the experience synchronously. ‘In the experience space, the individual consumer is central and an event triggers a co-creation experience. The events have a context in space and time, and the involvement of the individual influences that experience. The personal meaning derived from the co-creation experience is what determines the value to the individual’ (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004:14). This is not to say that tourism marketing theory was ahead of the curve, long being criticized for focusing too much on the attributes and features of destinations, packages and experiences as opposed to the experiential or emotional benefits perceived by consumers in the construction of marketing messages or in theorizing tourist experiences (Tung and Ritchie 2012).

However, recently a new wave of research has examined value co-creation in a range of tourism contexts. Some studies have explored the application of SD logic and the potential for co-creation in the hotel sector (Shaw, Bailey and Williams 2011); and the role of company support in customer satisfaction in facilitative co-creation in travel agencies (Grisseman and Stokburger-Sauer 2012); the use of IT in value co-creation through the use of an open voucher system to encourage low-season tourism in Sardinia (Cabiddu, Lui and Piccoli 2013); the scope for co-creation in community based tourism planning (Hamilton and Alexander 2013), and; exploring the capacity of tourism destination organization’s capacity to integrate customer co-creation (Tussysdiah and Zach (2103). Other studies have sought to investigate the sources and meaning of value in tourist experiences. Experience value for example, has been defined by Prebensen, Vitturso and Dahl (2013:5) 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.” Experience value for the tourist then lies in being at the destination and taking part in producing and enjoying various experiences while there (Prebensen et al, 2013). Of course, tourists experiences do not exist entirely outside the context of the interactions with the tourism industry, yet value co-creation theory recasts the role of firms and organizations as; “Firms can only provide services as value propositions, which become an input to value realization” (Cabiddu, Lui and Piccoli: 2013: 88). There are also differing interpretations of the value co-creation construct as having two distinct qualities, value co-production, whereby firms seek to incorporate consumers’ skills, resources and Value-in-use: co-creation tourism experience is seen as a simultaneous production and consumption or “service experience,” which is a mutual co-production of experience by tourists and tourism providers (Minkiewicz, Evans & Bridson, 2013).

Yet, despite this new literature on the sources and determinants of value co-creation, there is little emphasis placed on understanding what is ‘value’ in tourism. If value is
determined by tourists, and we know that tourism is a vast multi-faceted phenomenon embracing many forms of experience and activity, then value is surely similarly multifaceted. If the theme of this conference is ‘Tourism Engagement: Co-creating Wellbeing’ and we know that co-creation refers to the role of interactions between tourists and firms as co-producing value-in-use, then it is important to understand what value determinants contribute to or constitute wellbeing. This conceptual paper aims to; unpack the concepts of value and wellbeing; discuss their relative functions in tourism practice from the perspective of the tourist experience and tourism marketers, and; assess the implications for tourism marketing.

Literature review

There has been a long and interdisciplinary literature which has examined in depth the concept of value. From a sociological perspective, Adler (1956) differentiates between four types of value. Those which are absolutes, immutable and eternal, existing in the mind of God and as such, independent of human action, and those that are embedded in an object, wether material or non-material. These are also in distinction to values which are located in man (sic), originating in his biological needs or in his mind (1956: 272). This can be either individually held value or at the aggregate level of society. A final set of values can be equated with actions. Thus value may be inherent in an object and absolute (such as the warmth of the summer sun) but also relative in terms of the extent it is desired to satisfy needs of individuals. Whatever, in the sociological view, value is determined by the quality or ‘goodness’ of the object. We might recognise the inherent value of an object, for example, the four copies of the Magna Carta that exist, particularly in this 800th anniversary year, for their rarity, great age, and influence on the political and social systems of organisation in the Western World. These have universal value beyond their appreciation of individuals and society. They have intrinsic value regardless of fulfilment of any particular individual need.

The value originating in the needs of humans closely resembles conventional economic reasoning. Adler quotes Park and Burgess in defining this type of value as “Anything capable of being appreciated (wished for).” (1956: 273). Any object of any need can contain value as and when a need or desire to obtain it arises. Here, value is something that exists outside of the individual but which comes into existence by the value-bestowing activity that happens inside the individual. This value is internal to the individual and there is no sense in thinking about the object at all. Value only takes on this quality when ‘meaning’ is attached to it.

Thus value emerges when an object enters into the consciousness of an individual and meaning is attached to the object to an extent that desire or perceived need is aroused sufficient enough to take action. Value therefore exists on many different levels, and it is clear that value is more than an economic concept, and has psychological and sociological implications. Take for example, luxury value perceptions. International travel fifty years ago was perceived as a luxury, yet now international travel has been democratised to such an extent that many of us in the developed world think of an overseas holiday each year as a necessity. Thus, what is perceived to be a luxury in a travel context is becoming increasingly opaque or differentiated (Walls et al 2011; Wiedermann et al 2009). We might examine the ‘Veblen Effects’ of conspicuous consumption for example (Badwell and Bernheim 1996). Consumption of highly conspicuous goods and services is performed as a way to ‘advertise’ ones wealth, status or position in society. Therefore consumption value includes symbolic value attached to certain kinds of service experiences such as tourism.

Does a similar type of value exist in relation to wellbeing? Do consumers make choices based on wellbeing needs or desires for wellbeing, and if so, what are the implications for co-creation? Certainly a great deal of research has recently focused in on subjective wellbeing and quality of life issues in tourism (McCabe and Johnson 2013). The importance of tourism to
QOL depends on the value attached to tourism-related goals (Sirgy, 2010). Some people value tourism experiences more highly, and so they are likely to prioritise tourism consumption more highly. Sirgy points out that tourism decisions are goal-driven. The goal-valence principle states that tourism satisfaction will be enhanced when touristic goals are selected, for which attainment is likely to induce high positive affect in various life domains. Sirgy discusses goals related to growth versus basic needs. Growth needs include those high involvement activities which are likely to contribute to personal and spiritual development, i.e. wellbeing outcomes. Basic needs include low involvement activities such as escapism, relaxation or entertainment. Although Sirgy predicates his arguments on the affect as a proxy for QOL and subjective wellbeing, he raises an important link between goal related behaviour and that in turn raises a crucial link to value conceptions.

Discussion/implications/conclusions

This paper is clearly a work in progress. There is much further work to do on the theoretical discussion and the discussion of the implications and conclusions. Some basic ideas for the conclusions are: value co-creation has been applied in a generic sense to ideas for innovating tourism services and/or experiences. Yet even though value in the market literature is presumed to be derived phenomenologically from firm-customer interactions, this makes an assumption that value is economic and ignores the social psychological dimensions. Also, value co-creation literature assumes a firm perspective and is entirely centred on the creation of competitive advantage, whereas wellbeing comprises social and relational and developmental (goals) elements. The paper posits that wellbeing value is an important outcome of and motivating factor behind the purchase of tourism products and services. Tourism firms need to act in a facilitating role to customer value orientations (be they symbolic, conspicuous, cost-conscious [price driven] or wellbeing or others) and co-creation ideas and methods may not be appropriate to the attainment of some of these value goals.

References


Hospitality and shared experiences as content co-creation: Developing a competitive advantage for destinations

Daniella A T Mendes
Elizabeth Kyoko Wada
Sergio Luiz do Amaral Moretti
Universidade Anhembi Morumbi
São Paulo, Brasil
Daniella_mendes@hotmail.com

Introduction

The study of Hospitality allows us to understand human relationships when welcoming the other, becoming thus an important concept for understanding the perception of quality and customer satisfaction. The positive sharing of experiences is influenced by the degree of customers’ satisfaction, who publish experiences in travel websites and social networks, creating images about certain moments.

Thus, the new perspectives, desires and motivations of an individual become fundamental principles in creating a meaningful experience. The individual is called to create a hospitality experience. The result of this new creation, reflected in shared content, results in the co-creation of content or image that existed previously.

The general objective of this study is to verify, from the hospitality perspective, if the sharing of experiences is characterized as content co-creation and competitive advantage. The specific objectives are: 1) verify whether the selected tourist destinations encourage the sharing of experiences by their visitors, 2) verify whether the selected tourist destinations use the experiences of their visitors to their promotion 3) understand if pre-travelers use previous travelers’ experiences as inspiration.

Literature review

Hospitality is addressed by the authors as a contemporary human exchange, idealized and voluntarily assumed, which purpose is to enhance mutual well-being among the parties involved (BROTHERTON, WOOD, 2007). This experience implies that there are at least two characters involved: host and guest, where the guest needs to feel that the host is behaving hospitably, inspired by the generosity and the desire to please the other (LASHLEY, 2008). The hospitality experience can occur in the domestic, social and commercial domains.

The World Economic Forum in The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report (UNWTO, 2013), reinforces the idea of a Destination Hospitality, presenting as one of its evaluation pillars the item “affinity for travel and tourism.” This item represents the degree of openness of a country and society to tourism and foreign visitors.

Since this study addresses hospitality as an item to attract visitors and promote the image of a destination (KOTLER, 2006), the subject is within the commercial domain. In this domain, hospitality becomes a strategic element in providing quality service and the host must therefore be open to new offers of experience to the consumer. The higher the degree of interaction, the more intense the experience (HEMMINGTON, 2007).

This experience should be treated as value. According to Pine II and Gilmore (1998), creators of the experience expression as such, as long as it is thought in the following dimensions: 1) active participation of the customer; 2) passive participation of the customer and, 3) the individual’s connection with the event, taking him/her to be immersed or absorbed into the event.
According to Lugosi (2008), it is crucial to understand the customer experience produced by the service encounter in order to understand how it will be shared, that is, how will the possible content that it creates or co-creates be distributed. The commercial experience is not produced isolated but in interaction with the originated experiences; it is therefore necessary to understand the consumer deeply.

Experiences from previous consumers may also help the co-creation of experiences of next consumers as well as the service offered by a provider. For Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004), the co-creation deals with the joint value creation, both by the company and the customer. It is not the company trying to please the customer. Knowing how to use technology to promote services and the destination itself has become a challenge for service providers and inbound destinations. According to Buhalis (2008), the Internet reshapes the dynamics of the exchange of information related to tourism, the way in which it is distributed and how people plan and consume trips. He considers that information technologies help improve the quality of services and generates greater traveler satisfaction. The author also states that predefined tour packages are losing their market share to new travelers who organize independent trips. Tribe (2011) mentions that the shared private experience promotes cultural identity and social understandings. Customers consider previous customer experiences on review sites. Restrepo and Marquez (2013), explain that this informal exchange of information (Word of Mouth), such as observations of friends and acquaintances about their experiences and perceptions used to be verbal, but nowadays happens via SMS, Facebook, Twitter, etc., simultaneously and at the same moment as they occur.

In 2012, in Greece, during the first Tourism Forum organized by Google (BITZER, 2012) in this country, 5 travel stages were presented: Dream, Planning, Booking (before the trip); Experiencing (during the trip) and Sharing (after the trip), in order to meet the various stages involved in its planning. The caring of the first (previous) stages ensures positive consumer generated content (CGC), which promotes the destination image.

**Methods and material**

This is an empirical and exploratory research based on secondary data. The general objective of this study is to understand, from the hospitality perspective, if the sharing of experiences is characterized as content co-creation and competitive advantage. To meet this objective, the methodological procedures was been developed in three phases. Initially was selected the ranking of destinations that receive the most international tourists using the Tourism Highlights 2014 Edition report (UNWTO, 2013). Then, were chosen the three destinations that occupy the top positions (France, United States and Spain) and two other destinations that are part of the region that receives the least international tourists, the Middle East (Egypt and UAE).

Finally, the data collection was carried out using a protocol designed to analyze online channels which promote these destinations, focusing on cities receiving large numbers of international tourists. Other points were also analyzed:

- **Website**: Analyzing the type of published content.
- **Facebook**: Analyzing the type of published content.
- **Search Engine**: Verifying, using the Google Trends tool, the quantity of internet searches on these destinations (using the names of cities) from January to December 2014, triggering classification filters provided in the tool: all over the world and travel.
- **Wi-fi**: Checking for internet Wi-fi spots in public areas/places.

The content analysis for Website and Facebook channels was carried out thematically and qualitatively (Bardin, 1977) and was classified in two dimensions of analysis:

- **Informative content**: content presented as "what to do"; features sorted by types of
activities such as leisure, culture, night; features disclosed by the nature of the experiences such as adventure, gastronomy and others.

- **Shared Content**: the use of content generated by destination visitors (CGC) for promotion in the analyzed online channels.

In addition to content analysis, secondary data gathered from researches made by industry companies such as MDG Advertising and TripAdvisor were used in order to understand whether pre-travelers use previous travel experiences as inspiration.

**Results**

The table below was developed based on the conducted research. It contains the features found for each analyzed item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destinations</th>
<th>Website</th>
<th>Facebook</th>
<th>Search Engine</th>
<th>Wi-fi Internet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Present in 260 spots: gardens, parks, libraries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Subway stations, libraries, parks and squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrid</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>Informational Content and Shared Content</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Public transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairo</td>
<td>No website (tourism)</td>
<td>No website (tourism)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Indoor locations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dubai</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>Informational Content</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>Indoor locations, subway, bus stops, Zabeel Park</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The website channels of the analyzed destinations feature informational content. Although attractions in Dubai are presented as experiences, these do not match the experiences of its visitors. In the Facebook channel, informational content features are also predominant. Only Madrid representing Spain and occupying the third position in the ranking of destinations that receive the most international tourists, shares visitors’ experiences (photos) on its page. However, Paris and New York, representatives of France and the United States have the larger quantity of free wi-fi internet spots throughout the city. Despite
occupying lower positions, Dubai, UAE representative, is one of the destinations that have an internet search volume similar to the representative occupying the first position in the ranking, Paris (France). A survey conducted by TripAdvisor (2012/2013) shows that for 93% of respondents, online reviews of other travelers have impact in their booking decisions and that during the trip, 39% of them upload photos on social networks and 34% post updates in their profiles. The survey also shows that 81% of responding hotel services providers encourage guests to submit their assessments. The MDG Advertising agency (2012), using surveys from companies such as Marriott, TripAdvisor and ComScore, conducted a study on how travelers use social networks and mobile technology before, during and after the trip. The study reported that 52% of responding travelers used social networks as an inspiration for their holidays.

**Discussion and Conclusions**

Based on studies conducted by market research companies and the tourism industry, it is noticed that the traveler uses the internet as a source of inspiration for planning a trip. Social networks, used for publishing photos and experiences, are the channels used for this inspiration (MDG ADVERTISING, 2012; TRIPADVISOR, 2013).

As pointed out earlier by Restrepo and Marquez (2013) it was noticed that during the trip, when the experience is experienced, travelers use social networks to share content. In turn, service providers began to encourage the sharing. Currently, this incentive can be shown by providing wi-fi to enable this sharing.

If the welcoming, the hospitality experience of a city is successful and shared at the time of experience, such initiative could be considered a powerful consumer-generated information with the benefit of being used by pre-travelers. This is the type of content that the new travelers search for. These experiences, generated and shared, co-create the traveler experience and the destination image. To ensure that this action follows a positive line, the destination must be a good host (Lashley, 2008; Lugosi, 2009).

Based on the results, it can be said that to get a competitive advantage status, destinations need to facilitate this sharing and develop creative options for promoting its attractions. The study objective- understanding that experiences generated from Hospitality can cause the traveler to co-create the destination image through a new content that can be shared, thus giving the destination, if it positively uses this sharing, a competitive advantage- was thus accomplished.

**References**


Introduction
Cities play an important part in the modern development of tourism. On the one hand, they are the biggest generator of both international and domestic tourism movement, on the other hand, they are one of the most important places of the reception of domestic and foreign tourists. In terms of tourism in urban areas, which basically focuses on monuments, events, sightseeing, etc., the natural environment gives an opportunity to supplement an urban tourism product with elements connected with it which create conditions to calm down, rest and gain energy before starting other activities. The natural environment consists of green, water and naturally valuable areas which have a wide range of recreational, tourism and special values which enable various activities such as walking, nordic walking, cycling or horse-riding. In fact, the natural environment can be used for recreational and holiday purposes without any special preparations, however, appropriate development enables, above all, environmental protection through relocating various activities, which take place there, to areas which are most appropriate for them and, at the same time, least damaging to the environment. Well-maintained, well-located as well as attractive infrastructure makes undertaking activities in green areas easier and often stimulates spending time in the bosom of nature.

The natural environment is treated as obvious surroundings for tourists’ activities in a city and is rarely perceived as an element of their attractiveness or an element of a tourism product. However, possibilities of using environmental potential in the process of developing a city’s tourism product can be indicated in many cities. A city’s tourism product enriched with environmental elements could be more attractive for tourists as well as it could enhance their mental and physical comfort while spending time in urban areas. This issue is not often raised in theory or practice because cities are treated as areas mainly connected with business tourism, culture tourism and event tourism which do not deal with the natural environment and it is not their essential element. The study brings up this issue on the basis of an analysis of a tourism product of the city of Szczecin (situated in north-western Poland) that has varied environmental potential which adequate use could contribute to an increase of tourism attractiveness of the city and of tourists’ comfort of stay.

The objective of the study is to present new possibilities of developing tourism products of cities using the natural environment on an example of Szczecin.

Literature review
The most common definitions of a tourism product in the literature present, above all, a structural approach. They emphasize mainly its large capacity, complexity and flexibility. V.T.C. Middleton (1996) thinks that a tourism product is a mixture of three main components: attractions, tourism infrastructure in a destination and their availability. J.Ch. Holloway, Ch.

Definitions which focus on psychological aspects of a tourism product, such as benefits, pleasures, satisfaction which all can result from the purchase of it are considerably less common. A greater emphasis on possibilities of fulfilling needs and expectations of tourists can be noticed in a definition of a tourism product suggested by V.T.C. Middleton (1996).

A city is a typical example of a regional tourism product. In their approach, V.T.C. Middleton and R. Hawkins claim that destinations (tourism reception areas) can exist on the market as places identified by tourists, thus have their own distinctive brand and develop their own management system and procedures (V.T.C. Middleton, R. Hawkins 1998, p. 82). V.F.C. Goncalves and P.M.R. Aguas (1997) promote other approach to the term. The issue of tourism in urban areas was also considered by M. Sorkin (1992), Ch.M. Law (1993) and P. E. Murphy (1997). Their views are shared by Polish authors, such as J. Altorn (2001), M. Mika (2007) and M. Derek (2013). The majority of authors agree that a city's tourism product includes such elements as: natural and anthropogenic values, infrastructure and services of a destination as well as its availability, image and price paid by the consumer (Niezgoda, Zmyślony, 2003, V.T.C. Middleton, 1996, R. W. Butler, 2006, S. L.J. Smith, 1994).

The issue of the natural environment in terms of tourism attractiveness of cities is rarely discussed in the Polish literature and only studies by Z. Mieczkowski (1995) can be found. However, the issue is raised more often in the foreign-language literature, among others in studies by A. Holden (2008) and R. Dowling, D. Newsome, S. Moore (2002), but they often refer only to specific situations. The significance of the natural environment is not examined in relation to activities of tourists in urban areas.

**Methods and material**
The research process has been divided into four stages:

1. The critical analysis of the literature on the subject on the basis of which the review of theoretical foundations of the undertaken topic and criticism of the researched issues in the context of scientific achievements to date will be conducted.
2. The analysis of main elements creating a tourism product of the city of Szczecin which consists of tourism values, attractions, infrastructure, offer.
3. The description of the natural environment of Szczecin and identification of elements of the environment which can be used as a supplement to/extension of a tourism product of the city.
4. The assessment of attractiveness of a tourism product of Szczecin and the analysis of activities undertaken by tourists in Szczecin, with particular focus on these performed in the natural environment.

**Results**
Szczecin - the capital city of Zachodniopomorskie Voivodeship - the city with almost a 1000-year history, is one of the most attractive cities for tourists in Poland and has a population of almost 410,000 residents. Since the former image of the city changed, it maintained its own, unique character which enchants with beauty of the historical Art Nouveau architecture and lush greenery. Szczecin is a city of a huge area (more than 300 sq km) and of the varied natural environment in which there are a lot of water and green areas (25% and 20% respectively). The city is located in the area of Western Pomerania and macroregion of Pobrzeże Szczecińskie which comprises 11 mesoregions, 4 of which are situated in the city: Dolina Dolnej Odry, Równina Goleniowska, Wzgórza Szczecińskie and Wzgórze Bukowe. The distance from the city centre to the Baltic Sea in a straight line is 55 km.

The city is surrounded by three forests: Puszcza Wkrzańska in the north, Puszcza Bukowa in the south and Puszcza Goleniowska in the east.

The significance of tourism, as a branch of Szczecin economy, has been increasing for few years. The number of tourists visiting Szczecin fluctuates around 370,000 people annually (around 40% of foreign tourists, especially from Germany and Scandinavian countries) and rises slowly but steadily. Tourists spend around 2 days in the city and their main aim of stay is sightseeing, learning about architecture, culture and the natural environment of Szczecin as well as visiting family and friends. According to more than 2/3 of tourists, Szczecin is a very attractive city. In terms of tourism movement and the level of expenses, Szczecin does not differ significantly from cities which are considered as more attractive (Gdańsk, Poznań, Wrocław). It can mean that Szczecin is able to offer the adequate number of attractions to visiting tourists. The most important places which foreign tourists come from are: Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Norway as well as Belgium and the Netherlands.

A great attraction of Szczecin, which makes it distinctive of other cities in the country, is the natural environment creating landscape values: hills surrounding the city, large forests and landscape parks as well as a flat surface of Międzyrzecze with the Oder branches, many parks with a unique stand of trees. Its importance was affirmed by the vision of Szczecin formulated as Szczecin Floating Garden 2050 Project. This considerably new vision of Szczecin is a revolution in the city development. Szczecin tries to shift itself towards water, ecology and is going to combine good points of a metropolis with a place comfortable to live. The new brand of the city works on the assumption that the development of Szczecin should be based on values which were given to the city, shift towards water and greenery, focus on ecology, combine good points of a metropolis and a place which does not overwhelm and life there does not involve many drawbacks of modern cities. The city brand and the longstanding strategy of its implementation involve a long-term process including many levels: from creating a brand concept, its vision and mission, to designing a logo, a coherent visual system of the city and a communication system. The strategy concerns the need for and possibilities of changes in the scale of activities in order to develop unused or derelict spaces in the city. In order to develop islands of Śródodrze and other parts of Szczecin, the most innovative urban planning, architectural and technological solutions can be applied which, at the same time, help to protect the nature which is ubiquitous in this unique place. This kind of approach gives new possibilities of creating the city's tourism product which the natural environment will be an intrinsic and essential part.

Discussion and Conclusions

In the age of the modern demanding tourism market, a tourism product of a city has to be more competitive. Cities, being artificially created by humans and being very often the result of centuries-old development, are main areas of tourism reception. Having many attractive cultural resources and rich tourism infrastructure, they offer an attractive mega-product and many partial products to tourists. Particular components of a product usually complement each other harmoniously. Cities attract tourists with numerous attractions. These attractions are mainly in the form of: city's cultural heritage, numerous forms of entertainment, conference centres and specialized services. The natural environment is treated mainly as a barely recognizable background for various activities undertaken by tourists in urban areas, with the exception of special situations when it is so unique that it can serve as the basis for creating tourism attractions. Simultaneously, in the context of changing expectations of tourists and new development trends, the natural environment should play a huge part in developing tourism products of cities because of its potential which enables
creating excellent conditions for resting, regenerating or spending active time in a friendly environment.

References
Using service design thinking and tools for designing tourism services for families with children

Heli Müristaja
Heli Tooman
Pärnu College, University of Tartu
heli.muristaja@ut.ee

Introduction

This paper will discuss how the service design thinking and tools could be used in designing new and developing the existing family tourism products and services.

The first part of this paper examines the main principles of service design thinking, the logical stages and tools of service design, and analyses the ideas concerning the use of service design principles and tools for designing tourism products and services. The next part describes the position and trends of family tourism and provides some results of the surveys related to designing family tourism products and services. The last part of this paper provides some recommendations for tourism organizations how to follow service design thinking and use service design tools in designing tourism products and services for families with children.

Using service design thinking and tools in designing tourism products and services

Service design was first introduced as a design discipline at the beginning of the 1990s and it has gained a lot of interest in various fields (Hollins & Hollins, 1991; Stickdorn & Schneider, 2010). Service design has several definitions. In general it is the activity of planning and organizing the people, infrastructure, communication and material components of a service in order to improve its quality and the interaction between the service provider and customers. Service design thinking lays out on five main principles: user centered, co-creative, sequencing, evidencing and holistic. Together with the most traditional methods used for product design, service design requires methods and tools to control new elements of the design process, such as time and the interaction between agents.

It is necessary to divide the service design process into logical stages and there are several approaches for that. (Stickdorn & Schneider, 2010; Clatworthy, 2011). One of the well-known models is called: The Double Diamond diagram. This model was developed at the Design Council (UK) in 2005 as a simple graphical way of describing the design process divided into four distinct phases: discover, define, develop, and deliver.

The principles, techniques and tools of service design are considered universal and applicable in all service-related areas, including tourism. However, in tourism these approaches and opportunities are still awaiting more thorough research and discovery. A pioneer in discussing the opportunities of service design principles and tools in tourism was Zehrer (2009), who primarily studied how to apply them in designing new services and developing existing services in small tourism companies.

Family tourism development and trends

Carr (2011) has said that children represent a significant portion of the world’s population and tourist market in their own right and that family represents one of the largest markets for tour operators and other vacation service providers. Yesawich (Yesawich, 2007) expects family travel to continue growing at a faster rate than all other forms of leisure travel, as both parents and grandparents continue to view travel as a way to “reunite” families in a contemporary world that is increasingly dominated by demanding work schedules ... even if only for a few days.
Based on studies conducted in Europe, one may conclude that approximately 30 to 40 per cent of vacation trips include children (Schänzel et al. 2012). This seemingly easy target group is becoming increasingly challenging with its wishes and needs (Carr 2011), as the target group itself consists of diverse sub-groups (e.g. parents, children in various ages, grandparents, etc.) and all of them have different and sometimes rather contradictory expectations, wishes and needs.

Nowadays, the demand and supply in family tourism are influenced by changes in the ideologies and values of the society, the demographic situation, the change in the role of fathers in the family and the increasing role of children as consumers and tourists. Yeoman and Schänzel (2011) point out the key factors and trends that are most likely to influence this target group in the future: new family structures resulting from demographic changes (e.g. single parents, democratic families, fewer children, divorce, etc.); the role of gender and parenting behaviour (e.g. intensive mothering and involved fathering); the role of time; social exclusion (e.g. social tourism initiatives); tourism builds family capital (bonding between grandparents, parents and children and the social identification that is facilitated on vacation).

The Estonian National Tourism Development Plan for 2014–2020 identifies family tourism as one of the priority areas for development (2013). To promote family tourism, it is necessary to design differentiated family tourism products and services together with the supporting infrastructure, which take into consideration the needs of travelling families and provide exciting activities for children and youth from different age groups. The Development Plan for the City of Pärnu until the year 2025 also highlights the importance and necessity of developing family tourism (2011). Pärnu County has formulated the region’s vision for the years 2030+ (Arengustrateegia, 2014), which establishes Pärnu County as the top health and family tourism destination in the Baltic States following the countries’ capitals. The destination was considered to have great potential for focusing on families with children, but still needed a lot of work to satisfy the target groups and to design attractive and competitive family tourism products and services to them.

Implementation of service design tools in process of the family tourism service design

In order to fully understand this target group, including both children and parents, we need to understand their expectations, wishes, needs and feelings better. While the first three categories can be studied by using traditional research methods – questionnaires and interviews –, the mapping of feelings requires a more creative approach, and here methods such as free drawing and storytelling are generally considered more appropriate. To answer the question posed by this paper, the authors used a mixed research method consisting of a questionnaire and focus group interviews, with the latter not only involving guided discussion (a method most commonly used with focus group interviews) but also free drawing, poetry creation and storytelling.

Firstly, families with children visiting the town were asked to fill out the questionnaire. The respondents included 120 families in their place of destination, half of whom were domestic and the other half international tourists. The results were then coded and analysed using the statistical data analysis method. Open answers were analysed using content analysis and intuitive coding methods. In brief, the following results and conclusions were obtained:

- Although a high percentage of returning visitors (approx. 75%) indicates that people are generally satisfied with the products and services offered at the destination, even the best experiences may lose their appeal over time, and therefore continuous product development and informing of the visitors of the latest updates is vital for keeping their interest alive;

- Respondents were especially satisfied with free attractions (beach, parks, etc.) as it helps price sensitive target groups to keep their costs low;
- Domestic visitors generally spend only 1–3 days at the destination, while the average length of stay of foreign families is one week;
- More attention should be paid to designing wholesome customer journeys – this applies to domestic as well as international tourists;
- Currently there are few activities designed for children aged 12–15 and for families with children of mixed ages (e.g. whole-family joint participatory activities, activities requiring active participation, youth clubs, etc.);
- Families are very much interested in travelling outside the summer season – therefore, it is necessary to present concrete and attractive offers for weekends and school holidays;
- Pärnu continues to be one of the main summer destinations for Estonians, while the key arguments for foreign visitors tend to be its small size, tranquility and coziness;
- When asked about the propagation of information and the role of marketing, the respondents relied most on recommendations by family and friends and their past positive experiences associated with the place;
- Another way to attract foreign visitors could be combining several attractive tourist destinations (for instance, Tallinn, Tartu and Riga/Jūrmala as well as Pärnu) in a joint marketing effort;
- Information available on the internet must be up to date, directly addressing the target groups, and translated into the languages spoken by the target groups;
- In several cases, respondents also highlighted some negative aspects relating to the upkeep and cleanliness of the town/beach area and questionable functionality of street lighting in the summertime;
- To increase the overall satisfaction of families with children, it is necessary to improve the city environment and services so that they are more child and family friendly.

To gain a deeper understanding of the target group's feelings related to travel, another survey was carried out by employing creative techniques. Hence, an interview was conducted with a group of ten, including parents, people whose daily work is connected with children (e.g. the managers of hobby groups and theme days), managers of companies that have already started to pay attention to satisfying the needs of families with children. The group also included one child. In addition to tourism specialists, the first half of the discussion was conducted by a creative therapist.

The group interview took place outside the daily environment of the interviewees – in a creative room – and the participants were seated on the floor around a large piece of paper. This was necessary in order to descend from the so-called daily adult level and view the world from a child's perspective. First, the participants were requested to choose a favourite colour and draw a picture with two hands and their eyes shut; later, this picture could be perfected with open eyes and the participants were asked to associate the drawing with a cheerful memory from childhood. The participants were very open in sharing their thoughts, which resulted in a substantial collection of ideas and values that provide us with the hunch of what really makes families with children happy. In addition to other methods, the hour-long creative technique was concluded by writing a poem together, the poem's central idea being the expression of childhood pleasures. The focus group was wrapped up by a group interview conducted by tourism specialists, discussing more general principles and details of products.
that are aimed at families with children. The focus group interview lasted for a total of three hours and the entire discussion was recorded with a sound recorder.

The recording of the group interview was transcribed and the text was encoded pursuant to pre-set categories. New codes and categories were also created during the encoding process. The analysis resulted in 11 values and characteristics that a family tourism product should include or be based on. These are curiosity, playfulness, carefreeness, warmth, wind, nature, peace, love, longing, movement and permission. Every value can be explained more thoroughly and a suitable family tourism service can be designed and marketed based on these values.

Conclusions

Service design is still not very well acknowledged academic topic in tourism field and there are rather few related scientific research and articles. From the practical point of view, better knowledge and understanding of theoretical approaches of service design thinking, stages and tools gives tourism organizations a lot of useful hints to design new customer centred and attractive tourism products and services or redesign the existing ones.

Every tourism organization design and develop its products and services by itself, nobody else can dictate what kind of target groups to choose or what kind of products and services to develop and offer to them. If the organization decides that they wish to compete on the family tourism market, they have to work hard to find the best solutions and to design the products and services that are attractive for families – for children, parents or grandparents.

To make it as simple as possible, it would be smart to start with the two most important aspects of service design.

Develop and deepen knowledge and understanding of the five main service design thinking principles: user centred, co-creative, sequencing, evidencing, and holistic.

Follow the logical stages of the service design processes: discover, define, develop, and deliver, and learn to know and use different service design tools suitable for the particular stages of the design process.

The goal of this article was to discuss how to use the service design thinking, principles and tools of service design in designing new tourism products and services, as well as perfecting the existing ones. Special emphasis was laid on family tourism products and services.

As a result of the surveys, the authors discovered that families with children are likely to return when their previous experience related to the destination has been enjoyable; moreover, they also bring along other families with children. The respondents mentioned the lack of wholesome customer journeys as one of the major drawbacks – parents are not interested in acting as travel agents during their holidays and would rather enjoy their time with children. In addition, information currently available for visitors is not always up to date, easy to find and use, and the city environment and services could also be improved in terms of child-friendliness. The second survey highlighted the most important values and feelings that families generally experience or wish to experience when travelling with children. These were curiosity, playfulness, carefreeness, warmth, wind, nature, peace, love, longing, movement and permission. By using these keywords in destination and service design and marketing, it is possible to attract the interest of the target groups and provide them with a deeply satisfying visiting experience.

We hope that this paper encourage tourism organizations to follow the best ideas of service design thinking and the stages of service design process to design the attractive and competitive family tourism products and services Using different service design tools is not
too difficult to manage even in very small tourism businesses. The result – the customer centred and high quality products and services – is worth to work with that!

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The role of destination brand personality on golf tourists’ satisfaction and behavioural intentions

Rosaria Pereira  
Antonia Correia  
University of the Algarve  
rpereira@ualg.pt

Introduction

A longitudinal research frame shows that tourism research has been focused on destination image for several years, more recently the concept of image evolved to positioning destination brand personality traits. Another stream of research is satisfaction and loyalty. Researchers assessed the role of brand image and brand equity in terms of satisfaction and loyalty (e.g. Chen & Phou, 2013; Nam, Ekinci & Whyatt, 2011), nevertheless the role of destination brand personality in satisfaction and behavioural intentions is still limited. This topic is even scarcer in the field of golf tourism literature.

This study focuses on exploring how brand personality affects satisfaction and behavioural intentions of a specific type of destination: golf destination. To that end the brand personality of the destination was assessed through different perspectives: the holistic perspective of the region as a golf destination and a relational perspective depicting the components of the relational brand personality (functional, symbolic and experiential). Two approaches are suggested seeking to verify if the overall perception of the brand might differ from the perception of the relational components of the brand personality and therefore to identify different dimensions of the construct (Pereira, Correia & Schutz, 2015). Whether by the holistic perspective or through the relational one, the results suggest a chain effect where the perceived golf destination brand personality influences positively consumers’ satisfaction and that, in turn, influences behavioural intentions suggesting that satisfied tourists tend to return or recommend the destination.

This the research examine the mediating role of the customer satisfaction and the relationship between brand personality and brand loyalty.

Literature Review

It has been proved that human characteristics can be associated to brands in an attempt to create a relationship between the consumer and the brand (Aaker, 1997, Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004, Plummer, 2000). Aaker (1997) defines brand personality as the “set of human characteristics associated with a brand” and she validated a measurement tool to assess brand personality of consumer goods. Tourists are informed of a representation of the “personality” of the destination and based on a destination-as-person perspective they attribute a personality to a destination (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2004) as they do with commercial brands. Ekinici & Hosany (2006) were the first to examine the applicability and validity of Aaker’s (1997) brand personality scale to the context of destinations and defined destination personality as the “set of human characteristics associated with a destination” (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006: 128). The authors demonstrated that a destination consists of tangible and intangible components associated with particular attributes that could be associated with personality traits. In this context, as destinations are rich in terms of symbolic values, the personification of a destination can easily occur. This richness in tangible and intangible components differentiates destinations from other consumer goods. Taking into account the relationship that tourists establish with destinations, which is reflected in
Hankinson’s (2004) functional, symbolic and experiential components of the relational brand personality, it is likely that other than human personality traits (HPT) might emerge as part of destination brand personality. For instance, some traits do not relate to human characteristics, e.g. sunny (for climate), expensive (for price), quality (for accommodation and facilities) but describe critical attributes of a destination. Brand personality is then characterized by functional attributes (tangible: utilitarian and environmental) (Sirgy & Su 2000) and symbolic attributes (intangible: which meet the need for social approval, personal expression and self-esteem) (Keller 1993). Linking these two categories of attributes together is a set of experimental attributes, which describe the visitor’s experience (Echtner & Ritchie 2003).

Consumer satisfaction is one of the most frequently research topics in marketing as it is a fundamental determinant of long-term business success. Much of the research investigates its impact on consumers’ post consumption evaluations such as behavioural and attitudinal loyalty (Cooil, Keiningham, Aksoy & Hsu, 2007). Previous studies have explored the relationships between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty (Achouri & Bouslama, 2010, Chen & Phou, 2013, Nam et al., 2011) but observing the impact of brand personality on satisfaction and on behavioural intentions towards a tourist destination is still limited. Rodriguez del Bosque & San Martin (2008) suggest that consumer satisfaction is not only cognitive but also emotional. According to Jones and Suh (2000) satisfaction can occur just after the purchase following a single encounter with the service provider - transaction-specific satisfaction. Another approach to satisfaction suggests that it is an evaluative judgement of the last purchase encounters based on all encounters with the service provider - overall satisfaction defended by Bitner & Hubbert, (1994). The literature suggests that overall satisfaction is a better indicator of future loyalty (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha & Bryant, 1996; Johnson, Gustafsson, Anderssen, Lervik & Cha, 2001). Consumer satisfaction is therefore a consumer’s overall emotional response to the entire brand to the brand experience (Nam et al., 2011) and therefore is the approach adopted for this study. Loyalty is another aspect that can be approach from two perspectives: behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2007; Dick & Basu, 1994). While behavioural loyalty refers to the frequency of repeat purchase, attitudinal loyalty relates to the psychological commitment that consumers make in the purchase act, such as intentions to purchase and intention to recommend without necessarily repeating the purchase. In their tourism literature Chen & Gursoy (2001) argue that the attitudinal approach is more appropriate to study travel loyalty because travellers can be loyal to a destination even when they do not (re)visit the place (Nam et al., 2011). This study adopts attitudinal loyalty and defines brand loyalty as the consumers’ intention to revisit or the willingness to recommend the destination.

Methods and Materials

The study comprises two models which hypothesize that the dimensions found for a golf destination brand personality, through both an holistic and relational approach, positively relate to destination satisfaction and in turn are positively associated with intentional behavior (intention to return and intention to recommend). The personality was measured using a number of traits depicted from the literature and validated by a panel of experts (Pereira et al.,2015). The first model suggested for this research proposes that: H1 brand personality of the destination has a positive effect on consumer satisfaction; H2 consumers’ satisfaction has a positive effect on behavioural intentions; H3 brand personality of the destination has a positive effect on behavioural intentions and H4 consumers’ satisfaction mediates the effects of brand personality dimensions on behavioural intentions.
The second model proposes that: H1 relational brand personality of the destination has a positive effect on consumer satisfaction; H2 consumers’ satisfaction has a positive effect on behavioural intentions; H3 relational brand personality of the destination has a positive effect on behavioural intentions and H4 Consumers’ satisfaction mediates the effects of brand relational brand personality dimensions on behavioural intentions.

The data was collected through a self-administrated questionnaire given to 545 tourists visiting the Algarve to play golf while sitting in the clubhouses after the game. A total of 27 golf courses were included in the sample, over a period of one month. The questionnaire was distributed in three languages (Portuguese, English and German) according to the respondent nationality and/or preference. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA), using the generalized least squares (GLS) method with varimax rotation was carried out with the items of the scale. Furthermore, to verify the latent structure identified from the EFA, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using structural equation modelling (SEM) technique performed with the software AMOS Graphics v. 20 (Analysis of Moments Structures) using the other half of the sample (n=273 for model I and n=273 for model II). Data was analyzed in order to check if the SEM requirements were fulfilled, particularly multivariate normality.

**Research and Results**

The results show that male participants far outnumbered females (80.6% vs. 19.4%). The majority of the respondents are British (51.2%) with an average age of 52.6 years old. Regarding the participants educational background, a significant number (41.4%) have a university or college degree and work full-time (35%) with a reasonable number retired (33%), earning an annual average income of 36 503.00(€). Most respondents started to play golf in the 1990s with an average handicap of 18.4 playing an average of 69.5 rounds a year. An overwhelming majority are repeat visitors (77.9%), who stay around eight nights and play five golf rounds. Most stay in a hotel (50.7%), travel with friends (45.2%) and book through a travel agent (45.2%). Moreover, in terms of satisfaction with the destination the result is positive, being 53.3% satisfied and 32.8% very satisfied with the destination. The respondents intend to return to the Algarve to play golf – very likely (25.6%) and most certainly (50.9%). Also, the respondents intend to recommend the destination to play golf - very likely (35%) and most certainly (52.3%), which indicates a strong loyalty towards the destination.

Model I indices support a good overall model fit X²=106.399, p=.000, RMSEA= 0.38, GFI= 0.971, CFI=0.984 TLI=0.979 NFI=0.963. The composite reliability is above 0.76 for all the factors showing adequate reliability (Wu, 2007). Convergent validity, which is reflected in the Average Variance Extracted (AVE>0.50), was above 0.51 for all factors.
Figure 1 – Model I

The results of model II are also satisfactory revealing a good model fit $X^2=143.255$, $p=0.000$, RMSEA= 0.043, GFI=0.965, CFI=0.977, TLI=0.971, NFI=0.956. Once again, the reliability and validity of the model II was assessed. Composite reliability which is ranging between 0.77 and 0.81 and AVE values for the four factors are all above 0.50. Finally, the discriminant validity was also examined for both models. The reliability and validity requirements were observed supporting the reliability and validity of the latent construct.
Discussion and Conclusion

The results show that in either model perceived destination brand personality has a positive effect on consumer satisfaction (0.59 for model I and 0.53 for model II) and that satisfaction with the golf destination Algarve has a positive influence on behavioural intentions (0.70 for model I and 0.83 for model II). Model testing suggests that consumer satisfaction mediates the effect of brand personality on brand loyalty. This study contributes to an increase in literature on brand personality and its effect on brand loyalty. The study suggests that brand personality dimensions and golf destination can affect consumers’ satisfaction with the destination and on loyalty. Consumers intend to recommend or return to the destination not only for their functional attributes but also for the symbolic values associated with the destination. The study explores how deep and meaningful relationships can be established between brand and consumers through symbolic and experiential consumption. Also the study examines the effect of consumer satisfaction in predicting brand loyalty. This is the first study that examines the influence of consumer satisfaction in relationship to brand personality and behavioural intentions applied to golf destinations. The study finds that consumer satisfaction mediates the effects of brand personality on behavioural intentions stressing the importance of satisfaction in brand experience. Finally golf destination stakeholders and DMOS should study/make use of personality characteristics of the destination and develop a brand image to match with consumers’ ideal self-concept. Destination brand personality can be used for positioning this type of destination in competitive markets. For example is a golf destination is found to be friendly, welcoming, pleasant, relaxed, reliable, etc. and that those correspond to satisfied and repeated tourists, marketing campaigns should design promotions that feature characteristics since consumers develop brand loyalty because the brand personality of the destination fits well with their lifestyle, and social identity.
References


Hotel Attributes: Comparing Business and Leisure Travelers' Preferences for Hotel Accommodation

Juho Pesonen  
Raija Komppula  
University of Eastern Finland  
juho.pesonen@uef.fi

Abstract

Hotels have two main groups of customers: leisure travelers and business travelers, the needs and preferences of which may differ. Even though hotel selection and factors affecting it has attracted a lot of research attention, there are still research gaps. Comparing the preferences of business and leisure travelers and the meaning of these differences for business practices and hospitality theory is one of those. Only few studies has touched this issue and often from a specific perspective, as e.g. Green hotels or a certain destination. The purpose of this paper is to broaden this field of research by presenting results of a study comparing the preferred hotel attributes of Finnish business and leisure travelers.

A questionnaire was designed that incorporated 54 hotel attributes from earlier literature regarding business and leisure hotel attributes. 329 business travelers and 828 leisure travelers rated the importance of each attribute when choosing a hotel for their business or leisure trip. The data was collected through an online panel data representing Finnish travelers.

The data was analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation to reduce the amount of information and find out the underlying structures and connection between attributes in the data. Among both groups, 10 categories of hotel attributes were found. The groups differ from each other regarding the content and importance of attributes. The most important difference is the price which was clearly more important for leisure travelers. Also a large number of other differences were identified and discussed.
Eye-Tracking-Based Model of Country Logotype Attractiveness

Lina Pilelienė
Viktorija Grigaliūnaitė
Arvydas Petras Bakanauskas
Vytautas Magnus University, Lithuania
l.pileliene@evf.vdu.lt

Introduction

Place marketing is becoming essential for every country, region, town, or other place of tourist attraction. According to Rainisto (2003), place marketing is used for multiple goals, such as to build a positive image for the place and attract enterprises, tourists, institutions, events, etc. (p. 12). Being a relatively new branch of marketing, place marketing often uses or adapts basic principles used for regular products and services; considering place as a product, place branding becomes a regular practice of place marketing.

Analyzing company branding Tero (2012) argues that brand is made up of three specific elements: name of brand, a graphic element, and a slogan. These three elements usually make up most logotypes associated to brands. Same elements are forming countries’ logotypes. If considering country-name as a name of brand, two remaining elements (a graphic element and a slogan) can lead to variations in logotype’s attractiveness. It can be hypothesized that variations with the combinations of elements of country logotype can attract attention differently, as well as provide different reactions. The problem analyzed in the article rises with the question: what combination of country logotype elements attracts most visual attention?

Literature review

Places can be branded in the same way as consumer goods and services (Caldwell & Freire, 2004). Despite the benefits associated with place branding, it is still an extremely difficult proposition to accomplish (Florek, Conejo, 2007). Conceptualizing place branding, Szondi (2007) distinguishes destination branding and country branding: ‘destination branding’ aims to attract visitors and boost tourism, while ‘country branding’ promotes economic, commercial and political interests at home and abroad. We consider country brand as a part of destination marketing, hypothesizing that:

H1: Country’s economic, commercial and political images have a direct impact on its touristic image.

Tero (2012) suggests that the first specific element of a brand is its name. According to Florek and Conejo (2007), unlike their first world counterparts, developing countries face additional challenges while building and managing their national brands: due to limited exports, political importance and media coverage, developing countries have a much smaller share of mind. We propose the hypothesis:

H2: Logotypes of developed and larger developing countries attract more visual attention than those of small developing countries.

Phillips, McQuarrie, and Griffin (2014) suggest that visual brand identity can be approached as the face of the brand. Achieving to develop a rich and clear brand identity, unique set of associations has to be formed (Ghodeswar, 2008). Herstein and Berger (2013) argue that “country branding by its very nature should be based on non-tangible

(representational) aspects, whereas regions and cities should be based on tangible aspects”. Countries should leverage the emotive or representational parts of their brand identity, while regions and cities, should leverage more functional facets (Caldwell, Freire, 2004). Representational attributes are linked to the individual’s self-expression, and functional attributes are the utilitarian aspects of the destinations. We hypothesize:

H3: Logotypes which have a visual association with a country attract less visual attention than those that have no visual association to a country.

The other essential element of country logotype is slogan. Kuvykaitė and Kerbelytė (2008) emphasize that the slogan usually highlights some exclusive country’s activity, the tone of the nation, unique geographical position. Moreover, several slogans (for different target groups) forming one theme are often used. However, a slogan is not an obligatory element of the logotype. We hypothesize:

H4: Logotypes with written slogans attract more visual attention than those without a slogan.

Color plays a significant role in triggering emotions in people (Patil, 2012). Memory color refers to the colors that are recalled in association with familiar objects (Kimura et al, 2013). Country’s flag can be considered as an object reflecting color familiarity. Patil (2012) states that hot colors lean towards activity, black and white are neutral, and cold colors are passive. According to Tero (2012), logotypes with white and black contrasts applied on a colored background are very easily seen. Patil (2012) argues that printed word activates the left brain whereas color activates the right brain; the combination of both impacts consumers with better recall, recognition and attention. We hypothesize:

H51: Logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum attract more visual attention than those with a cold one.

H52: Colorful logotypes attract more visual attention than those in black and white.

One aspect that seems so minor, but is extremely important is the type of font used to represent the brand name (Zaichkowsky, 2010). Tero (2012) emphasizes that logotypes using letters with shapes are easily remembered. We hypothesize:

H6: Logotypes using letters with shapes attract more visual attention than those with simple fonts.

Graphic elements give the brand a special look showing that special attention is given to details (Tero, 2012). We hypothesize:

H7: Complex logotypes (using a variety of graphic elements) attract more visual attention than simple.

Methods and material

The experimental research using eye-tracking system was provided. According to Pieters, Warlop, and Wedel (2002), consumers extract information during eye fixations, which reflect the moments of visual attention. Participants’ accumulated fixation duration on different country logotypes were measured.

During the eye-tracking procedure, different combinations of logotypes of European countries were shown for participants. For each hypothesis (except H1) selected logotypes emphasizing the specific attribute were presented at once on the computer screen (resolution: 1366x768). Computer-generated random order of logotypes on the screen was presented for the participants by applying Matlab R2012b software package. Tobii Eye-Tracking Glasses (30 Hz sampling rate) were used for the research and calibrated on each subject. Tobii Studio 3.2.3 software package was employed for the analysis of eye-tracking data. Participants’ mean and standard deviation values of the duration of all fixations within an area of interest (AOI) were calculated. The comparisons of latter calculations for different
AOIs regarding the specific attribute allowed supporting the hypotheses about the elements of country logotypes.

Achieving to substantiate the hypothesis $H_1$, the questionnaire about the economic, commercial, political, and touristic images of different European countries was provided for the participants.

**Results**

The main results of hypotheses testing are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
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| $H_1$ | Partially supported | Country’s commercial ($\beta = 0.377; p < 0.01$) and political ($\beta = 0.334; p < 0.01$) images have a statistically significant direct impact on its touristic image ($R^2 = 0.324$); country’s economic image has no statistically significant direct impact on its touristic image ($\beta = -0.039; p > 0.05$).  
* Logotypes of small developing countries (44.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those of developed (19.1 % of total viewing time) and larger developing (10.9 % of total viewing time) countries; logotypes of developed countries attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those of larger developing countries.  
* Touristic image of developed countries is statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) better than touristic image of larger developing and small developing countries; touristic image of small developing countries is statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) better than touristic image of larger developing countries.  |
| $H_2$ | Rejected             | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_3$ | Supported            | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_4$ | Rejected             | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_{51}$ | Rejected         | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_{52}$ | Supported          | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_6$ | Supported          | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
| $H_7$ | Supported          | Logotypes which have no visual association with a country (51.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those that have it (35.1 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with written slogans (46.7 % of total viewing time) and those without slogans (40.5 % of total viewing time).  
There is no statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in visual attention toward the logotypes with a dominating hot color spectrum (38.2 % of total viewing time) and those with a cold one (49.5 % of total viewing time).  
Colorful logotypes (51.9 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those in black and white (25.5 % of total viewing time).  
Logotypes using letters with shapes (60.3 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than those with simple fonts (32.1 % of total viewing time).  
Complex logotypes (54.5 % of total viewing time) attract statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) more visual attention than simple ones (29.1 % of total viewing time).  |
The analysis reveals that the combination of country logotype elements which attracts most visual attention is the following: no visual association with a country, colorful, complex, and using letters with shapes.

Logotypes of small developing countries attract most visual attention, though touristic image of latter countries is poor. On the other hand, touristic image of developed countries is superior, though logotypes of latter countries attract less visual attention. Finally, logotypes of larger developing countries attract least visual attention and the touristic image of latter countries is assessed as the worst.

Discussion and Conclusions

The analysis of the research results leads to the creation of country logotype attractiveness model (Figure 1). As it can be seen, four visual elements of country logotype have to be managed in order to make it attractive: associations, complexity, colors and letters. Nevertheless, not all of the countries' logotypes are worth investments.

![Country logotype attractiveness model](image)

Logotypes of small developing countries are not worth investments; to enhance the touristic image latter countries should allocate their investments into the improvement of commercial and political images. Touristic images of developed countries are superior; latter countries should allocate their investments into the improvement of the attractiveness of country logotype. Large developing countries should allocate their investments into both: the touristic image and the attractiveness of the country's logotype.

Acknowledgment

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References


From conflict to co-creation: Ski-touring on groomed slopes in Austria

Ulrike Pröbstl-Haider
University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences Vienna, Austria
ulrike.proebstl@boku.ac.at

Rainer Lampl
Green Solutions, Germany

Introduction
In Austria in the last four years a new activity by tourists and recreationists appeared: Ski-touring on groomed slopes. Instead of buying a ticket for the ski slopes and the cable car enterprise an increasing amount of tourists decided to ascend the mountain on the ski slope with touring skis. This activity traditionally applied outside ski areas and off-piste suddenly appeared within the boundaries of a ski area. The first reaction by the tourism entrepreneurs and industry was a fight against this activity calling these tourists “parasites”. The presented research focuses on this new user group and discusses this phenomenon against the concept of co-creation in tourism.

Our hypothesis was that if we are able to understand the motives and the desired experiences by this new segment of winter guests, we would be able to co-create a new tourism product for winter tourism in Austria. The research led to new product development in cooperation with a SME and its implementation in two destinations do far.

Literature Review
Current literature perceives the tourist no longer as a client booking a certain offer, but as a participant in the value creation process (Carù and Cova, 2007:7; Prebensen et al. 2013:241). Co-creation in tourism is defined as a development of tourism products in collaboration with the users. Co-creation starts including user feedbacks to improve the product and the various services on one hand and the satisfaction of future visitors on the other (Kim et al. 2012:14).

In theory co-creating experiences during a vacation often require interaction with other people (such as hosts and guests) and with products and services and result in a changed
experiences value for themselves and others (Prebensen et al. 2013). While the influence of customers based on information technology is already large, the discussion of co-creation using other means is still limited (Cabiddu et al. 2013). In order to be successful, co-creation in tourism requires a tourism supply which is open for new ideas, new experiences and new concepts proposed by its clients.

The presented case study deals with the co-creation of experiences, where the customer acts as an active agent, the reaction of the tourism branch and the start of a successful co-creation process in winter tourism.

In our example the tourism branch was confronted with “creative” clients developing and requesting new offers. The tourism branch showed no openness (see fig.1) to exchange new ideas and demand to discuss this new emerging trend. So it was the task of research to learn more about the values, motivation and desired experiences of this new user group.

**Methods**

In order to study the main motivation of this new user group, their desired experiences and also their criticism of the existing offers, we conducted an online survey in cooperation with German and Austrian Alpine Clubs. Overall, 520 tourists and recreationists attracted filled in the questionnaire (respondents from Austria 342, respondents from Germany 178). In this study everybody could participate interested in ski touring on slopes. The analyses showed that the survey included potential beginners (about 5 %) and experienced winter tourists (95%) attracted by this new activity.

The research findings were used to discuss a new offer with experts and managers of the ski-world “Amadé” in Austria, in order to use the information by the clients for the development of new infrastructure in co-creation.

**Results**

The analyses of the online survey revealed detailed information about this new potential target group and their main motives (see fig.2). The potential new target group is dominated by experienced winter tourists, mainly middle aged (majority between 35 and 55), belonging to higher income groups and the majority with higher academic education.

![Motivation of the new potential target group](image-url)
The main motives are improving personal health, sport and action, being active in the mountains. The reasons for doing this activity on groomed slopes and not backcountry, are that for this activity
- no information about avalanches is required,
- only little time for preparation is needed and
- it is not necessary to find a suitable team.

Asked about the demand for a new product development and related offer, the respondents are very interested requesting not only in special infrastructure, but also additional signage, a training area for beginners and educational offers. For this new offer including a special insurance the majority is willing to pay about 5 Euro if is included.

The survey revealed that there are excellent conditions to establish a new product. The demand mirrors well-known trends in tourism, such as health prevention, fitness in nature and flexibility in planning the activity.

Against this background a specific product development was discussed with the winter sport destination Ramsau/Styria. Similar to the trend to develop centres for running, nordic walking, hiking (see e.g. Roth et al.) the development of a clear defined product seemed to be necessary to attract new clients and to create a competitive advantage in this market. In the sensitive alone environment it is necessary on one hand to combine infrastructure and new facilities and to offer attractive nature experiences on the other. The promotion of the new product must also highlight the positive health effects to be successful.

Against this background and based on the cooperation with local experts, the development of a new tourism product was started and successfully implemented.

Discussion and conclusions

The research findings and the related case in Ramsau/Styria (Austria) study show that co-creation of experiences explicitly in the field of health, well-being and being in nature has a great potential. In this case this potential was not perceived by the established tourism industry, which was trying to down-size, regulating or hindering this new request and demand. Co-creation is only then a powerful tool if the provider is open for changes, adaptation and new concepts. Meanwhile the new infrastructure has been implemented and the new concept will be used in other destinations as well. Those destinations that start providing services for these skiers first might get competitive advantage.

Literature:


Wellbeing Tourism Policy Implementation: a ‘new institutionalist’ Multi-country Comparison

Fernando Correia
Hull University Business School at Scarborough, UK
f.correia@hull.ac.uk

Anna Dluzewska
Kazimir the Great University of Bydgoszcz, Poland

Stela Baltova
International Business School, Bulgaria

Anja Tuohino
University of Eastern Finland

Abstract

Since the publication of the Millenium Ecosystem Assessment reports in 2005, the concept of ‘ecosystem services’ as basic foundations of human well-being has been gradually transitioning to policy-making discourses and initiatives in multiple areas, from food security to green infrastructure or health provision. Tourism is one of the latest areas to show signs of this emerging trend, with some policy arenas (and industry players) co-opting and adapting the concept to reframe the synergies and interdependences between the sector, human wellbeing and the natural environment these rely on. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the ‘wellness tourism’ related-sectors have been the ones where such interdependencies have been made more explicit in the past, mostly through industry-led initiatives. However, recent developments indicate a willingness by (some) policy-making bodies to move beyond ‘wellness’ into a more wide-encompassing - and nature-based - ‘wellbeing’ tourism focus that encompasses a range of recreation activities and services. An example of such is the Finnish Tourism Strategy that includes wellbeing tourism as one of its key focus areas, but doing so in a way that tries to maximise the possibilities and resources of the Finnish countryside for economic development purposes. A different approach appears in the UK where, in turn, is its new environmental policy (heavily based on the ecosystem services concept) that ‘invites’ the consideration of tourism as an instrument to generate nature-based wellbeing and societal benefits. Given the early stages of such policy trends and their relative novelty in terms of focus, our paper will then focus on issues of early policy implementation, an area that has received only limited attention in tourism studies, and rarely theoretically-informed by the political studies’ literature.

We agree with Hall & Jenkins (1995) that tourism policy is both influenced by and a consequence of factors such as economic, social and cultural characteristics of a specific society, but also the values and ideologies of its political environment, conceptions of the role of the state, existing institutional frameworks, etc. However, much tourism research often ignores the centrality of political ‘traditions’ and values for the understanding of tourism policy creation and implementation. Contemporary policies and patterns of governance are shaped by history, institutional and national governmental traditions, and national policy styles. There is in principle no reason why the situation should be any different in terms of tourism policy creation and implementation.

Therefore, we draw on new institutionalism theories for their focus on contingency on institutions as limiting frames for policy development, and make an exploration of how such
contextual frames condition the (actual or potential) development of ‘wellbeing tourism’ as a policy concept in three countries with distinctive political traditions and backgrounds. These include the UK, as representative of the anglo-saxon and neo-liberal political model, Finland as an example of the social democratic Nordic model, and Poland, as an example of continental centralized model. Our purpose is to progress the tourism literature away from the generic “policy recipes” it tends to fall on when issues of policy implementation are discussed, but to use these contrasting examples to generate more meaningful insights, reflections and recommendations to researchers, practitioners and policy-makers from nations along the European political spectrum.
Consumer' Tactics for Savvy Decision-making

Alma Raissova
Lund University, Sweden
Alma.Raissova@ism.lu.se

Introduction
Servicescapes are planned and constructed for the customers' convenience (Bitner, 1992). Customers get messages about servicescapes from the ambient and physical design and the elements of social environment (J. Baker, 1987). However, in service places customers may experience various constraints (Daniels, Drogin Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005; Small, Darcy, & Packer, 2012).

The aim of this research is to investigate how customers do experience constraints in service places. The research gap is addressed through a specific case of how blind and visually impaired travelers act and move in hospitality servicescapes. Blind people use only four senses, and can better translate all possible constraints in the service places. The role of blind and VIPs in this research is twofold: they are travelers and a hotel guests.

Literature review
Tourism and leisure researchers inform that people with disabilities (PwD) develop strategies to overcome various constraints in service places (S. M. Baker, 2006; Daniels, et al., 2005; Small, et al., 2012). PwD plan their activities by handling “their grocery list” to put the items in the cart, or taking a guide dog which helps to find dog-fancier for accompanying in a store’ layout (Baker, 2006:45). Blind and visually impaired customers act strategically, because they wish to keep control and demonstrate the competence (Small, et al., 2012). But constraints in service places are “ongoing, interrelated, and nonlinear” (Daniels et al., 2005:925). Hence, it is quite difficult to act strategically toward unexpected constraints.

The research applies the concept of constraints from the time-geography framework (Hägerstrand, 1970) and the concept of tactics (De Certeau, 1984). The concept of constraints accounts why the acts and the moves of the customers are constantly changing. The concept of tactics explains why blind and visually impaired guests develop different tactics. A complimentary usage of these concepts helps to screw and expand the theory of servicescape.

Time-geography framework underlines emerging nature of constraints (Thrift & Pred, 1981) in hospitality servicescapes. Acts and moves of every individual depend not only from constructed physical environment, but also from her/his ability to manage resources around (Hägerstrand, 1970). Individual' intention might be changed next moment, because of constraints “invented” by other individuals or/and as a result of individual’ interaction with “elements of natural environment” (Pred, 1977:209). Therefore, time-geography framework underlines different abilities of individuals to overcome similar barriers and depicts emerging constraints, which individuals have to deal with (Shoval, Mckercher, Birenboim, & Ng, 2013). Once customers get in a hotel, they can only get services in the forms authorized by service providers. When constrained customers are failing to use strategies, they develop other techniques to take attention of service place (Quinlan & Bates, 2012).

The concept of tactics helps to understand how customers answer to the emerging constraints. In de Certeau’s language tactics developed by blind guests are resistance to the control in service places. Constructed service places often ignore the needs of blind and VIPs by inconvenient design (Kaufman-Scarborough & Childers, 2009) and/or social surroundings (S. M. Baker, Stephens, & Hill, 2002). Tactics occur in an alien territory and tactics are non-planned (De Certeau, 1984). Quinlan and Bates (2012) retell a protest story of wheelchair
people using de Certeau’s theoretical writings. Researchers consider theacts of the protestors as tactical. The protest occurred in a city center, a place controlled by city administration. Although protestors agreed in advance to meet at the city center, their further step as a dance movement on wheelchairs in front of the bus was not planned. Protestors also did not plan that their non-disabled colleagues alert the bus passengers on what is happening. In addition, the idea to invite media also came to protestors spontaneously (Quinlan & Bates, 2012).

Tactics are aimed to save time without breaking the rules (De Certeau, 1984). Customers are forced to interact with constructed physical and social environment and follow the rules developed by service providers. To overcome emerging constraints customers make use of the moments to get expected services.

In contrast, strategies are tools of planners (De Certeau, 1984). Though blind and VIPs may plan their travel and shopping activities, their acts and moves are controlled by service places. Apart from personal plan of activity and desire to control this activity, blind and VIPs are not the owners of service spaces. Hence, people use tactics to negotiate strategies that were set for them by a dominating group (Manovich, 2008).

Methods

The study population is composed of blind and VIPs from Synskadades Riksförbund’s (SRF), Helsingborg, Sweden and Republican Library for Blind and Visually Impaired, Almaty, Kazakhstan. This research combines individual and focus group interview and observation methods to illustrate how blind and VIPs move and act in hospitality servicescapes. Interview and observation participants shared with their travel experiences in hotels and resorts in Sweden, Kazakhstan, Germany, Japan, Turkey, and China. In total I interviewed and observed 56 blind and VIPs. The age of participants is ranged from 25 and above. To minimize a risk of misunderstanding between the researcher and interview participant (Silverman, 2001) I used individual interviews. Although individual interview was time-consuming, there was a chance to raise additional question to specify previously observed incidents and ask for their clarification. In contrast, focus group interview was quick and comparatively easy for collecting research data (interviews included from 3 to10 participants). Group meetings gave an opportunity “to involve” everyone to share their point of view, and encouraged those who thought that they have nothing to say (Kitzinger, 1995). Go-along observation combined interview and observation with moving alongside participant(s) (Kusenbach, 2003). There was no need for the researcher to apply oral imagination of the physical place, because go-along technique acts artlessly in the field (Jones, Bunce, Evans, Gibbs, & Hein, 2008). This method helped to understand why observed people acted by a certain way (Carpiano, 2009). Researcher was also an escort person for blind and visually impaired travelers.

Research and results

A majority of service providers assume that most visually impaired customers have usable vision and are able to walk and get services by their own (Kaufman-Scarborough & Childers, 2009). However it is far from the reality. Ambience and design in hospitality servicescapes may help (or not) VIPs to develop different mobility tactics. For instance, VIPs often identify eating establishments by the sound of flatware (focus group interview, Almaty, Kazakhstan, 08.21.2013). In unfamiliar spaces VIPs move alongside the wall for orientation purposes. (hotel observation with VIP, Almaty, Kazakhstan, 07.17.2012). Noise of vacuum cleaning or sounds of elevator were convenient for navigation. (focus group interview, Almaty, Kazakhstan, 08.21.2013). Next quote illustrates how VIP managed air quality in hotel accommodation: It is rare to have an open window in a hotel room instead there is usually an
air conditioner. To make the air fresh I always try to leave the door open. (woman, GI VIP, focus group interview, Almaty, Kazakhstan, 08.21.2013). Observation activity allowed the researcher to discover various tactics, which helped hotel guests to avoid emerging constraints. For instance blind people use touch to check how much water is in the glass. They place their forefinger on one side of the glass’ edge and fix a bottle on another side. The fingertip turns inside the glass and helps to check the glass’ capacity. (observation, Solhaga Majenfors, Sweden, June 1-3, 2012). Blind clients sometimes touch the served meal with their fingers to check the space around the plate and to control any food that is placed back down on their plate. (observation, Helsingor, Denmark, May 12, 2012). For most VIPs displaying competence in the marketplace is of utmost important, therefore confident and successful acts recognize their potential and realize self-aspiration (Baker, 2006).

Discussion and conclusions

Blind and VIPs in our research developed different tactical acts and moves not only to overcome constraints in hospitality service spaces, but also to save time and to benefit service environment (De Certeau, 1984). A common marketplace offers a number of substantial barriers for VIPs (Baker, 2006). A desire to be treated as a regular client force VIPs to act. They often develop different skills, which people without disabilities may not possess, such as strong memory, smell, and sensor skills of visually impaired (Odette et al., 2003). VIPs’ desire for independence in a marketplace is beforehand to simple fulfilling social and personal needs (Baker, et al., 2002). Researchers focus on social dimension of servicescape and recommend retailers recognize uniqueness of consumers with vision impairment. These publications discuss resistance of visually impaired clients to the barriers in service places. Our research findings reveal that servicescapes generate various constraints, which restrict the acts and the moves of blind and VIPs in a service space. Planned and constructed servicescapes draw an analogy with strategies developed by service providers to attract more customers. Restricted customers are aimed to get expected services and therefore resist constraints by developing different tactics. Based on all reasons above, constrained customers act tactically rather strategically to interact with servicescapes. Consequently, servicescapes are for all, but with different tactics.

Research implications

Our research findings reveal significance of time and space dimensions in customers’ interactions with servicescapes. Three factors of servicescapes may produce constraints, which restrict customers in time and in space. The emerging constraints make customers less served. Aimed to get expected services and to save time, blind and VIPs develop different tactics to overcome unexpected constraints. Hence, constrained customers are forced to apply additional time and efforts to get expected services.

Based on time-geography approach (Hagerstrand, 1970) to service research, our research investigation suggests that customers may differently perceive a similar service environment. This is in the line with Small and her colleagues (2012) on the statement that two VIPs with a similar level of visual impairment differently perceive similar barriers. Therefore, service providers should be aware that ambience and design of service place, as well as unskilled personnel may differently influence customers’ activities.

Reference


Lake-destination image assessment: the case of the Alqueva reservoir, Portugal

Ana Isabel Rodrigues
Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal
ana.rodrigues@ipbeja.pt

Antónia Correia
CEFAGE, Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Portugal

Metin Kozak
School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Turkey

Introduction
This study focuses on the concept of destination image more specifically on its nature (Gallarza et al., 2004), structure (Baloglu and McClearly, 1999) or dimensions (Beerli and Martin, 2004), proposing relationships between the different levels of evaluations within its structure (image dimensions and overall image). The proposal here is to examine the dynamic nature of DI rather than applying a more static approach (Baloglu and McClearly, 1999), but now specially applied to the lake tourism context. The Alqueva reservoir as an lake-destination area (LDA) located in the south of Portugal, the Alentejo region, will be the illustrative case. Lake tourism is a very recent academic field of tourism research, more specifically in the destination marketing area. In fact, image assessment studies in lake-destination areas (LDA) have been scarce in DI literature (Tuohino and Pitkänen, 2004).

The goal of this paper is to determine the main dimensions involved in the image formation of this type of destination, their influence on the overall image and also to perform an initial approximation of a lake tourist profile. To address this, two conceptual models to assess the image of the Alqueva reservoir were proposed. The pictorial image was considered in this study since in the last two decades DI studies have showed the benefits of using the pictorial element in DI formation (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2002; MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997). In order to determine what image dimensions most influence the lake-destination image formation, two models were tested.

These objectives are reflected in the following research questions: (1) to develop an image analysis of an LDA, determining the image dimensions and items that formed this image; (2) to determine the influence of each image dimension on a lake-destination image formation; (3) to analyse which type of image (attribute-based or photo image) exercises more influence on the overall image of an LDA.

Literature review
There has been an extensive literature research in destination image over the past forty years of research (Rodrigues et al., 2012). Various meta-analysis papers were published in the last 20 years (Gallarza et al., 2002; Pike, 2002), bringing to light different theories and methods. The literature suggests that DI construct lies at the very centre of multi-items constructs (Gartner, 1989), where different dimensions or components are used to define and measure it (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and MacKleary, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004). Therefore, the attribute-intensive directive was the approach that have characterized the first two decades of DI research, determining the quantitative methodologies used in
empirical image studies since the construct’s appearance in the 1970s (e.g. Haahti, 1986).
However, one of the most cited problems was the fact that the identified attributes may not be
the most important in consumer decision process (Gartner, 1989). Based on this assertion,
new methodological approaches in assessing DI started to be applied more grounded on
imagery processing-approach (MacInnis and Price, 1987). An holistic or gestalt impression
started to be capture (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991, 1993) and photo-based methodologies
found in DI research a prosperous field of study (e.g. MacKay and Fesemayer, 1997;
Fairweather and Swaffield, 2002).

Methods & materials
The empirical study was carried out in the Alqueva reservoir located in the south of
Portugal, in the Alentejo region. A convenience sample of Portuguese as the main market
visiting this LDA was considered. 500 questionnaires were correctly filled in and considered
as valid respondents. Data was gathered between August 2014 and January 2015.
The questionnaire comprised six sections with 23 questions broken down into 97
variables. Section A regarded the visit characterization; section B had a set of 39 attribute’s-
based images depicted from previous stages of the research to assess the DI of the Alqueva
lake; section C comprised photo ranking where each respondent was required to rank photos
from different DI categories; section D was a series of open questions designed to allow
respondents to think freely about the destination (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993); section E
covered the socio-demographic profile of lake tourists; and, finally section F had an open
question to allow respondents to spontaneously express their opinions about the destination.
Thereafter, overall image was measured using a five-point rating (Baloglu and MacCleary,
1999).

Conclusively, data were processed with SPSS 22.0 and AMOS statistical package.
Following the usual procedure there are two stages in data analysis (Anderson & Gerbing,
1988): (1) an exploratory analysis of the scale reliability based on Cronbach’s alpha and item-
total correlation was performed using confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, a study of the
influence of each image dimension on both attribute and photo-based image was carried out;
(2) a study of the influence of these dimensions on tourists’ overall image of the destination
using a structural equation model was performed.

Research and results
For this study two hypothesized models, Model I (Attribute-Based Image) and Model II
(Photo Image) were performed and twelve hypotheses were derived. The a priori
specifications of the models were based on a model generation approach, which occurs when
an initial model does not fit the data and is subsequently modified by the researcher. The
altered model is tested again with the same data until it makes theoretical sense, is reasonably
parsimonious and its correspondence to the data is acceptably close. Through employing SPSS
and AMOS data analysis various statistical tools such as correlation analysis and structural
equation modelling were included. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of scale reliability
based on Cronbach’s alpha and item-total correlation was performed. The results of EFA,
confirmed by CFA, show that various image dimensions influence the attribute-based image
and photo-based image (“natural resources”, “infrastructures”, “tourist leisure and
recreation”, “culture and heritage” and “atmosphere”). However, “infrastructures” had to be
eliminated in the case of attribute-based image.
To analyse convergent validity of the scale, a CFA was performed using the maximum
likelihood (ML) and generalized least squares (GLS) robust method of estimation. The initial
models did not offer a good fit, so following the recommendations of the program and always
taking into account that changes should be reasonable from the conceptual point of view, some variables were eliminated. Subsequently, the reliability and validity of both models was assessed through factor loading, composite reliability, convergent and discriminant validity indexes. The models finally obtained a good fit. The CFA of the measurement model specifies the relationship of each observed variable with the latent constructs. Considering that all the constructs are freely intercorrelated, an analysis was performed on each construct separately before testing the measurement and structural model. The correlation analysis showed that the latent factors were correlated, suggesting that the structural model could be tested.

After this, a structural equation analysis was performed to determine the influence of the attribute-based image and photo-based image on tourists’ overall image of the destination. Several authors considered that overall image is an independent component of destination image (Baloglu and McClearly, 1999). Overall and comparing the result, this paper suggests that it is photo-based image that most contributes to the overall perceptions of the Alqueva Lake as an LDA, more than attribute-based image.

Discussion and conclusions

The goal of this paper was to determine the main dimensions involved in the image formation of LDAs. Concerning attribute-based image, the most important image dimension is “atmosphere”, followed by “culture and heritage”, “leisure and recreation” and, finally “natural resources”. Regarding photo-based image, the findings shows “culture and heritage” as the most relevant image dimension with “atmosphere”, “leisure and recreation”, “natural resources” and “infrastructures” coming after. These results are in line with the idea that a lake can be a landscape with strong emotions and memories associated with it and grounded on the atmosphere of the lake or a more functional environment for various activities (Tuohino and Pitkänen, 2004). Hence, the findings seems to support the growing importance of affective image approach on DI studies (Martin and Bosque, 2008), confirmed by the relevance of “atmosphere” as an image dimension. Conjointly, an image analysis of the destination was also developed. A set of image attributes was detected that formed an image of an LDA such as the one studied.

From a practical point of view, this study contributes to deepening the understanding of destination image construct more applied to LDAs, and which is critical for marketing authorities to implement marketing strategies. The conclusions have relevance to the current strategic plan initiative to build a successful brand of the Alqueva Lake. Advertising and promotion of this destination to markets has been totally absent since the reservoir was established in 2002. From a branding perspective there should be cohesion in positioning an LDA, in this case the Alqueva reservoir, as a more local destination within larger entities such as the Alentejo region where the lake is located. According to Wang et al. (2005) each destination may hold some strong or distinctive images; however, a small destination may find it hard to distinguish itself from its larger partners.

The present study also indicates the importance of employing more than one technique to assess the attributes of a particular DI (Prebensen, 2007). Visual-based research has great opportunities and challenges in tourism studies (Feighey, 2003), particularly in the DI field (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997), where photo sorting tasks, combining verbal and pictorial stimuli appear powerful in calling forth tourists’ assessments of a DI (Jacobsen, 2007).

Finally, future lines of research should be directed towards defining reliable and valid scales of image measurement for LDA. Development of this scale could be a useful tool for marketing management of this type of destinations. Moreover, since LDAs are distinct in their nature and level of tourism development, it will be interesting to test this model on other LDAs and compare the results. These findings would lead to defining a typology of LDAs.
REFERENCES
Well-being tourism experiences – Products and services to current and future tourists

Juulia Räikkönen
Miia Grénman
Turku School of Economics
juulia.raikkonen@utu.fi

Introduction

Personal health and well-being now intrigue individuals more than ever, and consequently, they have also become significant motives for consumption. This is partly due to the increased economic affluence, demographic shifts, commercialization of leisure, and changes in values and lifestyles. (Suontausta & Tyni, 2005; Yeoman, 2008; Hjalager et al., 2011). Furthermore, consumption has become a culturally accepted means of seeking happiness, well-being, and a better quality of life (Burroughs & Rindfireisch, 2002). As the relationship between materialism and well-being is questioned, some researchers suggest that through consumption also immaterial well-being, meaning of life, self-development, and experiences are pursued (McLarney & Chung, 1999; Burroughs & Rindfireisch, 2002; Yeoman, 2011).

Numerous studies highlight the growing commercial well-being, i.e., the wellness market (Suontausta & Tyni, 2005; Pilzer, 2007; Yeoman, 2008). Wellness consumption has become a major consumption trend, and its potential is widely recognized (e.g. Pilzer, 2007). The wellness market branches out to various other industries, e.g., tourism, fitness, beauty, culture, entertainment, technology, and pharmaceuticals, providing products and services mainly to healthy individuals who wish to feel healthier and better-looking, slow down the effects of aging, and prevent sickness (Suontausta & Tyni, 2005; Pilzer, 2007; SRI International, 2010; 2013).

Wellness refers to holistic well-being, i.e., the balance of physical, mental, and social well-being. It is often understood as a lifestyle that becomes evident in mundane consumption, such as nutrition choices, physical exercise, stress management, and the use of health-related products and services (Müller & Lanz Kauffman, 2001; Nahrstedt, 2004; Suontausta & Tyni, 2005). Wellness can also be considered as experience consumption. Besides health benefits, individuals pursue enjoyment or indulgence, and construct self-identity. Central to wellness consumption is, however, the active role of consumers in creating consumption experiences (cf. Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Vargo & Lusch 2004).

Wellness is no longer a niche market, but grows and diversifies in terms of products and services, time and place, as well as customer segments (e.g. Mintel, 2004; Yeoman, 2008). The estimated value of the global wellness industry is 3.4 trillion USD. Tourism is a major sector of the wellness industry with the share of nearly 500 billion USD (SRI International, 2013). In Finland, health-related tourism is considered so significant that well-being tourism is one of the four main marketing themes of The Finnish Tourism Board.

Previous research on well-being tourism has examined, e.g., tourist motivation (Konu, 2010), destination development (Björk et al., 2011), and various development projects (Tuohino, 2012). However, more research on commodification, product development, and marketing on well-being tourism is needed – especially on the level of tourism businesses (Tuohino, 2012). The purpose of this study is to examine the supply of the Finnish well-being tourism market. Through qualitative data, we analyze what kind of well-being tourism products, services, and experiences are offered to the current tourists, and how the service
providers of the well-being tourism sector are developing their offerings in order to respond to the needs and expectations of the future tourists.

**Literature review**

The tourism industry exists to provide consumers with various experiences (Morgan et al., 2010). In the last decades, customer experience has become a key concept in marketing literature and the underlying logic and managerial rationale for experience marketing is well established (Tynan & McKechnie, 2009). Pine and Gilmore (1999) viewed experiences as series of memorable events that a company stages in order to engage consumers in a personal manner. In recent debates, however, the emphasis has shifted from staging or producing experiences to creating and co-creating experiences, which recognize the active role of consumers in determining their own experiences (e.g. Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

There is a consensus that experiences cannot be produced or sold by tourism organizations (Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Walls et al., 2011). This, however, does not mean that tourism organizations cannot influence their customers’ experiences. A tourism experience consists of the influential realm, i.e., the external elements that have an impact on the experience (physical and social aspects, products and services) and personal realm that cannot be easily influenced (e.g. knowledge, memory, emotion, and self-identity) (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

This study focuses on the products and services, which the tourism industry offers in order to create experiences. In Finland, well-being tourism is often examined on the basis of the strategy work of the Finnish Tourist Board (FTB, 2005; 2009), according to which, health-related tourism is divided into medical tourism and well-being tourism (Figure 1). The main motive for medical tourism is treating diseases and curing illnesses through medical procedures. Well-being tourism, in turn, focuses, besides maintaining and enhancing health and well-being, on activities that offer pleasure, enjoyment, and pampering. Occupational health care/workplace wellness can fall into both, whether the focus is on rehabilitation or prevention.

![Figure 2. Health-related tourism (FTB, 2005; 2009)](image-url)
Well-being tourism includes numerous products and services related to spa and sauna, silence and relaxation, various treatments, and physical activity. When these products and services are offered in high-quality settings and environments with a high-quality service, they can be considered as wellness offerings (FTB, 2005; 2009). Consequently, wellness goes beyond well-being in terms of quality and feelings of luxury.

The supply of the Finnish well-being tourism consists of the basic well-being offering “Finnrelax” that includes elements of getting away from everyday routines, relaxation, peace and nature, as well as exploring Finnish culture through, e.g. retreats, Finnish sauna, and food. In addition, two specifically targeted offerings have been identified. “Health and fitness” consists of different physical activities, professional training, and the use of Finnish wellness technology. “Pampering” comprises spa and beauty treatments in a high-quality settings offering passive enjoyment, and is the closest to the understanding of the wellness tourism. (FTB, 2009; Björk et al., 2011).

Research questions and methodology

The purpose of this study is to examine the current and future supply of the Finnish well-being tourism market. Accordingly, two research questions were formulated:

RQ1: What kind of well-being tourism products, services, and experiences are offered to the current tourists?

RQ2: How the service providers of the well-being tourism sector are developing their offerings in order to respond to the needs and expectations of the future tourists?

The data consists of structured qualitative interviews that were conducted in Matka 2013 tourism fair in Helsinki (January 18th, 2013). The data consist of 23 interviews, of which 16 were tourism businesses, six destination marketing organizations (DMOs), and one governmental organization. Interviewees (20) were selected among tourism fair exhibitors who, according to their own perception, operate in the well-being tourism sector. Additionally, three organizations were selected by the researchers as they were clearly significant actors within the sector.

The interview questions were formed by the researchers based on previous literature (e.g., SRI International, 2010). The interviews were conducted by students of an advance level tourism course. Notably, some interviews were concise and strictly followed the predetermined structure, while others were more discursive, but still covered all the themes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed.

In the content analysis, data was themed according to research questions. The first theme covered issues related to the development of the well-being tourism trend and its current state including, e.g., the main products and services as well as the customer segments. The second theme consisted of plans regarding to the future such as changes in the demand and supply of well-being tourism.

Expected results and discussion

As the analysis is still ongoing, only preliminary results can be suggested. It is clear that well-being tourism is understood as a very wide sector including not only offerings directly linked to health and well-being (cf. Table 1) and representing the basic offering “Finnrelax”, but also various activities like skiing, diving, and golf, that fall into the product category of “Health and fitness”. Naturally, the various spas focus on the “Pampering” offering with varying levels of luxury. The DMOs further widened the scope by relating well-being tourism also to various cultural attractions. To some extent, interviewees drew parallels between the domains of well-being (physical, mental, social, and spiritual) and the motives of leisure tourism (physical, cultural, and social motives, entertainment, and religion) in general.
The service providers felt that, within the well-being sector, something new is expected every year. Besides typical well-being offerings, the organizations were developing new products such as sleep coaching, salt therapy, pole dancing, detox-packages, and sensory walks. Furthermore, some were concerned that the organization (products, facilities, or personnel) did not signal the right image of wellness.

The typical customer segments were senior travelers and couples, but many respondents highlighted the growing amount of younger customers, e.g., groups of young women. The domestic tourists formed the main market, but Russian and Japanese tourists were especially mentioned. In relation to outbound tourism, besides popular destinations like Estonia and Thailand, well-being packages to Canary Islands and China were also offered.

All respondents identified the expanding wellness trend, but some pointed out, that due to the increasing supply and competition, the amount of customers is even decreasing. Furthermore, the organizations developed their offerings mainly by themselves, but many stated that ideas and concrete assistance in product development and marketing was needed.

References


Boost to the Rural Tourism Services in Eastern Finland

Ilona Sares  
University of Lapland  
Rovaniemi, Finland  
ilona.sares@gmail.fi

PhD Hilkka Lassila  
Savonia University of Applied Sciences

Professor Satu Miettinen  
University of Lapland

Introduction
Tourism as an industrial sector is growing strongly and influencing to tourists as well as to the developing of tourism sites. The tourism product is usually described as a service package, which consists of several service modules, such as accommodation, transportation and different kind of activities. These products are typically experience-centric services, which are designed to engage customers emotionally, physically, intellectually or even spiritually experiences (Shaw, Bailey & Williams 2011). Usually the developers of tourism products focus on the technical properties of the product rather than the experiences of the customers (Komppula 2005). Nowadays tourists are seeking sustainable tourist services, which give them memorable experiences and wellbeing. Pure nature in rural area in Finland will be the good environment to produce this kind of tourist products.

We need new ways to approach developing process when creating tourism products in Eastern Finland. Today tourism business doesn't co-operate regularly with other sectors in rural areas when offering services to tourists. Customer satisfaction is the key element in evaluating process of services. The producer has to know what are the key elements to build excellent tourism products for customers. Could creative tourism and service design give answers when we create and develop tourism products?

The aim of this paper is to show the structure of tourism products by using the model of Smith (1997) and applying it to develop tourism product in Finnish rural area. The other aim is to discuss about the role of creative tourism when developing tourism products. This paper is discussing creative tourism production where the user orientation and engagement are essential.

The model will be applied ongoing service and product development project “Internationalizing the local food producers”. Theoretical framework is constructed from the thematic of creative tourism and service design applied in tourism production. The data has been using this theoretical framework.

Theoretical background
According to Smith (1994), in ideally: “tourism product meet marketplace demands, are produced cost-efficiently, and are based on the wise use of the cultural and natural resources of the destination”. He presented that tourism products are generic products, which consists five elements; physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom of choice and involvement (Smith, 1994).

Service design is establishing itself as a method for developing services and service businesses (Miettinen, 2007). Service design process has characteristics from both iterative design process goals and Human Centered Design (ISO9241-210, 2010). Service design is a
process: an iterative cycle of design, test and measure and redesign. The Human Centered Design process model can be applied to involve problem framing, information gathering and interpretation, solution ideation, development and evaluation in developing an existing service or in designing a new service solution. Human-centered design thinking captures unexpected insights and produces innovative solutions that more precisely reflect what consumers want.

Creative tourism has its roots from 1997-1999 EUROTEX -project. A group of researchers and developers noticed that a value of a craft product is bound to the experience of the production process. They developed this idea further to creative tourism. Richards (2010) have defined creative tourism as: "Tourism which offers visitors the opportunity to develop their creative potential through active participation in courses and learning experiences which are characteristic of the holiday destination where they are undertaken”.

Creative tourism processes thus engage tourists in creative activities and also stimulate creative processes and production in a particular location. Creativity in tourism can be achieved in several ways: as a more passive tourism experience where tourists consume creative experience for example by watching spectacles such as traveling art exhibitions or festivals. Another type of activity would be visiting creative spaces that have an arts, architecture and/or design focus. In creative spaces tourists enjoy the atmosphere and the learning process is already more interactive. In creative tourism the tourists themselves participate in creative activities. Skills development is part of the creative experience. In this kind of tourism tourists themselves actively learn from their environment and apply knowledge to develop their own skills. (Richards and Wilson 2006)

**Methods & materials**

This research project will be carried out with the action research approach. The aim of the project is to develop rural tourism business. In action research the researcher will be the trigger of change. The action research process is cyclical, typically comprising the following steps: identifying the problem; gathering data; design; performing the actions; analyzing and reflecting on the results; capturing the knowledge; and planning the next steps (Ferrance, 2000; Waddell, 2007). The action research framework is constructed around service design process which follows similar process.

The cycles of action research are constructed around case studies which include and engage local public companies in creative tourism product development. The case studies are designed and constructed to produce data which would respond and give understanding about research questions. The essential feature of action research is testing ideas in practice as a means of increasing knowledge about or improving the target issue (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). Each case study is documented and analyzed. Theory based content analysis is used for analyzing the research data. Analytical apparatus is constructed using theories and thematic relevant to this research: The project utilizes a pragmatic, explorative service design research approach. Service design approach works as means for acquiring research data not only about the research context and problematic in that but about solution models and prototypes that can make transformation.

In this project we will utilize service design as the framework for the participatory research process. But while seeking to benefit from service design methods and tools, we will also analyze critically and develop further its potential as a multi-disciplinary, holistic approach in development research.

At Eastern Finland the current status research among food, tourism and creative cluster industries has been done 2013. Altogether 20 viable companies that are geographically close to each others were contacted and motivated to co-operation workshops where new models
of co-operation have been generated to build a network for international tourism business. Workshops started 2014 and for finding fruitful spirit in co-operation service design tools was used. According to Mattelmäki (2006) using co-design helps network creating process. In this process a variety of different co-design tools are used and they all help team members to share their ideas aloud with others, think aloud and also justify different solutions.

Action research process is on the first step now, so this is the picture of the starting point. Tourism product has been modeled by using workshops with photos, videotapes and research diary. The next step will be to use this Smith’s model to develop tourism products by using the methods of service design and role of creative tourism. The research will have an action research approach.

**Research and results**

Smith has developed a model to separate tourism service onto different layers to be able to have a closer look at them. The importance between different levels varies but all of them are present in a tourism product (Smith 1997, 588). When developing tourist product to Eastern Finland, we look it through these five different levels: physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom of choice and involvement. This has been successful way to create a niche product and thus it can be used when developing creative tourism service cluster to Eastern Finland.

Emotion, stories and community are the key words and key themes when we have started to create new tourist services. At workshops, many of the entrepreneurs met each other for the first time. For the co-operation the first step has been to get to know and to find a common language among stakeholders. During four one-day-workshops this could be sensed: people got closer and started to share ideas with each other.

In the next table are showed by using Smith’s five elements model the structure of tourism product in rural village after first step of action research.
### **Tourism engagement: co-creating well-being. Proceedings of the 6th Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference**

#### PHYSICAL PLANT

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<tr>
<td>The basis of an tourism experience is built around a physical place. This can be a hotel, yacht, a site, a natural park. The design and culture as well as quality of this place has an impact to a traveller.</td>
<td>Hotel-type accommodation close to lake or river that are physically close to different tiny enterprises, also wild herb business. Villages with shops. Finnish forests and countryside.</td>
<td>Hotel-type accommodation close to lake or river that are physically close to different tiny enterprises, also wild herb business. Village with shops. Finnish forests and countryside.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SERVICE

<table>
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<tr>
<th>SMITH</th>
<th>Developing: EAST FINLAND</th>
<th>After co-design EAST FINLAND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The physical plant needs a variety of services to make it useful for tourists.</td>
<td>Tourism services are not working together with creative sector + wild herb enterprises regularly, few courses have been arranged to some gourmet cooks but courses have not been linked with basic tourism sector. Wellness sector services available. Riding possibilities.</td>
<td>Six rural accommodation sites are the heart of the services. Two of them are always linked to use same creative sector services: multisensing trip to a National Park where a Fairy of the Forest tells the guidelines to the usage of wild plants and shows, how they are collected and prepared for a lunch is one model that is offered to travelers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### HOSPITALITY

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<th>SMITH</th>
<th>Developing: EAST FINLAND</th>
<th>After co-design EAST FINLAND</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Hospitality is an expression of welcome by local residents to tourists arriving in their community&quot;</td>
<td>Regional service providers could strengthen their cooperation - this could give more value to tourist and at the best feeling of hospitality.</td>
<td>At co-design workshops the entrepreneurs were testing each others services. In this a warm collaboration started to form between them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### FREEDOM OF CHOICE

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<tr>
<th>SMITH</th>
<th>Developing: EAST FINLAND</th>
<th>After co-design EAST FINLAND</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A person can't feel satisfaction and relaxed if one can't have the possibility to make choices. &quot;Freedom implies not just choice, but also the potential for happy surprises and spontaneity.&quot;</td>
<td>Every service needs decision to take it or leave it. Plenty of freedom when making decisions.</td>
<td>Possibilities to choose different parts of the program and also possibility to stay out of it. Good surprises during the week is planned to cheer up customers. Method: give more you promised, is used.</td>
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#### INVOLVEMENT

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<th>SMITH</th>
<th>Developing: EAST FINLAND</th>
<th>After co-design EAST FINLAND</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The combination of all levels: acceptable physical plant, good service, hospitality and freedom of choice are needed to create a successfull entity for a consumer. &quot;For tourism, involvement is not simply physical participation, but sense of engagement, of focusing on the activity.&quot;</td>
<td>The owner of one local hotel have changed at the beginning of 2013. New owner is local. This and some other positive signals have brought new energy and hope to the community.</td>
<td>The products are not yet tested by tourists. All the entrepreneurs don't have the same level of involvement, some of them have been too busy and one has been on sick leave. Most of them are fully in. One of them said: &quot;This is the best we have done ever!&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Discussion and conclusions

As a conclusion of this paper our model shows that when developing creative tourism services the whole community or cluster of enterprises is involved when offering the service
to tourists. We would like to expand the usage of co-creation to community collaboration when developing and building a large tourism product with Smith model.

If we want to create a niche product to tourism business, local traditional habits and nature connected to creative culture professionalism can create strong possibilities to tourism service package. Using wild plants and herbs is one example of this kind of culture which is connected to local flora. When this entity is done well, it will be positioned to involvement level at Smith model. When developing tourism products in Eastern Finland with service design tools we point out that in creative tourism experience the story, feelings and other relevant elements are present in service journey.

Creative tourism experiences can create a new kind of interaction between the tourists and the local communities. The creative tourism product is co-created in a dialogue between the hosts and the visitors. Tourists experience this process as a learning experience where the learning about the context of Eastern Finland and the local traditional habits becomes part of the experience. Experience is constructed through all the senses. The feeling of the materials, smells, sceneries and sounds construct the landscape of experience. Creative tourism as such is very much a community-based tourism effort. It is important to remember that this kind of tourism form is by far a niche area of tourism, but different applications can also be produced and used in any local tourism market. Further the creative tourism can effect both the host and the visitor when the dialogue takes place during the creative tourism experience.

References

Conceptual Model of Customer-Company Interaction in Value Co-Creation

Lenna Shulga
James Busser
Tony Henthorne
University of Nevada Las Vegas, William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration, USA
shulga@unlv.nevada.edu

Introduction
Organizations face challenges to gain insights into the resources customers contribute to value co-creation (Baron & Warnaby, 2011) and the benefits and drawbacks resulting from customer involvement (Prebensen et al., 2013). However, the main focus of the majority of tourism research has centered around one particular type of co-creation – the value co-creation of experience (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009). Today’s customers can co-create their experiences, co-recover service failures, co-create marketing strategies, co-create brand value (Payne et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2014), co-innovate, and even become partial employees of the firm (Shaw et al., 2011). Overall, customers are in a unique position to offer guidance and suggestions to companies, because they have considerable experience with the service and are customer perspective experts (Bettencourt, 1997). Nonetheless, very few studies have systematically examined value co-creation in tourism and offered structure to value co-creation and customer-company interaction.

Purpose of the Paper
The purpose of this paper is to examine the customer-company interaction from the customer's standpoint and to explore what drives tourists to participate in value co-creation activities. Based on the relational nature of co-creation (Gronroos, 2011), the tourist-service provider relationship is examined through social identity and social penetration theories. With the goal to expand an understanding of how tourism organizations can become valuable partners in co-creation, a conceptual model of customer-company interaction in value co-creation is introduced. The literature and research in support of four major co-creation types, the stages of customer-company co-creation participation are reviewed along with customer and organization outcomes.

Literature review
Co-creation of value is defined as the joint, collaborative, concurrent, peer-like process of producing new value, both materially and perceptually (Galvagno et al., 2014). Co-creation encompasses all the specific theoretical and empirical concurrences in which companies and customers generate value through interactions (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). Service Dominant (S-D) logic implies that value is defined by and created in concert with the customer, rather than simply being embedded in the output (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). The shift to S-D logic enabled the examination of how participant processes and resources interact to co-create value in service systems (Vargo et al., 2008) or configurations composed of people, technology and value propositions (Lusch & Vargo, 2006).

Value co-creation is a series of activities performed by the customer to achieve desired outcomes (Payne, et al., 2008; McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012). Within S-D logic customers, instead of being targets of producer-created value, are now triggering value creation, as they engage their unique knowledge and skills in social, dynamic, and interactive network relationships with firms and other stakeholders, including customer’s self-generated
activities (McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012). The critical role for the service provider in co-creation is to engage in a dialogue with and learn from customers (Matthing et al., 2004). Overall, customer-company interactions within complex social structures and networks lead to the relational nature of value creation (Edvardsson et al., 2011). Accordingly individual needs, preferences, habits and values have a significant influence on value co-creation. In addition value is not co-created until customers attach personal identity to it (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

**Customers’ Social Identity**

Social identity theory, which addresses the relationship among self-concept, group, and intergroup phenomena (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000), may assist in explaining why customers voluntarily participate in value co-creation. Extending social identity theory into the customer domain, customer-company identification suggests that similar to employees, customers can identify with a company even without formal membership (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Strong identification occurs when a company becomes personally relevant for consumers, and creates the potential for emotional reactions, thus offering both self- definitional and emotional meaning (Bettencourt, 1997). Subsequently, as customers seek to improve their social self-identity, their identification with the company motivates them to act favorably toward the company raising its status and their personal status and role (Homburg et al., 2009). Therefore, the social identity approach including customer-company identification creates a social system favorable for value co-creation to occur. The focus on positive development of such customer-company relationships should ensure the success of value co-creation.

**Co-Creation Processes in the Tourism Context**

Travelers today are looking to fulfill not only physical needs but also psychological needs such as inspiration, authenticity, value, and belonging to a meaningful community (Binkhorst & Dekker, 2009). The processes of co-creation in tourism can be classified into four distinct types: co-creation of experience, co-recovery, co-innovation and co-marketing. The co-creation of experience is based on the consumer taking an active part in consuming and producing value. The co-creation of experience consists of co-production, customization and co-creation of experience from customer-to-customer. For example, co-production happens when a tourist decides to participate in a sporting event while visiting a destination. Customizing occurs when a couple takes an active part in their upcoming tour of vineyards by adding cooking classes. In customer-to-customer experience co-creation, customers usually direct helping behaviors toward other customers, under the assumption that other customers might need help behaving in the ways consistent with their expected roles (Rihova et al., 2013).

According to Xu et al. (2014), co-recovery is a process where customers are asked to be a part of problem solving, during which they have an opportunity to provide their opinions and recommendations. Co-recovery can be divided into recovery from service failure and online reputation management. Co-innovation can be viewed as a product or service development and cost-cutting initiatives stemming from the co-creation activities with customers. For example, low cost airline companies are based on a business model that is highly dependent on co-creation, as the customers take the role of booking flights via the internet (Shaw et al., 2011), which in turn benefits the customer by price reductions.

Overall, co-marketing within value co-creation can be viewed through the co-creation of brand value, co-creation of community and content co-creation. Co-creation is especially apparent in consumer groups such as brand communities, that actively participate in co-
creating brand identity (Payne et al., 2009). In tourism, consumer groups may identify themselves not only with company brands, like Southwest Airlines, but also destination brands, for example, “I love NY”. The research on consumer groups has included consumer tribes or brand tribes, brand communities and user communities (McConnell & Huba, 2007). Enabled by social media, consumers actively participate in the co-creation of content. For example, under the banner of "Travel Brilliantly", Marriott is reinventing travel and its brand, including opening a global content studio focused on publishing, distributing and sharing digital and filmed content co-created by the brand community (www.brandchannel.com, 2014).

**Conceptual Model of Customer-Company Interaction in Value Co-Creation**

Based on Social Penetration Theory, Knapp (1978) proposed a relationship staircase model, which includes initiating, attracting, experimenting, intensifying and bonding. According to Knapp’s staircase model, relationships are advanced through increased disclosure and depth. Transforming Knapp’s five-stage staircase model, we propose the conceptual model of customer-company interaction in value co-creation (Figure 1), which follows a six-stage model: initiation, engagement, involvement, contribution, and feedback, resulting in bonding. The concepts of initiation, engagement and involvement have received scholarly attention in tourism and hospitality (Xu et al., 2014; Prebensen et al., 2013). Contribution represents the effort both customers and employees make to advance co-creation. Feedback is a necessary part of successful peer-like, collaborative and concurrent value co-creation (Galvagno et al., 2014). Bonding represents the public commitment to the company and the highest level of empathy and trust (Welch & Rubin, 2002). Bonding leads to positive organizational, personal and co-outcomes. Co-outcomes are the benefits valued by the company and the customer (i.e., customer satisfaction, loyalty, trust, word-of-mouth). The organizational outcomes are not only directly connected to the co-creation of customer-centric services, (i.e., new product and services development), but also linked to shared marketing outcomes, such as advertising and public relations. Finally, positive co-creation outcomes lead to increases in profitability and revenue growth. The co-creation outcomes that singularly belong to the customer domain are psychological, physical, and/or financial well-being (McColl-Kennedy et al., 2012).
Discussion

It can be argued that if the company goal is to achieve not just organizational outcomes, such as the generation of new service ideas, but also to strengthen the bond with customers in an effort to increase their loyalty, or co-outcomes, the company must develop a meaningful relationship with its customers. Consequently, if the customer wishes to improve their social identity status, leading to improved psychological well-being, they must also develop a meaningful relationship with the company. This happens through the peer-like, collaborative, mutual participation found in co-creation.

The primary contribution of the model is providing a holistic framework from which to examine existing and proposed testable constructs we believe to be associated with co-creation of value. The model extends the existing research into relationship development by introducing the constructs of contribution, feedback and bonding. It is within the stage of

bonding that the model connects to the organizational and consumer outcomes of co-creation of loyalty, trust and satisfaction, and to the co-outcomes of co-creation. Each stage of the model should be tested in the context of the four types of co-creation, in order to understand how the constructs impact the proposed co-outcomes and what mediators influence the process in a positive or negative way.

**Selected References**


Full list of references is available upon request
The role of commercial friendship in company versus customer initiation of value co-creation for tourism brands

Lenna Shulga
James Busser
Tony Henthorne

University of Nevada Las Vegas, William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration, USA
shulga@unlv.nevada.edu

Introduction
The core concept of service-dominant logic (S-D logic) is that the customer is always a co-creator of value (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). As active participants and collaborative partners in relational exchanges, customers co-create value with the firm through involvement in the entire service-value chain (Yi & Gong, 2013). As firms position themselves to fulfill personal and evolving customer needs, they increasingly must move beyond internal focus and dynamically engage customers (Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1997) in an effort to offer comprehensive value propositions (Peppard & Rylander, 2006). Historically, success in tourism is built on transitioning satisfied customers into loyal customers, who are less sensitive to price-demand fluctuations and competition advances. Thus it is imperative for the tourism manager to participate with customers in value co-creation and form communities of loyal customers, improving customer experiences, creating competitive advantages with added brand value, and even disrupting the market with new innovative co-products and co-services.

Purpose of the Paper
The purpose of this paper is to examine the role of commercial friendship in company versus customer initiation of co-creation interaction for tourism destination brands within the four types of co-creation: co-creation of experience, co-recovery, co-innovation and co-marketing. Customer-company co-creation interactions are examined through social penetration theory and Knapp’s relationship development model. The effects of commercial friendship and initiation are linked to co-creation outcomes, such as customer satisfaction, loyalty, word-of-mouth and trust.

Literature review
The value co-creation concept stems from the service-dominant logic, which states that all businesses are essentially service providers, who exchange service for service as the fundamental basis of exchange (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Two types of customers’ value co-creation behavior were defined: customer participation behavior, which refers to required behavior necessary for successful value co-creation, and customer citizenship behavior, which is voluntary behavior that provides extraordinary value to the firm (Yi et al., 2011). However, not all customers will have the same motivations during the value co-creation process. Some individuals may see greater value in engaging in certain activities than others and will have preferences for ways of interacting based on their particular view of their role as a resource integrator within the given context (McColl-Kennedy, et al., 2012).

Social identity theory states that being a member of a social group (i.e., being an employee, citizen, or member of a club) contributes to how people define themselves as individuals (Tajfel, 1982) and determines their future behavior. In the context of customer-company identification, being a loyal customer of a company can also contribute to how customers define themselves (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). Van Doorn, et al., (2010) suggested

that the social identity of a customer can be shaped and reinforced by co-creation activities. It was also noted that when customers engage in the service development process, their perception of belonging to the company is reflected by their satisfaction and loyalty (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012).

The concept that captures the social benefits of customer-company identification is commercial friendship. Research suggests that customers who develop commercial friendships believe in employees' compassion and integrity and will provide detailed information to enable service customization and enhance satisfaction (Han et al., 2008). It was revealed that consumers can become friends with service personnel which involves affection, self-disclosure, social support, reciprocity, and trust. Furthermore, customers perceive the service provider's listening to their needs and special treatment as instrumental benefits of the friendship (Price & Arnould, 1999). Additionally, in co-creation processes involving tourism networks both employees of the firm and their customers were defined as experience facilitators (Sfandla & Bjork, 2013). Therefore in destination tourism relationships may also develop social bonds through the service provider's interaction with the customer's social network (e.g., online), through broader service-brand communities (i.e., travel clubs), and perhaps even through the customer's interaction with a virtual service provider (e.g. virtual “friend” who makes product recommendations), which can increase trust (at the firm level), commitment, as well as switching costs (Oliver, 2010). Therefore the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Customers with stronger commercial friendship through the co-creation customer-company interaction develop stronger co-creation outcomes.

Becoming a friend means that the relationship between two entities is moving through stages of development, this allows for the deepening strength of communication (Knapp, 1978). As a part of social penetration theory, relationships are viewed as developing through increased disclosure and depth (Altman & Taylor, 1973). For example, once a person shares information with another, the person's view moves toward a more intimate or new level of relationship. The outcomes of relationship are identified as empathy, intimacy and trust (Welch & Rubin, 2002), which are constructs that receive special attention in the tourism research. The first stage of relationship development is initiation. The construct of initiation was researched in connection with the co-creation of service recovery in a hospitality setting (Xu, et al., 2012). Findings showed a difference in customer co-creation perceptions and outcomes depending on who initiated the process: employees or customers. When a service employee initiates a co-recovery, customers perceive higher justice, greater satisfaction and a higher tendency to repurchase in the future (Xu, et al., 2012). However, the effect of customer versus employee initiation has not been examined in the context of the other co-creation types, such as co-creation of experience, co-innovation and co-marketing in tourism.

Tourism co-creation of experience can be understood as an active customer's participation in consuming and producing value through designing tourism related experiences. Thus, the customer is co-producing, customizing and sharing their experience with the tourism service provider and other customers while contributing to the scene and their own experiences (Mossberg, 2007). Co-recovery is a process where customers are asked to be a part of problem solving, during which they have an opportunity to provide their opinions and recommendations (Xu, et al., 2012). In the process of co-innovation, in the buyer-centric model of S-D Logic, customers are viewed as operant resources in order to create new products and services for destination tourism brands (Shaw, et al., 2011). Co-marketing in tourism is the co-creation of brand value through the tourism brand

Communities and co-creation of the content through social media. Consumers form relationships with brands that mirror social relationships, enhancing communication skills, creating social contacts and enjoyment (Aggarwal, 2004). Even though people's relationships with brands do not necessarily share the same richness and depth as their relationships with human partners, they can interact with brands as if they have a relationship with them (Aggarwal, 2004).

The outcomes of co-creation can be divided into purely organizational outcomes, personal outcomes and co-outcomes, which lay on the crossroads between singular benefits of co-creation. Based on the known outcomes of commercial friendship and relationship development model the following co-outcomes are considered: customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, trust and word-of-mouth. All four constructs are actively researched in tourism and hospitality. Therefore the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2: Employee-initiated co-creation leads to higher levels of customer satisfaction with the company than customer-initiated co-creation for all four types of co-creation.

H3: Employee-initiated co-creation leads to higher levels of customer loyalty with the company than customer-initiated co-creation for all four types of co-creation.

H4: Employee-initiated co-creation leads to higher levels of customer trust in the company than a customer-initiated co-creation for all four types of co-creation.

H5: Customers have a higher tendency to promote the company through word-of-mouth after employee-initiated co-creation than a customer-initiated co-creation for all four types of co-creation.

Methods and material

A scenario-based experiment focused on destination tourism brands will be used to test the research hypotheses (see Appendix 1). The scenario-based approach is consistent with other studies on co-creation (Xu, et al., 2012). The subjects must have a leisure traveler experience within the last 12 months. A 2 x 2 x 4 within-subject experiment will be used; commercial friendship (high, low), initiation (customer, company), co-creation (co-creation of experience, co-recovery, co-innovation, co-marketing). Initiation and co-creation type will be manipulated, while commercial friendship will be measured using the eleven-item scale developed by Price and Arnould, 1999. Questions based on measures of satisfaction, loyalty, trust and word of mouth measures using Likert-type scales ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree will be completed by subjects after each experiment scenario. Measures of loyalty will include intention to return to the establishment and recommend to others based on five-item scale (Zeithaml, Barry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Satisfaction will use the four-item scale developed by Oliver (2010). Trust will be examined based on four-item Tax et al., 1998 scale. For word-of-mouth the modified Price and Arnould (1999) three-item scale will be used. The scenarios and measurement scales will be pre-tested and manipulation checks will be verified using a pilot group of respondents. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis will be performed to evaluate properties of all multi-item constructs. ANOVA and MANOVA will be conducted on the dependent measures of satisfaction, loyalty, trust and word-of-mouth. Data will be collected June-July 2015. The results will reveal which of the initiation types for each type of co-creation are most likely to lead to customer satisfaction, loyalty, trust and word-of-mouth. It is predicted that the more the customer experiences commercial friendship with the company, the more they will positively influence co-creation co-outcomes.
Implications

The theoretical contribution of this study is to explain why customer-company interaction during the first stage of value co-creation may result in strong co-outcomes through robust relationship development between the customer and the destination tourism organization. By testing the strength of commercial friendship and the effects of initiation, the results of the study offers tourism industry practitioners direction on how to start the collaborative relationship with customers in various co-creation types, with the goal to achieve positive outcomes of co-creation.

Selected References


Full list of references is available upon request
From a Conflicted to a Collaborative Destination: A Case Study of Marketing and Management Challenges in Co-creating Wellbeing in Novalja, Croatia

Neda Telisman-Kosuta
Neven Ivandic
Ivo Kunst
Institute for Tourism
Zagreb, Croatia
neda.kosuta@iztzg.hr

Introduction
With maturing of the tourism industry, there is a growing understanding of destinations as complex systems composed of numerous diverse actors who, despite often conflicting agendas, each play a role in jointly creating and delivering visitor experiences. ‘Destination thinking’ has become established in the academic community and the need for collaborative marketing and management is also becoming increasingly recognized among tourism practitioners. Focusing on the Croatian town of Novalja, a central Adriatic island resort and one of the country’s internationally recognized ‘party tourism’ destinations, this paper examines the challenges of collaborative marketing and management as key instruments of mitigating current antagonistic relationships between locals, club owners and visitors which, despite the town’s increasing affluence, are threatening its spatial, environmental and social coherence. By presenting this case study, the authors hope to contribute to the ongoing discussion on collaborative capacity of destinations and the mechanisms involved in creating a collaborative destination as a means of co-creating wellbeing for both hosts and guests.

Literature review
Along with tourism being embraced worldwide as an effective economy booster, its potentially conflicting, even disruptive nature particularly in relation to environmental and social structures of places has been widely researched, documented and acknowledged from early studies mainly focusing on under-developed regions (Jafari, 1989) to recent works in developed tourism destinations (Dredge, 2010). Studies of tourism induced cultural and social conflict within a community or between local and outsider groups have contributed to the understanding of tourism destinations as highly complex, interacting systems comprising of numerous and diverse organizations, the local population, temporary residents and various different tourist segments with different interests and expectations from tourism development (Buhalis, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Manente & Minghetti 2006; Wang & Pizam, 2011). These differences, if not managed, can be expected, in line with the destination lifecycle model, to contribute to loss of competitive edge leading eventually to stagnation and decline (Butler, 1980; Buhalis, 2000; Hovinen, 2002). Thus, cooperation among stakeholders can be seen as a prerequisite for planning, development and delivery of integrated tourism products and, in fact, for destination viability (Beritelli, 2010). This thinking brings to the fore the notion that destination competitiveness is ‘... a function of how successfully constituent components work together to deliver the tourism product ...’ and that organizations should adjust their strategies ‘... toward achievement of collaborative advantage rather than competitive advantage’ (Fyall, Garrod & Wang, 2012). In other words, destinations must cooperate internally to be able to compete externally. It has been noted that tourism, more than most other economic sectors, involves the development of some kind of cooperative
function encompassing both formal and informal collaboration, partnerships and networks (Scott, Cooper & Biaggio, 2008). Government, guided by public interest as determined by an evaluation framework, should lead in mediating conflict (Dredge, 2010). At the same time, despite broad agreement on the importance of thus generated policy implementation, tourism planning is in fact often applied only partially or not at all (Krutwaysho & Bramwell, 2009).

This is the context for exploring and understanding Novalja’s current collaborative capacity, as well as for posing questions about marketing and management mechanisms which can increase it thus leading on to a rejuvenation cycle.

**Methods and material**

Research on Novalja’s current collaborative practices was conducted in a two phase process. The first segment involved conducting of focus groups with public and private sector organizations which would logically be involved in determining and shaping the town’s tourism development, namely with: a) elected town officials, Novalja Tourism Board, the Port Authority, cultural institutions, environmental groups, various associations and NGOs; b) accommodation, food and beverage providers and travel intermediaries; c) club owners on Zrće beach. The discussion centered on issues pertaining to current tourism planning practices, existing stakeholder relationships and responsibilities, as well as on needed tourism development control mechanisms. Focus groups were recorded and the discussion was content analyzed.

The second phase involved a survey of local residents aimed at assessing their attitudes toward tourism development in Novalja. More specifically, the survey was designed to measure resident attitudes on: ‘the importance and benefits of tourism for the local community’, ‘the direction of tourism development in the future’ and ‘the importance and benefits of party tourism for the destination’. The survey was carried out on a sample of 300 individuals, age 15 and above. It was implemented using the CATI method aided by a structured questionnaire with answer options provided on a Likert scale (1-5). Resident attitudes were analyzed for the whole set and for subsets determined by ‘age’, ‘education level’ and ‘income dependence on tourism’.

**Results**

Novalja is today a prosperous but, as research results have shown, also a conflicted tourism destination. ‘Party tourism’ is seen locally as having been imposed by outsiders and a handful of local power players. It is seen as something that ‘happened’ or ‘was done’ to the local community with great speed and intensity virtually ‘wiping out’ other forms of tourism, namely family ‘sun and sea’ vacations Novalja traditionally targeted. The sudden surge of ‘party tourism’ demand provided lucrative business opportunities, however, and part of the local community, particularly those with property near Zrće beach where the music clubs are located, were drawn in eventually. At this point there is quite a high degree of consensus among the local population, including individuals whose income depends on ‘party tourism’, that Novalja is suffering from overbuilding, a short summer season revolving around beach music festivals, beach pollution and crowding. Economic wellbeing but a social and ecological downward spiral are resulting in, what one of the respondents called, ‘collective schizophrenia’. An ‘either us or them’ attitude is palpable.

On the other hand, club owners feel they are being treated by the local community as ‘milking cows’ while in their opinion local initiative in upgrading Novalja’s tourism offer through diverse, added value services is practically non-existing. In their view, it is the club owners who are taking all the business risks, not only driving, but also paying for community development.
As certain ‘critical points of tolerance’ have been passed, namely disturbing loud noise from the open air clubs throughout the night, excessive behavior by some guests in public spaces and plummeting real estate values, local residents but also some club owners (with others being cooperative) have joined in a community driven call for change. Both see the local government as responsible for facilitating change and a more balanced future tourism development. The newly elected town officials, replacing the previous long-standing political option, have proclaimed restoring orderly behavior their short-term priority with a new strategic tourism orientation to become their long-term focus.

A more detailed insight of obtained research results is summarized below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder group</th>
<th>View of current situation</th>
<th>View of desired future</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local residents</td>
<td>Tourism is extremely important as the economic mainstay of Novalja, but the destination deserves higher quality guests. Two-thirds feel further construction of tourism apartments should be stopped and only a third see ‘party tourism’ as important.</td>
<td>Novalja is a destination with a diversified tourism offer, an extended tourism season and revitalized agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public sector institutions</td>
<td>Novalja is lacking a whole range of facilities, namely quality hotels, marinas, sports and recreation venues, well-kept beaches. There is dire need for better qualified human resources, especially on managerial level.</td>
<td>‘Sun &amp; sea’ will always be Novalja’s main resource, but it should nurture other selective types of tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private sector tourism service providers</td>
<td>Party tourism is highly profitable, albeit only for two months, and nobody will give it up regardless of how they personally feel about it. Besides, the clubs are untouchable. The problem lies in reconciling party and traditional family guests who feel threatened and are turning away. Investment in quality does not pay.</td>
<td>A change in guest structure and upgrading of facilities should be initiated enabling Novalja to diversify beyond ‘party’ and ‘sun &amp; sea’ tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach clubs</td>
<td>Novalja is currently a ‘cheap’ destination. The clubs are ready to invest in improving quality, but everyone else must also ‘pull their weight’. Novalja needs better hotels, restaurants and infrastructure.</td>
<td>Novalja is renowned for world class club and music entertainment with accompanying high quality facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newly elected town officials</td>
<td>Disorderly conduct by clubs and guests cannot be tolerated, overbuilding and beach pollution must stop. Existence of beach clubs is not in question, but town discontent is palpable.</td>
<td>Novalja is a town that works, attractive for investment and offering a range of high quality tourism products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion and Conclusions

Widespread dissatisfaction with the existing ‘tourism model’ in Novalja dependent on ‘party tourism’ as the destination’s defining tourism product has reached a critical point motivating local residents, club owners and the local government to initiate discussion about change and its desired direction. This action in itself may be viewed as a natural response to a ‘crisis’ with the local mayoral elections having most probably been the catalyst. It did provoke and result, however, in ensuing action, spearheaded by the town Mayor, involving the drawing up of a Tourism Masterplan with a 2025 timeframe and supported by a strategic marketing component, where all stakeholders participated in the visioning process and the formulation of Novalja’s repositioning strategy, all of which is collaborative thinking moving the destination in the right direction. Furthermore, various collaborative mechanisms, both within marketing and management domains, ranging from community directed internal marketing and formation of clusters to a DMO and multidisciplinary, non-political supervision bodies, have been foreseen as means of delivering on collaborative thinking and setting Novalja on the path toward a more collaborative and, thus, a more competitive destination.

It is, however, the ‘delivery’ which is the critical component. Monitoring Novalja’s development in the short and mid-term future (e.g. up to next five years) will be crucial for evaluating whether ‘crisis’ induced collaborative mechanisms such as strategic planning, internal marketing and allocation of responsibility to cooperative bodies are enough to induce effective and long term change toward generating a more collaborative destination. It is necessary to bear in mind that a number of threats may diminish Novalja’s collaborative capacity in the future, including limited human and financial resources, as well as the community’s socio-cultural heritage of customary reliance on a ‘higher (political) authority’. In a broader sense, this case study could contribute to our understanding of collaboration and change mechanisms in tourism destinations, but could also inform of these processes in emerging market economy social contexts such as Croatia’s.

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Activity preferences of winter tourists: the case of Northern Norway

Dr Aaron Tkaczynski
School of Business
Faculty of Business, Economics & Law
University of Queensland
a.tkaczynski@uq.edu.au

Abstract

Winter tourism represents an essential source of revenue for many countries. Whilst many studies have aimed to profile tourists visiting winter-orientated destinations based on snow-orientated activities, limited research has aimed to determine the relevance of other winter activities. Neglecting these activities may not accurately represent the full cohort of winter tourists. The aim of this research was to segment tourists that have holidayed at a winter destination based on the behavioural preference for activities. Through employed an on-site self-administered questionnaire, this study segmented 2,500 winter tourists to Northern Norway. TwoStep cluster analysis identified four valid clusters that differed significantly on their preferences for activities. The largest segment experienced activities that were not dependent on snow despite these options being available during the time of vacation. Consequently, this research suggests that the argument in the tourism literature that winter tourism can be used almost interchangeably with snow-orientated activities is incorrect. A second contribution relates to the importance of the Northern Lights. Whilst it was hardly surprising that this activity was the most popular attraction across the four segments, fewer than half of the respondents’ in three of the segments did not choose to participate in this activity with “other activities” more frequently identified. An opportunity for future research is to identify if the outlined process can benefit other winter destinations such as New Zealand and Canada. Through using a similar theoretical and methodological process outlined within this research, future research can determine whether the results are generalisable to other winter-orientated destinations.
The business trip as a framework of time and its effects on the business traveler’s well-being

Orit Unger
Natan Uriely
Galia Fuchs*

Dept. of Hotel and Tourist Management
The Guilford Glazer Faculty of Business and Management
Ben-Gurion University of the Negev,
* Corresponding author: galiaf@som.bgu.ac.il

Abstract
The current study focuses on the business traveler and its objective is to shed light on the effects of the framework of time of the business trip on the business traveler’s well-being.

Based on the analysis of in-depth interviews with twenty-four business travelers, whose work involves a minimum of ten international air-travel trips annually, the study reveals four distinct phases of the journey- the trip preparations, the passenger experience, the destination experience and the homecoming.

Business travelers are hardly occupied with trip preparations. Their passenger experience consists of “moments of relaxation”, in which they can enjoy the comforts as well as the social status associated with the airport executive lounges and the business class airplane seats.

Their experience of the destination is often associated with stressful timetable and the pressure of work obligations.

The return from a business trip to the routine of everyday-life hardly involves a break for recovery. Coming home is also a return to the routine of being always ready for the next trip. Another aspect of the homecoming experience concerns the efforts made to compensate spouses and family members for the business traveler’s frequent absence from home. Overall, while the visited destination is the main space-time of recreation and leisure for other tourists, for the business travelers, airports and aircrafts are the zones of relative recreation and relaxation. Hence, this phase of the trip framework of time is the phase that contributes to the business travelers' well-being.
Expressing Sustainability in Marketing of Local Food Products in Rural Tourism

Hanna-Maija Väisänen
University of Helsinki, Ruralia Institute
Mikkeli, Finland
hanna-maija.vaisanen@helsinki.fi

Anne Törn
JAMK University of Applied Sciences
School of Business and Services Management
Jyväskylä, Finland
anne.torn@jamk.fi

Introduction

Food is an inseparable part in creating the tourists’ travel experience and the trend risen from responsible consuming makes it possible to highlight the sustainable issues marketing food products and services also in tourism context. Tourists have become more conscious of the environmental, social and cultural effects of products and services and also the interest in sustainable alternatives has increased. Buying local food can be a way for tourist to act sustainable (Everett & Aitchison, 2008).

Consumers connect several attributes with local food including also sustainable ones. Therefore it is important to market local food so that it reveals the sustainable message clearly to the tourists. Marketing products or services considering the sustainable characteristics in addition to the most important beneficial attributes for consumers would be an effective concept for marketing local food with sustainability (Belz & Peattie, 2009). Although the importance of food in tourism and the interest of the tourists on local food are recognized, the combination of food, tourism and sustainability in rural tourism context is unexamined in Finland.

The objective of this paper is to present how sustainable dimensions are understood via the pictures and texts of local food products. In this paper an interview study of a local food box is introduced.

Literature review

Food is an inalienable part of travel experiences and it might even be the main reason for travelling. Consuming local food and drink products can create connections to local cultures and make tourist feel responsible. (Everett & Aitchison, 2008)

Local food is assumed to be sustainable, because locally owned producers generate economic welfare in the region; it sustains cultural heritage, and it strengthens the regional identity. Issues that motivate Finnish consumers to use local food are: wellbeing effect to own and family’s health, positive economic impact (e.g. the support of local entrepreneurs) and trust. The most important attributes of local food for Finnish consumers are the freshness, taste, healthiness and safety. (Isoniemi et al., 2006)

It has been shown that despite tourists’ declared positive attitudes towards sustainable tourism, only a few of them act accordingly by buying responsible tourism products or services. This is mainly because often other attributes are more significant for the consumer than sustainability related ones. (Budeanu, 2007) Among the customers as well as tourists there can be identified sustainability oriented segments, like LOHAS-consumers. It has been suggested that if, the attributes consumers value in a product or service can be combined with
the sustainable attributes of the product or service, the marketing with sustainability arguments may be successful. This is because consumer sees that sustainable attribute of a product/service may give him/her certain benefits and this could motive him/her to purchase the product/service. (Belz & Peattie, 2009) According to theory of consumer demand the decision consumer makes in buying is based on the attributes of the product and the attributes represent the utility consumer is demanding. (Lancaster, 1966)

The term ‘sustainable’ in itself is not favourable when marketing by sustainability. To enhance the marketing of local food in tourism business it is important to know what kind of pictures and texts communicate consumers the desired benefits of the product. The motivational factors why consumers buy local food is known, but if sustainability issues are used in marketing local food it should be ascertained, what particular sustainable issues are necessary to highlight and how. It is unexamined how the sustainable message via pictures and texts in local food context are understood by consumers in rural tourism context. The information could be helpful in marketing local food to reach the sustainability oriented customer segments. Therefore the main question in this study is: how do pictures and texts (including packaging material) express the sustainability of local food?

Methods and material

A package was designed (material, pictures and texts) for a local food box concept and tested by consumers. Consumers were interviewed (semi-structured) about the local food and sustainability related attributes connected with the local food box. The attributes were the most often mentioned as motivational factors for consumption, or quality characteristics of local food mentioned in local food studies (Isoniemi et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2009). As well these attributes can be considered also sustainable ones. Altogether thirty interviews were carried out with twenty women and ten men. The age of the consumers ranged from 20 to 65.

The picture of the box was showed to consumers (Figure 1.) and asked how they felt about local food box by following themes:
- Generally what sustainable issues of the local food box brings.
- Specific sustainable issues of local food box:
  - Local food production
  - Good taste
  - Cleanness or purity
  - Healthiness
  - Freshness
  - Support for local entrepreneurs

There was a phenomenological approach chosen in the research, because it focused on the human experiences of the consumer. The data analysis process was carried out by abductive analysis. The results were analyzed by thematic analysis to exam the themes within the data.
Results

The local food box clearly expressed the following issues: “local food production”, “purity” and “support for local entrepreneurs”. According to the comments of consumers the word “local food” refers to local food production. It was noticed that the picture of lake landscape was connected in mind to a certain familiar place which reminded the answerers of locality from their point of view. Certain images of landscapes may represent locality if it can be recognized and located (as in this case the lake landscape). The purity was mentioned to have connection to the local food box because of the elements “lake” and “nature” in the picture. It could be assumed that elements that consumer see as to be pure, like Finnish lakes, communicate the purity of products. The support for local entrepreneurs is a well-known impact of local food. So the word “Local Food” itself includes the message of supporting local entrepreneurship.

The issues that were less expressed by the local food box were “taste”, “healthiness” and “freshness”. The local food box design did not very well reveal a good taste. Reasons for that were dark colors of the picture which reminded consumers of autumn, and the photo of the landscape was not successful to connect comments with good taste. Those who identified single products in the box argued that this box expresses good taste.

Most of the consumers had the opinion that the box did not communicate healthiness or freshness. Those who had an opinion that the box reminded healthiness mentioned that the products itself communicate the health effects (for example the vitamins of fish), not the box per se. The main reason why the box did not communicate the freshness was the contents of the box. Canned food does not represent the concept of freshness even if the canned food is local food.

When asking the consumer about the overall sustainability of the local food box the participants paid attention to the material of the box and food products’ packaging, which they regarded to be “recyclable” or “no plastic”. Secondly they noticed the sustainability of the food products, whereupon they meant the origin of the products (from nature or nearby).
Discussion and Conclusions

The consumers experience about how the pictures and texts of local food box express the sustainability of local food were examined. The picture of lake landscape (and text ‘local food’) represented to consumers clearly the issues ‘local food production’, ‘purity’ and ‘support for local entrepreneurs’, but not the issues ‘taste’, ‘healthiness’ and ‘freshness’.

The local food concept itself contains several sustainable dimensions and issues, like local production. By the image of landscape, the locality can be expressed, but it may be difficult to promote food. It seems to be that the more concrete the image is associated to food the more obvious is that the image is connected to food (Törn et al, 2015). In this case the lake landscape did not have a very strong bond to food, but maybe a photo of a crop field could do that instead. It can be concluded that in this case both the picture and text are meaningful in communicating the sustainability issues: local food production, purity and support for local entrepreneurs.

One important notion was that consumers paid the most attention to the images and the materials, not to the texts. Pictures have an important role in capturing consumers’ attention (Bolen, 1984) and images are too open to a variety of possible meanings. Adding a text will help to extend or point out the meaning of the image. (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996) Also it is known that there is a large consumer segment that favour environmental friendly packaging (Rokka & Uusitalo, 2008). For that reason it is favourable to also consider the material of the products.

The big question is that why did this local food box not communicate the most important attributes “taste”, “healthiness” and “freshness”? According to Isoniemi et al. (2006) the freshness is an important attribute of food and especially meaningful in the local food concept and for that reason worth highlighting. It could be recommended that in marketing with the good taste colorful and bright colors are useful. Also the food product itself is the best advertiser of the taste (Kupiainen et al., 2008). It is worth investing in the visual images of local food, because the visual images of local food may play a key motivational role in providing sensory pleasure for tourists (Kim et al., 2009).

Healthiness is one of most major motives in buying local food (Isoniemi et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2009), and for that reason should be communicate very visible and clear to the consumer. It can be concluded that the food products themselves are the best communicators of the healthiness, because people are aware of the health effects of certain products. We encourage marketing material to include sufficient information about the health issues of products (Wansink, 2003).

It can be concluded that the sustainability of local food is able to express by pictures and texts. It is already known that by the package design it could be able to influence consumers’ image of the product (Kupiainen et al., 2008). The sustainable image of local food is already rather good. If the sustainability message wanted to be emphasized, it needs carefully selected pictures and supporting texts including emotional and rational appealing elements (Törn et al. 2015).

References


Eating out – a study of visitors’ value creating activities related to food and meals

Ute Walter
Inger M Jonsson
Joachim Sundqvist
School of Restaurant and Culinary Arts, Umeå University, Sweden
Corresponding author: ute.walter@umu.se

Introduction

Restaurant experiences are an important part of a destination’s service offer and restaurants in their turn play an important role for visitors’ and for inhabitants’ well-being. Naturally high quality of food is essential for a restaurant customer’s experience, however this is not enough. Often feeling welcome, meeting skillful employees and enjoying the atmosphere are as important as the food served. From a destination perspective it is especially interesting to understand how visitors create value during their stay. From a restaurant and hotel company point of view it is especially interesting to further understand how their customers create value during their entire stay with a special focus on eating out. In order to understand visitors’ value creating processes during their stay at a destination it is important to know the customers’ own world of processes, activities and value creation seen from the customer perspective. These processes and activities are partly invisible for companies and destinations. Compared to earlier studies where the customer is regarded as a passive receiver of solutions, a goods-dominant-view (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), this project aims to regard the customer as a person who actively integrates different opportunities in order to create value in a specific context, a customer-dominant-view (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008).

Literature review

Value is always created in an interaction between an offering and a customer, and the interaction is relative, interactive and depends on the customers’ preferences (Holbrook, 2006). The customer is in the center of attention, as an active thinking and reflecting individual, determining the own customer value, which is realized through customer experiences according to Holbrook (2006, 1999) or as value in context according to Vargo and Lusch (2008). During value creation all actors act as resource integrators, by actively using their personal resources (knowledge and skills) in continuous interactions in order to enhance their personal consumption experience (Baron & Harris, 2008; Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Resources could according to Arnould et al. (2006) be distinguished as social, cultural, physical, operant (knowledge and skills) and economic operand resources (objects and physical spaces). The active role of customers as participants in the service production/delivery indicates customers' knowledge and skills playing an important role.

Visitors’ experiences related to eating out are characterized by contact-intensive services (Shostack, 1985), including many activities and interactions. Visitors’ eating out experiences are multifaceted and could be related to many aspects such as traveling for leisure or in business, meals as social and cultural events and eating out as an urban experience (Bell & Valentine, 1997; Finkelstein, 1989; Jonsson & Pipping Ekström, 2011; Morgan, Watson, & Hemmington, 2008; Mäkelä, 2009). Also Walter (2011) highlights the social and physical dimension of restaurant experiences. Furthermore Mathisen (2013) examines how tourism firms act as co-creators of value in tourist activities with a special focus on story telling. Sundqvist (2015) has examined travellers experiences related to
perceived authenticity of a meal context from a sociological perspective. His study shows that individuals’ cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1984) is the main influence of how they perceive meal contexts.

Many aspects of tourist and eating out experiences have been examined, however there is still a need for research of eating out experiences as a part of a visitors’ stay at a destination. Especially a holistic view of visitors eating out experiences during their whole stay at a destination from the visitor’s point of view is of interest.

The aim of the study

The purpose of this study is to examine drivers of visitors’ resource integrating activities during their stay at a destination with a special focus on eating out. The focus of this study will be the business travellers’ perspective.

Methods & material

Methodologically the study will follow the recommendations made in earlier innovation research related to tourism, hospitality and service indicating a need for approaches that facilitate holistic and multi-disciplinary approaches (Hjalager, 2010). Tronvåll, Brown et al. (2011) recommend studies of customers’ service experiences to be based on multi-method field studies with observations as an important part. This project will apply an (n)ethnographical inspired field study approach, including observations, interviews and field documentation (Kozinets, 2002; Van Maanen, 2006). The design of the empirical study will, besides research literature, be based on the outcome from the workshops with the multidisciplinary research group and representatives from the industry. Data will be analysed in an inductive approach according to constant comparative principles (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Expected main results

The results will illustrate the visitors’ stay in a holistic way with the customer experience and value creation in focus. Furthermore the drivers beyond visitors’ actions, interactions and activities regarding eating out, which describe customers’ resource integration processes related to eating out activities. The results will also contribute to the development of companies as well as destinations with regard to eating out and meals.

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The Value of Cittaslow Network in Sustainable Tourism Development

Nezih Yalabik
Burcin Hatipoglu
Boğaziçi University, Sustainable Tourism Management Program
İstanbul, Turkey
nezihyalabik@hotmail.com
burcin.hatipoglu@boun.edu.tr

Introduction

Interest in the study of sustainable tourism has increased exponentially in recent years, and scholars have identified significant factors related to destinations engaging in more sustainable forms of tourism and its positive outcomes for all the stakeholders. International nongovernmental organizations such as United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) have long been working around this topic and have relentlessly encouraged the tourism industry to make a transformation. Similarly, the Global Sustainable Tourism Council (GSTC) has established sustainable tourism criteria for the industry and destinations. Meanwhile visitors have also become more aware and knowledgeable about responsible travel and alternative forms of tourism. In support of these occurrences governmental agencies and destination management organizations have made long term plans for sustainable tourism and suggested more proactive strategies. However, tourism in developing countries is moving rather slowly towards sustainability. There appears a need for more work to be done at multiple levels and responsibility to be shared among multiple tourism stakeholders. This research addresses the value of Cittaslow network in aiding destinations to develop a sustainable tourism model. It particularly takes a critical approach in studying the Cittaslow concept and vigorously questions its meaning for small towns and communities. The study setting is the three Cittaslow towns in Turkey.

Literature Review

Although the concept of sustainable tourism development has been much discussed by scholars around the world the most cited definition is given by the UNWTO. It is described as “Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNWTO, 2005).

One of the most significant contributions to the frame of Sustainable Tourism Development (STD) of the above definition is in the way the notion has been conceptualized. This form of tourism is suggested to consider the needs of multiple stakeholders while maintaining a balance between the three pillars of sustainability (Selin, 1999). Enhancing visitor experiences are taken as important as improving the quality of life of host communities. Even more, informed participation from all stakeholders including the residents is encouraged (UNWTO, 2005).

Communities’ perception of tourism development will determine their support and participation in STD. Scholars have studied numerous determinants of community participation in the planning and implementation processes of tourism development. Among many they have established a positive relationship between tourism development and satisfaction with quality of life (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Woo, Kim, & Uysal, 2015).
According to McIntyre (2011, p.11) “The quality of life of the host community, provides a high quality of experience for the visitors and maintains the quality of the environment on which both the host community and the visitor depend”.

The literature also points out that both community and individual well-being are necessary outputs of truly sustainable tourism practices within its economic, social and environmental aspects (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Rowe, 1992). When communities perceive tourism as enhancing their satisfaction with their life domains they are more supportive of tourism development. Subsequently it becomes important to study the tourism models that add value to the quality of life of residents.

The requirement of sustainable tourism development indicators (STDi) emerged when tourism scholars started to claim that sustainable development indicators are not sufficient for monitoring STD (Butler, 1999; Goodall & Stabler, 1997; Gunn, 1988; Moisey & McCool, 2001; Mowforth & Munt, 1998; Sirakaya et al., 2001; Twining-Ward, Butler 2002; Weaver, 1998;WTTC et al., 1997;). According to Sirakaya et al. (2001) the need STDI comes from the complex nature of tourism and interrelations between tourism components.

As a starting point, World Tourism Organization (WTO) developed a set of indicators to compare destinations’ tourism sustainability. This initiation step was followed by many other sets developed by using different techniques and for different purposes (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Manning et al., 1996; Miller, 2001). However, above mentioned studies are mostly criticized by researchers of being ‘cookie-cutter’ techniques (Potts & Harril, 1998; Twining-Ward, Butler, 2002).

A second group of indicators are the place based developed indicator sets. Tourism Optimization Model that is developed by Manidis Roberts Consultants (1997) and Sustainability Performance Index of Castellini & Sala (2009) are good examples for these. Although place based developed indicators grants researches precision of evaluating uniqueness of destinations, they have also some disadvantages too. For instance, lack of stakeholder information can be considered as a problem in terms of participatory policy making processes. Moreover, locals may have sympathy or apathy towards tourism development so this may affect the whole process. Additionally, compared to ‘cookie-cutter’ sets, developing site or time specific indicator sets are time consuming activities, and also time will change the effectiveness of policy due to changing needs of the destinations. Lastly, since there will be different sets for different destinations it would not be possible to make a comparison between destinations.

Italian rooted Cittaslow movement is widely known as a model which aims to achieve sustainable development in small settlements by preserving their local culture, identity, values and natural environment. Rapidly increasing number of members and other candidates waiting to become a member of this organization show that the movement is highly respected by many countries and local administrative bodies. There are 195 towns in 30 countries by July 2015 and among these 9 of them are in Turkey (Cittaslow, 2013).

The Cittaslow Charter sets 60 common goals and policies aimed at improving the life quality of communities. These indicators, action plans and projects demonstrate how the network adds value to quality of life for the residents and visitors (Mayer & Knox, 2009; Hatipoglu, 2015). Even though tourism development is not at the center of Cittaslow philosophy in many Cittaslow cities, tourism is considered a useful tool to achieve urban development. Nevertheless, many scholars point out that an uncontrolled tourism growth may prevent Cittaslow cities to reach their goals. Thus, before the implementation process the most suitable tourism type for a destination should be carefully evaluated and planned by officials.
The requirements of nomination for the network are mainly composed of sustainable development indicators however these can be short to evaluate the complicated and multidimensional network structure of the tourism phenomenon. Therefore, assessment of sustainability may give better results if theory driven STDI are used in those cities which position tourism at the center of their sustainable developmental goals.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the sustainability of the tourism models in Cittaslow cities by using STDI and investigate the role of Cittaslow model in STD. Results of this study will provide insights both for the practitioners in the field as well as for the researchers. Practically, tourism oriented sustainable development aiming Cittaslow cities may use results as a guide book or to overview their future plans and theoretically, can be used to enhance Cittaslow model and increase its efficiency in terms of sustainable tourism development.

Method of the Study
The study was conducted in Turkey using a sample of stakeholders from three Cittaslow towns during February-June 2014. These three cities (Taraklı, Akyaka, and Yenipazar) share the common timeline of nomination and acceptance to the network but display geographical, demographical and tourism type variety. Therefore they provide variety and a rich context to this research.

Following a secondary data research the three towns were visited and in-depth face to face interviews were conducted with a total of 18 respondents. Besides the mayors and Cittaslow representatives of the three cities respondents included local government officials, NGO representatives, tourism establishment owners & employees. The interviews lasted between an hour to three hours. The interviews were taped and photographed; and notes were taken during the site visits. The collected data were transcribed verbatim by the first researcher while being controlled and corrected by the second researcher. The qualitative soft-ware NVivo (version 9.0) was used to manage and analyze the data. An initial coding book was prepared in guidance of the model utilized.

Content analysis was used to identify themes that emerged from the data. Collected data has been evaluated by using sustainable tourism indicators developed by (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006). Based on the evaluations and comments above, Choi & Sirakaya’s (2006) indicator set has been found appropriate to adopt this study because of several reasons such as; the indicators’ compliance with Cittaslow criteria, the indicator development methodology and contribution of respected tourism experts, the ease of application and, ability of making comparison between destinations. Comparisons have been made between governmental bodies and tourism related stakeholders. Additionally, results of each city were compared to display the differences among them.

The main limitation to the research was the timing of the study. The towns were visited during the low season and there were few out-of-town visitors or international tourists and some tourist shops were closed. The small and medium sized entrepreneurs are an important stakeholder group in destinations (Komppula, 2014) and should have been more widely included in this research. The local elections during the time period have also influenced data collection. As a result the sample size of the study was somewhat limited than planned.

Results
Findings related to the Sustainable Tourism Development indicators
Findings suggest that, being a Cittaslow city caused social enhancement yet, cultural and political problems are still valid. And membership to the Cittaslow network could not help for refinement of this situation in an overall perspective.
Akyaka differs from the other two cities in the application of the Cittaslow principles. The city has not much accomplished in terms of cultural, natural, political and social dimensions of sustainable development. However, Akyaka seems to be developed in terms of integration of technology and innovation in their tourism activities in a very wide range from energy efficiency to data collection and ability of using social media effectively. Yet, there was no concrete evidence which address the contribution of being a part of the Cittaslow network.

In comparison to the other two cities, Taraklı, suffers from cultural, political and technological shortcomings. In terms of natural and social developmentTaraklı is more positive however Taraklı is new to tourism and lack of knowledge about tourism’s negative consequences on both societies and nature may result in this perception.

Yenipazar aims to achieve sustainable development by encouraging local craftsmanship and locally produced goods with the support of Cittaslow; however, tourism is promoted inadequately. Especially F&B establishments expect to receive more customers as a result of increased tourism activity. Political uncertainty and low technology involved daily life are still big problems between tourism stakeholders and STD. Low awareness about tourism and its negative effects can be observed in Yenipazar just like Taraklı. Consequently, natural, economic and social indicators display that Yenipazar stakeholders are pleased about developments in these dimensions.

**Findings regarding the Sustainable Tourism Development Barriers**

Generally, lack of tourism planning and limited knowledge about tourism and tourism industry are accused for being most problematic issues for achieving STD. On the other hand, respondents think that, both local government and local community support are their strong sides. Respondents in Akyaka believe that community support towards STD is extremely high. Yet lack of planning, funds and infrastructure problems are urgent issues that need to be solved.

High local community support and strong will of local government are good features of Taraklı hence; tourism related economic activities are increasing steadily. But, lack of tourism knowledge, lack of cooperation between stakeholders, lack of planning, lack of economical support for tourism entrepreneurs and lack of tourist attractions are problematic issues in Taraklı. Collaboration between stakeholders and funding issues are satisfactory in Yenipazar. However lack of planning and implementation, and lack of community support proved themselves as major problems in the city.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Results of this study demonstrate a few important points for the field of study. Firstly the stakeholders believe that inclusion to the Cittaslow network does not assure STD. Consequently, results of this study point out that being a Cittaslow city positively influences social enhancement however does not change the other dimensions of sustainable tourism. Moreover, this research confirms that lack of planning and limited knowledge about tourism industry is common barriers for achieving sustainable tourism development. However there is noticeable difference among the three cities in terms of results.

**References**


Does the Market Link Thermal Tourism to Wellbeing Tourism? The Case of Copahue's Bath Therapy Center (Argentina)

Marina Zanfardini
Andrea Gutauskas
Universidad Nacional del Comahue
Neuquén, Argentina
Corresponding author marina.zanfardini@fatu.uncoma.edu.ar

Luisa Andreu Simó
Universidad de Valencia
Valencia, España

Introduction

The thermal tourism trend is reflecting a shift from the traditional thermal tourism towards the wellness thermal tourism (Henn, Lopes, Goncalves, & Fraiz, 2008; Radnic & Gracan, 2009). In Argentina, national tourism authorities have incorporated this phenomenon within the national tourism offer under the name of Wellness Tourism, including thermalism as a sub-product (Subsecretaría de Desarrollo Turistico, 2011).

With the intention of exploring wellness thermalism's trend in Patagonian region, we segmented the inbound-potential market of Neuquén City for Copahue’s Bath Therapy Center (BTC). Using attributes and benefits associated to thermal product as segmentation criteria, we analyzed if perceived image by the market -or at least by any segment - relates thermal tourism to wellbeing tourism. Our research questions were: (1) What attributes and benefits are associated by potential tourists to Copahue as a thermal experience? (2) Which segments can be identified and how is the destination’s positioning - in terms of the continuum ‘traditional thermalism’ vs. ‘wellness thermalism’- for each segment?

Literature review

In previous research, health tourism is usually classified in two categories: (1) medical tourism, related to medical procedures to cure some illness; (2) illness prevention tourism, which in turn can be separated on services for specific illness preventions and the wellness tourism (Mueller & Kaufmann, 2001; Voigt, Brown, & Howat, 2011).

Consistency in the literature regarding the concept of wellness tourism is lacking and some terms such as “health tourism”, “holistic tourism”, “well-being tourism” or “spa tourism” are used interchangeably. Although spa tourism has tend to dominate the concept of wellness tourism, it is used by authors to describe a very broad range of tourism activities and contexts, such as new age tourism, volunteer tourism, outdoor, sport and adventure activities, yoga tourism as well as spiritual and religious tourism.

In this paper we use the narrower definition of wellness or well-being tourism proposed by Voigt et al (2011), as “the sum of all the relationships resulting from a journey by people whose motive, in whole or in part, is to maintain or promote their health and well-being, and who stay at least one night at a facility that is specifically designed to enable and enhance people's physical, psychological, spiritual and/or social well-being” (Voigt et al., 2011, p. 17).

Thermal tourism is the set of activities related to the therapeutic use of medicinal-mineral waters, mud, vapors and algae (Alén & Rodríguez, 2004). Trends in thermal tourism

show a product positioning shift from traditional thermalism toward the modern, complete and complex health and recreation tourism (Radnic & Gracan, 2009). Traditional thermalism is consumed by sick, old and low-income tourists, who spend long stays once a year at hospital type curative establishments and mainly consuming curative treatments. On the other hand, wellness thermalism is mainly consumed by 30-40 years old, younger but exhausted and higher-income tourists, which travel throughout the year and that spend more varying stays at healing establishments and/or hotels, and demanding a wider offer of prevention in addition to cure treatments (Radnic & Gracan, 2009).

Except when repeating visit, potential tourists base their destination choices on brand image (Keller, 1993) and product positioning (Ries & Trout, 2002). Brand image results from attributes and benefits associations (Keller, 1993). Positioning is based on the image and it represents the relative place that a destination/product has in the tourists minds in relation to the images of other destinations or other products of the same category (Ries & Trout, 2002).

When thermal tourism is positioned as a wellness experience, tourists associate it with benefits as ‘relaxation and relief’, ‘escape’, ‘self-reward and indulgence’, and ‘health and beauty’ (Mak, Wong, & Chang, 2009). Konu & Laukkanen (2009) suggested that tourists who are motivated in participating physical activities, getting in better shape and promoting and enhancing health have intentions to make a wellbeing trip. Voigt et al. (Voigt et al., 2011) founded ‘transcendence’; ‘physical health and appearance’; ‘escape and relaxation’; ‘important others and novelty’; ‘re-establish self-esteem’; and ‘indulgence’ as benefits linked to wellness tourism.

Methods & Materials

Located 360 km away from Neuquén City, Copahue’s BTC is the most important thermal product of Neuquén Province. It presents a differentiation from other Argentinean thermal destinations, since it has the four possible types of thermal resources: waters, sludges, vapors and algae. Its management is through the Provincial Ente of Neuquén Termas (EProTeN), it has a capacity of 2500 baths per day and, due to the climatic constraints, its opening period for tourists goes from December to April.

In May 2013 we conducted an online structured survey on 364 30-60 years old citizen of Neuquén. People included in the sample had a thermal previous experience but they haven't visited Copahue’s BTC. A quota sampling was applied, following population parameters of gender and age of the last census (INDEC, 2010).

Research constructs were operationalized using previous research scales: the Attributes scale was built from Radnic & Gracan (2009) and the Benefits scale was adapted from Mak et al. (2009). They were measured using five-point semantic differential scales for attributes items and 7-point Likert scale for benefits. The questionnaire was pretested with academics and students of a tourism degree.

Using the SPSS computer program, factor analysis was performed to reduce the number of variables and to detect the structure in the relationship between variables. Principal component analysis was employed to examine the underlying relationship among the 16 attributes and benefits items. Factor scores were saved as variables and a hierarchic cluster analysis was applied, with the Ward method for agglomeration and the square Euclidean distance as measure.

Results

Attributes and benefits were reduced to 8 components, explaining 76.52% of total variance and with a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .800 (sig. = .000). Four components
represented attributes: Varied and fun (13.35%), High quality thermal resources and experience (10.96%), Sophisticated and modern (10.37%) and Expensive (6.51%); while the other four components represented benefits: Aesthetic and reward (9.96%), Cure and health (9.77%), Escape and affiliation (8.37%) and Spiritual refreshment (7.22%).

Five different segments were identified (Table 1):

Cluster 1 (N= 149, 38.5%): they believe that Copahue’s BTC is a place for aesthetic care and for personal reward. They don’t believe it as a place neither to spend time with family/friends nor to look for a spiritual refreshment.

Cluster 2 (N= 55, 15.1%): this group perceives that the center offers a low-quality wellness experience and that delivers only-medical treatments. They link it with the aesthetic benefit as well as cure and health, but employing standard services and old technology.

Cluster 3 (N=92, 25.3%): Associates Copahue BTC to wellness thermalism. They believe is a place prepared to entertain people of all ages, that deserves be visited many times a year, and where high quality thermal resources and varied wellness experience are guaranteed. They also associate the BTC with sophisticated services, with modern technology and, with an expensive trip. They relate several benefits to Copahue BTC: spiritual refreshment, medical cure and routine escape and being with relatives, but they don’t believe the place offers opportunities for aesthetic care.

Cluster 4 (N=43, 11.8%): Skeptics to thermals service of Copahue BTC. This group is the one that has the most negative perceived image regards the thermal product of Copahue. They don’t agree that Copahue BTC is a place where neither the aesthetic-care nor the self-reward can be achieved, nor to cure medical affections.

Cluster 5 (N=34, 9.3%): Associates Copahue BTC in a transition. This group positions Copahue BTC in a transition between traditional thermalism to wellness thermalism. They are the most optimists relating to the high quality of Copahue BTC thermal resources and experience and they highlight the spiritual refreshment that the place can offers. However, they emphasize that the services are standard and that the technology is old fashioned. So, they perceive the services must be cheap.

Table 1: Clusters means for attributes and benefits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes and Benefits Components</th>
<th>Ward Method Clusters</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 (N= 140) (38.46%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Att.: Varied and fun</td>
<td>-1.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Att.: High quality thermal resources and experience</td>
<td>-1.41</td>
<td>62.512 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Att.: Sophisticated and modern</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben.: Aesthetic and reward</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>36.760 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben.: Cure and health</td>
<td>-1.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben: Escape and affiliation</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben: Spiritual refreshment</td>
<td>-.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Att.: Expensive</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>39.900 .000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2 (N= 55) (15.1%)</td>
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<td>3 (N= 92) (25.2%)</td>
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<td>-.74</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4 (N= 43) (11.8%)</td>
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<td>.07</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5 (N= 34) (9.3%)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Discussion and conclusion

This study allowed to characterize the potential for wellness tourism at Neuquén travel market and to go deeply into the attributes and the sought benefits at wellness tourism destinations. Its results provide useful information for taking positioning decisions and for the planning of their practices of products design as well as their image’s communication.

While a global trend is to relate thermal tourism to wellness tourism, this situation is not reflected consistently in the image perception of Copahue’s thermal experience at the market in study. Only one segment (Cluster 3) follows strictly this trend while we also found some other “grey situations”.

The Clusters 3 and 1 are the most attractive potential segments, the former due its positive image about the BTC as wellness center, and the second due to its size. The EProTeN’s managers may improve the demand’s level through generating and promoting specific offers to highlight the attributes and benefits sought by them, as "spa services" for Cluster 1 and "inclusive wellness programs (for family, friends, etc.)" for Cluster 3.

The Cluster 5 has a mixed or a “in-transition” image and the Cluster 2 still believes that when travelling to Copahue’s BTC they will find a traditional thermal center, more related to a hospital than to a wellbeing place. To avoid this confusing image, it is imperative that managers make better efforts to distinguish wellness vacations in Copahue from cure stays and illness and to create and communicate their differentiated offer to the market.

References


Loyal vs. first-time tourists – challenges for destination management

Snježana Boranić Živoder
Sanda Čorak
Ivan Sever
Institute for Tourism
Zagreb, Croatia
snjezana.boranic@itztg.hr

Introduction
Many different supply aspects have an effect on the experience of visiting a destination. Some of these are partly inherited, such as natural and cultural resources, but some of them primarily depend on the quality of destination management. Although many definitions of destination management exist, the UNWTO (2007) defines destination management as “a planned and coordinated activity of a large number of stakeholders in the public and private sectors with the aim of improving the quality of life and visitors’ experiences in a destination.” Collecting data on travel characteristics of the tourists such as the number of visits are extremely important and can significantly contribute to the quality of marketing and management activities. This paper aims to investigate difference between ‘first time’ visitors to those who visited Croatia ‘several times’ (6 visits and more). It examines the differences with respect to the motives of arrival, length of stay, activities in the area, consumption, satisfaction, intention to return and expenditures, and gives some insight into the destination management tasks.

Literature review
Loyalty of tourists visiting tourism destinations is often associated with positive connotations. These are the emotional connection with the destination, positive experiences that encourage return, and recommendations that satisfied tourists are disseminating (Marušić at al., 2011; Opperman, 2000). In addition, surveys that have been conducted shows that the previous stay is one of the most important sources of information. Some authors claim (Oom do Valle, Silva, Mendes & Guerreiro, 2006) that consumers have less free time available and therefore try to simplify their buying decisions process by acquiring familiar products. The other (Moutinho, 2000) consider that trip to the same destination means reducing some of the risks inherent in the consumption of services. Campon, Alves and Hernandez (2013) pointed out that “risk-averse people may feel the need to revisit a familiar destination.” Thus, different factors in contemporary life can affect the behavior of tourists and change of habits.

In the marketing as well as in the tourism literature, repeat purchase and / or visitation often is taunted as something to be desired (Oppermann, 2000). Benefits of attracting loyal guests includes lower sensitivity to price changes (Alegre & Juenada, 2006) and the lower marketing costs needed to attract that segment (Haywood, 1989). Although the loyalty in marketing literature is very well described, that is not a case in tourism (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006, Opperman 2000). Nevertheless, more recently some of the aspects of consumers’ loyalty have received increased attention of the scholars. These aspects include the correlation between satisfaction and motivations of loyal tourists (Oom do Valle Silva Mendes & Guerreiro, 2006; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Um al. Al. 2006, Leon, Yeh, Hsiao & Huan, 2015) and the correlation between tourists’ loyalty and expenditures in a destination (Alegre & Juaneda, 2006).
At the same time, in a world of growing competition in tourism, destination management is one of the most important discussion topics in scholarly and professional circles. Developments in the modern world are rapidly changing tourist market where it is increasingly difficult for destination to gain and to maintain the level of desired competitiveness. With new destinations entering the tourist market and technological development, potential tourists are exposed to a large quantity of information and they finally make decisions about their trips on the basis of many different sources and experiences/recommendations. In such a globalized world, it is particularly interesting to investigate characteristics of loyal tourists vs. those in a first visit to a destination and explore their differences in travel characteristics and patterns of their stay in a destination. For example, research results about the vacation planning of Europeans indicate that natural beauty, quality of accommodation, cultural and historical attractions and favorable prices are the most important aspects in revisiting destination (European Commission, 2014).

Campon, Alves and Hernandez (2013) analyzed 47 papers dealing with the issue of loyalty in tourism and showed that 30 of them use repeat visits and recommendations as indicators of loyalty either alone or accompanied by other factors. The behavioral dimension of loyalty, as one of dimension, inherently acknowledges that previous experiences is influential on todays and tomorrow’s travel decisions and destination choice (Oppermann, 2000). This paper defines the ‘intention to return to destination’ as loyalty factor and therefore the main goal of this paper is to compare the tourists who visited a destination six or more times vs. first-time tourists.

**Methodology**

The data reported herein were collected as a part of a larger survey on attitudes and expenditures of tourists in Croatia – “TOMAS Summer survey 2014” (Institute for Tourism, 2015). The survey was conducted during the summer months of 2014 (June-September), and includes 4,035 respondents interviewed in 76 destinations in the seven coastal counties that account for more than 90% of total overnights realized in Croatia. Stratified sample has been chosen and strata include the different types of accommodation facilities (hotels and similar facilities, camps and private accommodation) and major generating markets (16). This paper utilizes the data on first-time visitors (n = 827) and tourists who realized six or more visits to Croatia (n = 1,344). As the question on the number of visits to Croatia was not applicable to domestic tourists, the analysis refers to the foreign tourists that realize usually majority of total overnights (more than 80%).

This paper examines the differences between first-time visitors and loyal tourists (defined above) with respect to the motives of arrival, travel party, length of stay and activities in the area, total expenditures, satisfaction and intention to return. In accordance with the categorical nature of the variables describing the motives of arrival, travel party, activities in the area and intention to return, calculated descriptive statistics include relative frequencies. The association between the characteristics of stay and tourist loyalty was examined by chi-square test. In the case of low occurrence of certain values of variable, Fisher’s exact test was applied. On the other hand, descriptive statistics for quantitative variables related to the length of stay, total expenditures and perceived satisfaction included mean values and standard deviations/confidence intervals or medians and interquartile ranges. Differences in the distributions of the ratings of satisfaction items and length of stay between the two groups of tourists (first-time visitors and loyal guests) were tested by the nonparametric Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test. Satisfaction items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 – ‘very dissatisfied’ and 7 – ‘very satisfied’. Distribution of the average daily expenditures in destination, both total and excluding those for the accommodation
services, were approximately log-normal; therefore, the difference in these variables between the two groups was analyzed using the t-test for independent samples. The significance level was set at 0.05. Analysis was performed using the SAS System, version 8.2 (SAS Institute Inc., North Carolina, USA).

**Research results**

This section examines the differences in travel patterns between first-time tourists and repeat guests.

Main motives: Significant difference between first-time tourists and repeat tourists were noted for the majority of motives. First-time tourists were motivated more by the entertainment (51% of first-time tourists vs. 39% repeat tourists; p < 0.001), new experiences and adventures (41% vs. 25%; p < 0.001), gastronomy (37% vs. 23%; p < 0.001), visiting natural attractions (30% vs. 15%; p < 0.001) and by cultural heritage (14% vs. 4%; p < 0.001). A higher proportion of those who have come for rest and relaxation (79% of loyal tourists vs. 67% first-time visitors; p < 0.001), who are visiting friends and relatives (9% vs. 2%; p < 0.001), who are motivated by sports and recreation (7% vs. 4%; p = 0.003) and who came for health reasons (6% vs. 2%; p < 0.001) were registered more among repeat tourists.

Activities: Significant differences between first-time tourists and repeat tourists were also detected across their activities in a destination. First-time tourists were generally more active. They were more often engaged in shopping (75% vs. 59%; p < 0.001), sightseeing (71% vs. 61%), attending events (66% vs. 56%; p < 0.001), visiting museums (58% vs. 28%; p < 0.001), dance or disco clubs (55% vs. 39%; p < 0.001), attending concerts (45% vs. 25%; p < 0.001), visiting national parks (44% vs. 33%; p < 0.001), engaging in water sports (40% of first-time visitors vs. 31% of loyal tourists; p < 0.001), visiting theatres (37% vs. 19%; p < 0.001), adventure sports (18% vs. 9%; p < 0.001), hiking (16% vs. 12%; p = 0.018) and horse riding (11% vs. 5%; p < 0.001). Repeat tourists were more active in cycling or mountain biking (33% of loyal tourists vs. 27% of first-time visitors; p < 0.001) and fishing (27% vs. 14%; p < 0.001).

Satisfaction: Analysis of perceived satisfaction level with various aspects of destination products showed that the first-time visitors are more satisfied with the following elements: suitability for people with special needs, beach equipment and beach tidiness, quality of local transport and ‘value for money’ for gastronomic offer. On the other hand, loyal tourists were more satisfied with personal safety, suitability for a family holiday and short-break holiday, accessibility of destination, service quality in accommodation and friendliness of staff in the accommodation facilities.

**Length of stay:** The results of the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test suggest that there is a significant difference in distributions of number of overnights in Croatia and in destination of visit between the first-time and loyal tourists. Duration of stay in a destination of the first group of tourists was shorter. Average stay of first-time tourists amounts to 8.5 days and average stay of loyal tourists was 10.6 days.

Travel party: Chi-square test confirmed that there is a significant difference between the first-time and loyal tourists with respect to the type of travel party (p < 0.001). Travelling with family is more popular among loyal tourists (50% compared to 38% of first-time visitors). On the other hand, travelling with a partner only is more represented amongst first-time visitors (42% compared to 34% of loyal tourists).

Planning the 2015 summer holiday in the same destination: First-time tourists significantly differ from loyal guests regarding the 2015 summer plans. While every second loyal guest plans to return to the same destination in 2015, this is true for only 17% of first-time tourists.
Expenditure: The comparison of average (i.e. per person) total daily expenditures in a destination revealed significant difference between first-time and loyal tourists (p < 0.001; independent t-test). Average total daily expenditure amounts to 84 Euros (95% CI: 78.8-88.6) for first-time and 54 Euros (95% CI: 51.7-55.8) for loyal tourists. However, this difference is partially due to the chosen different accommodation facilities being chosen by these two groups.

The comparison of average daily expenditures in a destination (without accommodation costs) revealed that first-time tourists spent significantly more (at aggregated level) on destination services such as gastronomy, shopping, culture, sport and recreation, entertainment, organized trips and other services than loyal tourists (p < 0.001; independent t-test). Average daily expenditures on these services were 36 euros (95% CI: 33.5-39.5) for first-time tourists and 21 euros (95% CI: 19.8-22.0) for repeat tourists.

Discussion and conclusions
As previously stated, the aim of this paper is to investigate the link between loyalty to a destination and travel characteristics and behavior patterns of tourists. Insights into the results can provide valuable information for destination planning and possible improvements of destination marketing and management activities.

The analysis provides valuable insight for destination management, particularly in relation to elements of destination tourism products and market segmentation. This information enables tourism managers to pay more attention to specific elements of destination offer that need improvement. Research results showed significant differences between the investigated market segments, in that way giving ideas for better tailored marketing and destination management activities. Future research should also investigate psychographic characteristics of first-time vs. repeat tourists, since these can also affect their travel patterns and behavior while staying in destination.

References:
Postmodern Museum Visitor Experience as a Leisure Activity: The Case of Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum

Çağıl Hale Özel
Seda Buldu
Anadolu University, Tourism Faculty
chkayar@anadolu.edu.tr (Corresponding author)

Introduction

20th century has implied the period in which postmodernism gradually evolved and that had its reflections on the studies that handle the development of museums. Indeed, museums started to represent postmodern conditions (hyper reality, fragmentation, reversal of consumption and production, decentering of the subject and paradoxical juxtaposition) proposed by Firat, & Vankatesh (1993) in many respects. In a way, it can be argued that functions of the museums have increasingly diversified and gained a post-modern nature.

Visitors of postmodern museums, where consumption, game and entertainment coexist (Featherstone, 2007), are thought to be different from other museum visitors (Bruce, 2006, p.135). This assumption stems basically from the transformation from consumer to postmodern consumer. Postmodern consumers’ patterns of consumption are extremely adaptable and easily changeable (Brown, 1995, p.138). Therefore, motivations and behaviors of postmodern museum visitors or the issues they heed in their visits acquire a different character.

Considering this point of view, profile of Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum’s visitors was identified with a descriptive research design in this study. The assumption that Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum can be accepted as a postmodern museum has led authors of this study to find out whether Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum’s visitors constitute a homogeneous group in the context of their motivations. Besides, this study attempted to determine the profiles of motivation-based visitor clusters in the context of their demographic characteristics and travel behavior. In addition to investigating the evolution of museums after postmodernism, this study is noteworthy in terms of providing information about postmodern museums’ visitor profile.

Literature Review

Beginning from the middle of 1990s, museums have grown exponentially in number, size and variety. It can be said that there are two dimensions of this museum revaluation. On the one hand, physical changes in design and style come into existence. Thus, museums’ additional spaces for cafes, museum shops, and visitor centers play a significant role in maintaining and expanding the visitor base and financial support (Rectanus, 2006, pp.389-390). Similarly, Marstine (2006, p.12) explains the transformation of the museum by exemplifying new museum facilities which may include reception and orientation areas, restaurants, cafes, shops, rest rooms, education centers, and theatres etc. Meaning-based changes as the second dimension have become apparent in museum revaluation. According to modernist theory, the museum was a shrine - a ritual site influenced by church, palace, and ancient temple architecture (Marstine, 2006, p.10). As Urry (1990, p.130) mentioned, living museums replace dead museums, sound replaces hushed silence, and visitors are not separated from the exhibits by glass.

Rentschler (2007, p.346) suggested that understanding audiences is an important part of museum marketing. As Onur (2012) mentioned before, in spite of superficiality of the previous researches, further studies focus on various psychographic factors, lifestyle values
and motivations (Davidson, & Sibley, 2011, p.179). Nevertheless, reasons, motivations and prompts for a visit, which are conceptually different are mixed up in the question regarding 'why people visit', and motivations to visit a museum are multiple and diverse (Kawashima, 1998, p.28; Gil, & Ritchie, 2009, p.484). This has led authors of this study to grasp how the market segments of visitors in postmodern museums can occur. Authors of this study aim to gain insights into the characteristics of visitor profile of Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum. More specifically, this study aimed to examine whether YBWM's target market comprises of both modern and postmodern visitors segment. By examining and deeply understanding the visitor profile of the museum, marketing strategy may be more visitor oriented and visitors' wants and needs can easily be fulfilled.

Methods and Material

Questionnaire was used as data collection technique. In questionnaire development stage, previous studies (Ozgoren, 2007; Gurel, 2013; Uysal, 2005; Hsieh, 2010) in the literature, which examined the profiles of museum visitors, have been referred. In the first section of questionnaire, museum visitors in the sample were asked to indicate demographic data. In the second section, questions were related to travel behavior. The last section was developed to measure the motivations of museum visitors by means of a 5 point Likert type scale. A total of 21 motivational items were derived from the literature review.

Convenience sampling technique was benefited for the selection of museum visitors to be taken in the context of research. Face to face interviews took place in restaurants and cafes in Odunpazari and in waiting area outside the museum. 225 usable questionnaires were collected during May 2015. This study used a factor-cluster approach to identify the profile of the YBWM's visitors. Cluster analysis aimed to generate homogenous groups of visitors as to their motivations. Finally, chi-square analysis was used to generate a profile of visitor clusters based on the demographic and travel behavior data.

Results

Having identified the motivational factors, the study applied a cluster analysis to divide museum visitors into market segments based on their motivations. Table 1 gives the results of cluster analysis based on motivational factors of museum visitors. Based on the importance scores of each cluster for each motivation factors, four clusters were named “Technology Lovers”, “Hyper Reality Seekers”, “Diners and Shoppers”, and “Escapists”.


Table 1: Cluster Analysis for Museum Visitors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Clusters</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
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<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the segments were identified segment characteristics were determined based on the differences among clusters. Chi-square statistic was employed for the assessment of differences in terms of demographics and travel behavior dimensions. As shown in Table 2, only visitors’ age showed significant difference among four clusters.
### Table 2: Differences among Museum Visitors’ Clusters in Terms of Demographics and Travel Behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of Clusters</th>
<th>Technology Lovers</th>
<th>Hyper Reality Seekers</th>
<th>Diners and Shoppers</th>
<th>Escapists</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>57.6</td>
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<td>24.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
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*p < 0.05

### Conclusion and Discussion

In this study, motivations of museum visitors were measured and it was found that visitors’ motivations can be explained under five different motivation dimensions. Among the motivation dimensions, Escape owns the greatest share. Results of this study supports the previous studies in terms of determining Escape as a basic motivation dimension. Additionally, YBWM’s visitors are also motivated by hyper reality and technological facilities. As known, postmodern consumers are pleased with ambiguity between reality and fiction. In fact, wax sculptures or dioramas provide postmodern museum visitors the simulations instead of real ones. As another motivation dimension, technology enables active visitor involvement in museum experience by the help of digital guides and books, touch screens, applications for smartphone, simulators, layer holograms, and etc. Thereby, it is possible to view the results of this study in the context of reflection of postmodern conditions to motivations of museum visitors.

Although the motivations of Socialization and Food & Beverage and Shopping were also frequently highlighted in the previous tourist behavior studies, visits of postmodern museums’ visitors with these motivations might be a result of psychical and meaning-based changes in museums. The considerable variety of identified factors implies that postmodern museums’ visitors are motivated by many other dimensions, which stay out of predetermined and well-known motivation dimensions, and this reveals the fact that further studies are required on behaviors of postmodern museums’ visitors.

The results of cluster analysis which used factor scores indicated that YBWM’s visitors can be classified into four clusters based on their motivations. These clusters were named as; Technology Lovers, Hyper Reality Seekers, Diners & Shoppers and Escapists. As can be understood from the results of this classification, there is not a single and stable prototype of postmodern museum visitors. Instead, visitor groups who have differentiating motivations constitute homogenous market segments. Moreover, identified visitor clusters show significant differences according to age as a demographic variable whereas there is not a significant difference between clusters in terms of behavioral variables. Findings of this research will not only give a hint for Yilmaz Buyukersen Wax Museum management but also for museums which have a similar nature in terms of postmodern conditions.

### References


